The impact of social exchange on volunteer's workplace outcomes in non-profit organisations

Queen Emwenkeke Usadolo

Southern Cross University

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The impact of social exchange on volunteers’ workplace outcomes in non-profit organisations

Queen Emwenkeke Usadolo
B.Com, B.Com (Hons) and M.Com

School of Business and Tourism
Southern Cross University

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
December 2016.
Declaration of originality

I certify that the work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original, except as acknowledged in the text, and that the material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

I acknowledge that I have read and understood the University's rules, requirements, procedures and policy relating to my higher degree research award and to my thesis. I certify that I have complied with the rules, requirements, procedures and policy of the University.

Mrs Queen Emwenkeke Usadolo

Date
Abstract
Decreases in government funding for welfare and social services in Australia have accelerated the emergence of non-profit organisations (NPOs), particularly community NPOs. Community NPOs are integral components of Australian society, particularly in Queensland. They provide essential services with the help of volunteers. Hence, this study was undertaken to understand how workplace relationships affect volunteers’ attitudes and behaviours such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs. This understanding will help managers in the community NPOs to plan their volunteer retention strategies, reduce high dropout rates, and attract new volunteers.

Using social exchange theory as an analytical lens, this study examined the impact of its constructs (perceived organisational support (POS) and leader member exchange (LMX)) on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Social exchange theory provides a better understanding of the impact of management on workplace outcomes. A model was developed that shows the relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables, with motive fulfilment represented in the model as a mediator.

Using a quantitative approach, a cross-sectional survey technique was applied to collect data from five community service NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The data collected from 218 participants were analysed with SPSS 22.0. Simple linear regression and multiple regression analysis were used to examine the hypotheses. The results show that the independent variables (perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange) had a significant impact on the dependent variables (volunteer job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay) in the community NPOs investigated. In addition, the fulfilment of most of the motives partially mediated the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables. These results confirm previous findings and contribute new knowledge about the impact of workplace relationships on volunteers’ attitudes and behaviours, especially as they relate to the influence of motive fulfilment in the relationship between POS and LMX and the identified workplace outcomes in this study.
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**Usadolo, Q.E.**, Brunetto, Y., Gillett, P. and Nelson, S. 2017. The influence of the relationship with the supervisor on volunteers’ intentions to stay in community non-profit organisations: The mediating impact of motive fulfilment (Article sent to a journal and is being reviewed).


Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction
Volunteerism has been receiving increasing attention (Alfansi & Atmaja 2009) as an instrument of community service delivery in non-profit organisations (NPOs) (Borzaga & Santuari 2003; Cuskelly et al. 2006). Hence, scholars are calling for policies (Stukas, et al. 2016) that focus on the understanding of volunteers’ motivations (Ferreira, Proença & Proença 2012) and that ensure sustainability. Volunteer-involving NPOs have contributed significantly to the Australian economy (Dolnicar & Randle 2007) and to the economies of many other western countries such as the USA (Chelladurai 2006; Wilson & Pimm 1996) and Sweden (Ferreira, Proença & Proença 2012). Despite their economic importance, much is still not known about these NPOs (McMurray et al. 2009) and their workforces, including their volunteers (Akintola 2011; Holmes 2014).

Thus, more research is needed to understand volunteers and factors within NPOs that promote desirable workplace outcomes for volunteers. This chapter gives background information to the research and an overview of volunteering in Queensland. This chapter also provides the context for the study and the research problem. The research questions and justification of the study are then discussed, followed by the practical implications of the study and its contribution to the literature. The chapter ends with an introduction to the research methodology and an outline of each of the chapters of the thesis.

1.2 Background to the study
Democracies around the world are judged by how well they respond to the socio-economic challenges of their citizens. As meeting these challenges is sometimes problematic, governments partner with other sectors of the society in the delivery of essential services. In this regard, non-profit organisations (NPOs) have been found to play a prominent role, not only in the provision of essential services (Hodgkinson 1999), but also in identifying services that will complement government efforts and improve the quality of life of the people (Salamon 2002; Chandler & Johansen 2012). According to Hodgkinson (1999) and Morris (2000), an NPO is a self-governing private entity which is not operating for the purpose of making profit for its members, and when profit is made, it is used to carry out operations that will further enhance the attainment
of the organisation’s goals. NPOs are referred to as voluntary, third sector or civil society organisations (Morris 2000). They are diverse social institutions that are between private business organisations and state institutions (Salamon & Sokolowski 2004). According to Chandler and Johansen (2012, p. 76), the term ‘third sector organisation’ describes NPOs because there is a “shifting of responsibility from government (second sector) to NPOs” in order to fulfil the mandate for service delivery to the people.

The proliferation of NPOs began in the 1980s as countries across the globe – especially the developed countries – shifted the responsibilities of providing some basic social services to the private and non-profit sectors (Burke 2012), due to the increasing need for less state involvement and more civil society presence in service delivery (Hodgkinson 1999). This has been associated with a steady decrease in government funding for welfare and social services (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti 1994), accelerating the emergence of NPOs.

NPOs can deliver services at a low cost because they rely on volunteers who work without pay and choose “to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit” (Ellis & Noyes 1990, p. 4). The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) defines a volunteer as “someone who, in the last 12 months, willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group” (ABS 2001, p. 3). The unpaid services given by volunteers make a huge contribution to the lives of people in the community. They help to build social connections, resulting in a significant sense of belonging (McLean 2015).

In Australia, volunteering activities date back to 1813 (Oppenheimer 2000) and they enable people to demonstrate pro-social acts of citizenship for the greater good of the society. The value of volunteering to the Australia economy is estimated to be approximately $42 billion per annum, with the time donated by volunteers to community and welfare services alone being responsible for a contribution valued at $27.4 billion per annum (Volunteering Australia 2011). A 2006 ABS survey reports that 84 per cent of volunteering occurs in NPOs, with approximately 14 per cent occurring in government sector organisations. According to Volunteering Australia (2011), roughly 78 per cent of volunteers prefer to work for NPOs. A recent Pro Bono Australia
survey states that NPOs benefit from the efforts of 5.2 million Australians (Pro Bono 2014). As in many other western nations, volunteer organisations or NPOs are integral components of Australian society, with an annual turnover of approximately $100 billion (Pro Bono 2014). There are an estimated 700,000 NPOs in Australia, many of which rely on volunteers (Volunteering Australia 2011) to deliver social services in key sectors such as health, welfare, arts, culture, heritage, environment and conservation, sport and recreation, education, religion, human rights and emergency services (ABS 2010). Four common types of volunteer organisations are in the areas of sports/physical recreation, education/training, community/welfare and religion across every state of Australia (ABS 2010). For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

According to Volunteering Australia (2009), community NPOs account for 25 per cent of the total number of NPOs in Australia. This translates to about 5,800 community NPOs playing crucial roles in providing social services across Australia (ABS 2009). According to Volunteering Australia, 22 per cent of adults in Australia volunteered in community NPOs in 2010, surpassed only by sport and recreation NPOs at 37 per cent (Volunteering Australia 2015).

Community NPOs deal with a range of issues that are fundamental to society, such as poverty, community safety and security, housing, homelessness, aged care, domestic violence, resettlement, alcoholism and mental illness. According to the Australian Council of Social Services (ACOSS) (2009), community NPOs meet sensitive needs which have evolved over time, and which are not directly met by government, the private sector, or family or personal support networks. For example, ACOSS reports that the assistance required by asylum seekers to address narcotic drug use and other social challenges may be very politically sensitive for government departments or agencies to handle (ACOSS 2009). In addition, volunteers in community NPOs have also been at the forefront of empowering citizens to take control of their lives through community development initiatives – and also by building relationships and networks to facilitate the provision of self-help and mutual support (ACOSS 2009). This has, in turn, resulted in building a resilient and cohesive community able to ‘stand on its own feet’ when necessary (Productivity Commission 2010; Volunteering Australia 2011). Like other NPOs, community NPOs provide various services, mainly through
assistance from volunteers, which in the case of Queensland is regarded as a generous contribution to the wellbeing and prosperity of the state (Queensland Government 2007).

1.2.1 An overview of volunteering in Queensland
Volunteering is a highly regarded social activity in Queensland (Department of Communities, Child and Safety Services 2013) and this is one of the reasons this study is important. Volunteers are represented by a peak body known as Volunteering Queensland Inc., which was founded more than three decades ago to fulfil advocacy, education, training roles and to help in the placement of volunteers in NPOs (Volunteering Queensland 2013, 2014). A review undertaken in 2006 resulted in the development of a policy that led to the establishment of an Office for Volunteering in the Department of Communities to ensure that the concerns of Queensland’s volunteer sector are met (Queensland Government 2007). As a testament to the high value of volunteering in Queensland, the Queensland Government endorsed the National Volunteer Strategy released in 2011. The National Volunteer Strategy is presented in a white paper that includes some fundamental regulatory standards volunteering management has to adhere to in terms of responding to trends in volunteering, harnessing technology, regulation and risk management, administration and training, strengthening relationships and advocacy, and recognising and valuing volunteering (National volunteering strategy 2011). Both initiatives (the creation of an Office of Volunteering and the endorsement of the National Volunteer Strategy) have resulted in a Queensland Government that is responsive to volunteer issues and provides funding to NPOs to deliver volunteer programmes, training and other general support for volunteers (Department of Communities Child and Safety Services 2012). While all these initiatives are laudable, they focus only on strengthening regulatory mechanisms and creating funding opportunities for volunteering. They do not address important issues such as cultivating positive organisational relationships that influence volunteers’ workplace outcomes.

According to Queensland’s Department of Communities, Child and Safety Services (2013), one out of three adults in the state participated in voluntary work in 2010. This equates to approximately 1.2 million adults who volunteered in 2010 as opposed to 1.1 million in 2006. Most of these volunteers undertook formal volunteering work in
community NPOs to provide assistance that benefited society at large (Department of Communities, Child and Safety Services 2013). As noted by St. John and Creyton (2014), Queensland registered Australia’s highest volunteer participation rate, alongside the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) at 38 per cent in 2006. Overall, the state’s participation rate has increased annually since 1995 and is predicted to continue to expand from 2011 to 2021 (St John & Creyton 2014).

As an indication of the increasing volunteering activities in Queensland, Volunteering Queensland Inc. states that as at March 2011, 19,087 people had registered their interest in volunteering and 1,352 NPOs were seeking volunteers, an increase from 12,328 people and 1,232 NPOs in June 2010 (Department of Communities Child and Safety Services 2012). These figures highlight Queenslanders’ growing interest in volunteering, and also a need to encourage volunteering in order to fill vacancies in the NPOs because their limited financial resources prevent them from engaging more paid employees. The need to engage and retain volunteers is exemplified in UnitingCare Community, one of the leading community NPOs in Queensland. UnitingCare Community has a huge workforce of 6000 volunteers and regards volunteers as a fundamental part of its workforce. The organisation reports that these volunteers have enabled it to consistently deliver valuable services to the communities of Queensland (Magriplis 2012). The demonstrable importance of volunteers to the UnitingCare Community highlights the need to explore mechanisms to engage and retain volunteers. There is a real need to look at organisational factors such as management and their support in community NPOs in Queensland in relation to how they impact on volunteers’ workplace outcomes, especially as it has become apparent from the discussion above that volunteers are a source of tremendous economic advantage to the state.

The Department of Communities, Child and Safety Services (2013) still relies on 2006 statistics, which put the economic value of volunteering to the Queensland economy at approximately $13.4 billion. Although this statistic is out-dated, it is expected that the increased interest volunteering has received in the state might have increased its economic value. The figure highlights the significant contribution of volunteering in Queensland – especially in building robust and sustainable communities (Queensland Government 2007). The increasing interest in volunteering was evident in the 2008
storm and 2011 flood in Queensland when tremendous numbers of people volunteered spontaneously to assist in mitigating the havoc these natural disasters caused. The organisation of these volunteers in both instances is regarded as providing experience that will be useful in future responses to natural disasters (Department of Communities Child and Safety Services 2012).

Unfortunately, the funding challenges at the Commonwealth level have also found a familiar echo at the state level in Queensland as NPOs who use volunteers are consistently citing funding constraints as an impediment to their progress. For example, Commonwealth funding for state volunteer peak bodies across Australia, including Volunteer Queensland Inc., stopped in 2014. For several decades this had been one of the major sources of finance enabling volunteer organisations to stay afloat, and its absence means instability in project planning, staffing, training, advocacy and budgetary matters (Volunteering Queensland Annual Report 2013-2014). This leaves the beneficiaries of volunteer efforts in Queensland communities without the services they used to enjoy, and it is also one of the reasons for examining the background to the research problem of the present study in the next section.

1.3 Background to the research problem
As indicated above, funding constraints are a global challenge that affects NPOs’ policies, their organisational goals, the services they offer and how they relate to volunteers (Leete 2000). As pointed out by McMurray et al. (2010) this has resulted in a situation where NPOs are increasingly being requested to do more with fewer resources. The tight funding constraints also mean NPOs face many complex challenges such as “funding cuts for their services, increased accountability requirements, and factors within the organisation such as low morale, burnout and high turnover” (Packard 2012, p. 222). In Australia, the current budget policy developed by the coalition government poses obvious funding challenges for the NPO sector. According to Pro Bono News (15 April, 2014) ninety per cent NPOs have no hope of securing federal government funding for their key services and more than 60 per cent of them are planning to downsize as a result of the uncertainty. Pro Bono Australia’s survey of NPOs in 2014 also identified the federal government policy on funding as having a negative impact on volunteering. Given these financial circumstances faced by NPOs, Dolnicar and Randle (2007) remark that the demand
for more volunteers to run the affairs of the NPOs will continue to increase as NPOs are faced with the need to cut down on salaries and other financial benefits for paid staff. In light of this, it is important that managers of volunteers do all they can to retain their volunteers in order to minimise expenses (Starnes 2007; Lee, Alexander & Kim 2013).

In addition to funding constraints, NPOs also face problems due to the ageing volunteer population (ACOSS 2009) and changes in social conditions (Taylor et al. 2006) which have contributed to the shortage of volunteers in Australia, and in Queensland in particular. Hence, it is of critical importance to conduct research on volunteer workplace outcomes. For instance, it is reported that most people who volunteer for community service organisations are aged 65 and over (Department of Communities, Child and Safety Services 2013). Moreover, in general, young volunteers have been found to contribute a smaller number of volunteer hours per individual, and there has been a decline in regular time commitments by volunteers to the organisations they work for (ABS 2010). This is very common in community NPOs (ABS 2010). As such, there is a need for a better understanding of what management and their supports need to do to motivate volunteers to be committed and stay longer in community NPOs.

In a survey of volunteers and volunteers’ managers in South East Queensland, St John and Creyton (2013) remark that one of the problems commonly reported is that despite high enthusiasm and resource-intensive training, there continues to be high volunteer drop out. They also observe that taking into consideration the resources required for volunteers’ orientations, the fact that most volunteers only stay in an organisation for an average of one to three months puts pressure on long-term volunteers who then experience burn out (St. John & Creyton 2013). Furthermore, high volunteer dropout rates make it impossible for volunteers to understand the culture of their organisations or develop proper relationships with their organisations and their supervisors (St. John & Creyton 2013). Thus, research focusing on how management and their supports influence desirable volunteer workplace outcomes is necessary for community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. These desirable workplace outcomes can, in turn, enhance volunteer retention rates in the NPOs as most of them
(NPOs) are under increasing pressure to compete for more volunteers (Dolnicar & Randle 2007; Engelberg, Zakus & Skinner 2007).

The successful retention of a volunteer workforce in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia depends on, among others, the extent to which issues about workplace relationships are dealt with by management and supervisors. These issues include factors such as how motive fulfilment, job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay are addressed. Previous studies indicate that positive workplace experience that fulfil volunteers' motives enhance job satisfaction, and this significantly increases retention rates (Bang, Ross & Reio 2013; Clary et al. 1998; Finkelstein 2007). Penner and Finkelstein (1998) also confirm that positive workplace experiences enhance volunteers' affective commitment and this, in turn, results in low turnover intention. Other studies have also indicated that volunteer intention to stay increases as a result of positive organisational factors and the way organisational leaders such as managers and supervisors relate with volunteers (McMurray et al. 2010; Omoto & Snyder 1995).

The operational principles of NPOs, which are quite different from those of for-profit organisations regarding policies, organisational goals and services offered (Leete 2000), affect how they relate to volunteers. The workforces in NPOs include both paid employees and volunteers, and the nature of organisational relationships with both cohorts is a reflection of the policies and procedures in place. The relationships between supervisors and volunteers will be different from those between supervisors and paid employees. Moreover, while the wellbeing and job performances of paid employees and volunteers are likely to be influenced by common factors (see Pearce 1993) such as work experience, there are still some major differences between them. For example, paid employees and volunteer workers may share certain similarities regarding the work they do in the NPOs (Light 2002), but paid employees and volunteers work in fundamentally different contexts (Liao-Troth 2001; Pearce 1993). Paid employees’ relationships with their organisations are under contractual agreements, and their main drive is a monetary reward (Liao-Troth 2001). Unlike volunteers, they are thus likely to base their service and relationship obligations on the receipt of such monetary rewards.
Despite the aforementioned differences, the need for positive workplace relationship is of paramount importance to both paid employees and volunteers as their organisations are set up to achieve certain outcomes for their stakeholders. Workplace relationships have been found to have a significant influence on workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay (see Brunetto et al. 2013; Bang 2011; Cole, Schaninger & Harris 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Therefore, understanding the workplace relationships that contribute to positive workplace outcomes will increase management’s ability to direct resources and manage volunteers more effectively. In addition, when aiming to understand issues in the organisation in order to predict organisational behaviour, the contexts in which employees work need to be taken into consideration (Johns 2006). Some aspects of these contexts are influenced by management and their supports as well as individual factors, which as suggested by Penner (2002) and Taylor et al. (2006), relate to volunteers’ experiences in terms of motive fulfilment and their relationship with the organisation and its agents.

Workplace relationships in organisations have often been examined through a theoretical lens known as Social Exchange Theory (SET). SET is used to describe social exchange relationships between the organisation and its employees, and between its agents such as supervisors and employees. According to SET, these relationships involve unspecified expectations of future rewards from others (Emerson 1976; Konovsky & Pugh 1994) and have the potential to generate high-quality relationships, which will result in positive workplace outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005).

SET emphasises reciprocal exchanges that are mutually satisfying (Gouldner 1960), and this is clearly expressed in Homans’ assumptions, which explain different factors that influence reciprocity. Homans (1961) argues that the more a particular action is reciprocated, the more likely a person is to continue performing that action, and behaviour that has been reciprocated in the past in a particular situation will be repeated in a similar situation. According to Homans (1961) another factor that influences reciprocity is that the value (or benefit) of the resource exchanged determines the recipient’s reciprocal action. However he cautions that if the action of
a person is reciprocated regularly with no change in the resources exchanged, the reward will become less valuable to that person.

Homans’ assumptions indicate the factors that could influence reciprocity, and the assumption that the value of the resource received influences the reciprocal action that will follow, has been cited by other scholars. For example, Emerson (1972) argues that the degree to which the reciprocal action is viewed positively depends on the subjective psychological value an individual gets from what he/she receives. In other words, the reciprocal action of the recipient is influenced by the extent to which the resource they receive meets their needs. Such reciprocity results in the development of a “positive emotion towards the relationship” (Schaefer 2009, p. 551). Both Emerson’s (1972) and Homans’ (1961) views, therefore, indicate that the value of a resource is determined by the perceived benefit the receiver obtains, which in turn influences the continuity of the relationship.

Homans’ argument regarding how the value of the resource in the exchange process influences reciprocity is central to the ways in which the notion of reciprocity is applied in this study. Homans’ ideas on reciprocity are also central to the discussion in this study on the effect of perceived organisational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (LMX). In other words, the terms POS and LMX are regarded in this study as manifestations of management and their supports.

Many scholars have used POS and LMX to describe organisation–employee relationships and employee–supervisor relationships. POS assumes that when they are treated well by their organisations, volunteers will reciprocate by working hard to improve organisational effectiveness (Eisenberger et al. 1986). POS is important because it can be used to examine the quality of the organisation–volunteer relationship (Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997) and the corresponding workplace outcomes. Leader-member exchange theory (LMX), is a construct of SET, and it describes the quality of the relationship between an employee and their immediate supervisor (Landry & Vandenberghe 2009). LMX is relevant in volunteer organisations because it can be used to examine the quality of supervisor–volunteer relationships. These two constructs (POS and LMX) will be used in this study to examine how the
relationships between management and volunteers influence volunteer work outcomes such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to stay.

Organisational commitment is defined as an individual’s attitude towards an organisation, which is related to the willingness to dedicate a significant amount of time and effort to the organisation (Valéau et al. 2013). In the case of volunteers, this commitment arises without monetary compensation (Bang 2007). Employees with greater organisational commitment feel a greater sense of belonging and identify more strongly with the organisation. Hence, they have an increasing desire to pursue their organisation’s goals, and they are prepared to continue as employees of the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991; Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982). Scholars have also reported that committed employees are less likely to engage in absenteeism (Meyer & Allen 1997). Thus, having committed volunteers will reduce the organisation’s expenses for the recruitment and training of new volunteers. Despite the identified positive attributes of organisational commitment, there have been very few empirical studies about the antecedents of volunteers’ organisational commitment, especially in community NPOs.

According to past research, organisational commitment can be categorised into three different types. The first is affective commitment, which refers to the extent to which the employee becomes emotionally attached, identifies with and believes in the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch 2001). The second is continuance commitment, which refers to the extent to which the employee feels committed to the organisation based on years of service. Continuance commitment is defined as continuing with the organisation due to the associated cost of leaving or the perceived cost of leaving (Wasti 2002). The third dimension is normative commitment, which refers to organisational commitment that is based on an employee’s feelings of obligation to remain in an organisation because of the belief that it is the right thing to do (Meyer & Allen 1991; Wiener & Vardi 1980). Affective commitment is considered to be the most important type of organisational commitment among volunteers (van Vuuren, de Jong & Seydel 2008). Hence, this study will focus on affective commitment.

Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job experiences (Chiboiwa, Chipunza & Samuel 2011; Dunnette
This arises from the feeling of job fulfilment which is experienced when one’s values are consistent with one’s job (Dunnette & Locke 1976). Given that values refer to what one desires (Locke 1969), job satisfaction can be considered as reflecting a person’s judgements about the value of their work. This, in the context of volunteers, refers to the extent to which their work-related rewards have matched what they seek to attain, or what has motivated them to volunteer. In other words, the level of job satisfaction for a volunteer will depend on the extent to which their work experience has fulfilled their motive for volunteering.

Intention to stay refers to the perceived probability of an employee continuing with the organisation that has employed him or her (Bang, Won & Kim 2009). In contrast, turnover intention refers to a conscious and considered plan to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer 1993). Both turnover intention and intention to stay are important because they have been found to be good predictors of actual future behaviour (Hellman, Hoppes, & Ellison 2006). Bluedorn (1982) refers to 23 studies that found significant positive relationships between the leaving intentions and actual leaving behaviour of employees. For any organisation, the stability of its workforce is regarded as a powerful competitive advantage. In particular, community NPOs are more efficient if there is a high rate of intention to stay because this means there will be less brain drain and there will be less expenditure on the recruitment and training of new volunteers. Hence, it is increasingly important that workplace outcomes and other factors that promote volunteer retention should be encouraged in the organisation, especially because they are integral to the functioning of most NPOs.

Past research has examined the relationships between LMX, volunteer satisfaction and intention to stay (Bang 2011; Shiva & Suar 2010), leadership and commitment (McMurray et al. 2010), and POS on satisfaction and turnover intentions (Farmer & Fedor 1997; 1999). In Australia, Hoye’s (2004) study of LMX and the performance of the boards of voluntary sport organisations found that higher quality LMX was associated with higher levels of board performance. Cuskelly et al.’s (2006) study of sport volunteers concluded that HRM practices significantly predicted retention rates, while Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace’s (2009) study found that poor leadership may lead to turnover intention for a significant percentage of volunteers in emergency services in NSW, Australia. Costa et al.’s (2006) study of sport volunteers on the Gold Coast,
Australia found that a sense of belonging to a community positively impacted on volunteers' commitment and satisfaction. Engelberg, Zakus and Skinner's (2007) study shows that organisational commitment plays a major role in sport volunteer performance and retention. However, whether the findings of these studies apply to volunteers working in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia is unknown. Moreover, there is a lack of in-depth empirical evidence regarding the impact of management and their supports on volunteer satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay.

Since volunteering does not involve financial rewards, the motives for volunteering and their fulfilment will be important factors to consider in any study of volunteers. In this study, the emphasis is on motive fulfilment which is a concept used to describe the fulfilment of altruistic motives (values) and five egoistic motives (enhancement, understanding, social, career and protective). Motive fulfilment refers the extent to which a volunteer's motive for volunteering is fulfilled, and the extent to which this will affect their job satisfaction, affective commitment and desire to continue volunteering. The term 'motive' is used to refer to the reason for an action (Kanfer 1991) and motives vary according to individual needs. Motives, as considered here, are about finding out the reasons a volunteer contributes time and effort to volunteering activities in their NPO (Briggs, Peterson & Gregory 2010) and the effects of the fulfilment of those reasons on whether they continue volunteering. As such, motive fulfilment is used in this study to refer to the fulfilment of six types of motives (values, enhancement, understanding, social, career and protective).

The question of motive fulfilment follows from Clary et al.'s (1998) and Clary and Snyder's (1999) examination of the role of motives and their fulfilment in sustaining volunteerism in organisations. Finkelstein (2006) argues that when volunteers' experiences satisfy their motives for volunteering, or when their primary motives are fulfilled, they will have high satisfaction and stronger intentions to continue volunteering than when their motives remained unfulfilled. In this regard Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003) state that there is a causal link between motive fulfilment and workplace outcomes such as satisfaction. One of the essential features of SET in the context of volunteer relationships with community NPOs is that it helps us to understand and highlight individual factors such as volunteer motive fulfilment. The
fulfilment of volunteer motives is an essential part of their exchange relationships with NPOs and with their immediate supervisors. Previous studies have indicated that the fulfilment of volunteers’ motives results in work outcomes such as affective commitment (Finkelstein 2008) and job satisfaction (Love et al. 2011), among others. Hence, in this thesis volunteers’ decisions to continue volunteering with an organisation are assumed to be based on the influence of management and their supports on the three workplace outcomes through the fulfilment of altruistic and egoistic motives. This is important because although much has been said in the literature about the direct impact of each of these factors (POS, LMX and motive fulfilment) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay, there is still limited information about motive fulfilment as a mediator in the association between POS and LMX and volunteers’ workplace outcomes.

According to Robbins (1993), an employee’s efforts are based on whether they will result in satisfying a specific individual need. In the context of volunteers, and in line with Homans’ (1961) third assumption in SET theory, such a need is an internal state that makes certain resources appear valuable, thereby stimulating the willingness to volunteer in order to satisfy the need. For example, a link between volunteer motive fulfilment and job satisfaction will be present when the volunteer judges that the job conditions have fulfilled his or her motivations for volunteering. It is therefore, important to know why volunteers have decided to volunteer, and what they want to gain from their volunteering activities in order to be able to balance their needs with the needs of the organisation (Flick, Bittman, & Doyle 2002). Knowing why volunteers want to volunteer and what they expect from it will not only result in good volunteer management but also in the fulfilment of the volunteers’ initial needs, which will lead to workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. This is necessary as a motivated volunteer “wants to do the job that needs to be done in the spirit and within the guidelines of the organisation” (McCurley & Lynch 1998, p.139).

According to Bussel and Forbes (2002), it is important to identify and understand the fundamental motives of individual volunteers and the effect of the fulfilment of such motives on their pro-social attitudes in the workplace. This will contribute to an understanding of how to attract and retain them. For example, in the literature, it is
suggested that volunteers’ motives could be based on fulfilment of an altruistic desire to help others, which suggests satisfaction from helping others is a primary motive for volunteering (Reed, Aquino & Levy 2007). Scholars also argue that besides altruistic motives, there are other motives which may include egoistic motives (Piliavin & Charng 1990) for self-enhancement and career, and the fulfilment of these motives gives volunteers a sense that they have received extrinsic rewards. In the present study, it is imperative to find out the extent to which the fulfilment of these motives for volunteering affects volunteers’ pro-social attitudes, especially because not much is known about whether the fulfilment of volunteer motives mediates the impact of management and their supports on volunteer work outcomes in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. To respond to the issues that have been identified, the study seeks to address the following primary research questions

1.3.1 Primary research questions (PRQs)

**PRQ 1:** What is the relationship between management and their supports (POS and LMX) on workplace outcomes such as the job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia?

**PRQ2:** What relationship does volunteers’ motive fulfilment have on the relationships between management and their supports (POS and LMX) on workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia?

To address the PRQs, this study aims:

1. To examine the influence of management and their supports on work outcomes for volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia using SET as a theoretical lens.
2. To examine the influence of management and their supports on the three workplace outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to stay through motive fulfilment.
1.4 Justification of the research

The foregoing discussion shows that community NPOs in Australia have limited organisational resources and are therefore struggling to meet the needs of their clients. According to ACOSS (2009 & 2011) approximately 85 per cent of NPOs that use volunteers, including community NPOs, report that the cost of delivering services exceeds funding levels, and 64 per cent of them have difficulty in attracting and retaining qualified staff, including volunteers (ACOSS 2009, 2011). Similarly, the findings of a survey conducted in a community NPO in Queensland about how to improve volunteers’ experiences indicates that the management of volunteers was not adequately resourced for carrying out any recommendations for improvement, even while admitting that volunteers were essential to the work of their organisation (Magriplis 2012). In the same survey, managers of volunteers reported that, unlike the paid workforce, there was not an effective system for the management of volunteers and no strategic leadership for the volunteer workforce (Magriplis 2012). These findings support past research about the lack of effective volunteer management, and they justify a study of this nature, which examines the influence of management and their supports and motive fulfilment on volunteer work outcomes.

In light of ACOSS’s (2009 & 2011) and Magriplis’s (2012) findings, it is important that volunteer management is properly resourced to help volunteer-based organisations achieve their goals. The effective use of volunteers is essential, and it must be based on a recognition that leaders need to understand that positive supervisor–volunteer relationships are a requirement for achieving positive workplace outcomes. For example, in an organisation where there are positive relationships, there will be committed and satisfied volunteers. In addition, there will be a high rate of intention to stay. According to Tsai and Wu (2010), longstanding and steady relationships between employees and supervisors, and between employees and the organisation, are the result of stable organisational relationships. In the case of volunteers, this helps them to stay long enough to become familiar with paid employees, customers, and suppliers. This has a positive effect on their work generally. This highlights the importance of a study such as this which focuses on examining the influence of management and their supports on the three workplace outcomes, and on the
examination of management and their supports through motive fulfilment using SET as an analytical tool.

In addition, it is important to take into consideration the context in which people work in order to be able to understand organisational behaviour (Johns 2006). This context includes the nature of the organisational relationship as well as interpersonal encounters among the employees. Although research has examined the impact of different SET constructs (e.g. POS, LMX, psychological contracts) on several work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay, several studies (see Brunetto et al. 2012; 2013; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway 2005; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler 2000; Cropanzano & Mitchelle 2005; Dulebohn et al. 2012) support the need for further studies on social exchange constructs to understand workplace outcomes. More specifically, the literature on volunteering is yet to adequately examine relationships between supervisors and volunteers, and between organisations and volunteers. An understanding of these relationships is needed in light of the social exchange framework, and in light of what influence other variables such as motive fulfilment could have in determining workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. There is a need to have an in-depth understanding of the reasons that individuals initially volunteer and the reasons they choose to continue volunteering because NPOs are becoming increasingly aware of their dependence on volunteers. Although the literature is replete with studies about the organisational factors that affect volunteers’ work outcomes (see Bangs 2011; Farmer & Fedor 1999; McMurray et al. 2010; Penner 2002) there is limited research about the links between volunteers’ motive fulfilment, POS and LMX and workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Thus, a study of this nature is important as it will help to highlight what organisations need to do to enhance their ability to achieve sustainable working relationships with volunteers.

There is growing evidence that the nature of volunteering is changing as we move into a postmodern society (Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003), especially because the baby boomer generation, which is noted for volunteering, is retiring from active life. As young volunteers are filling the void, they differ markedly from traditional volunteers in their motives for volunteering. While NPO managers are facing challenges to cope
with these developments, little has been reported in the literature about how any of these challenges have been addressed. Given the societal importance of NPOs, and the sector demands for more scientifically-based guidelines on volunteer management (Musick & Wilson 2008), it is crucial to extend our knowledge on this subject. Hence, it is hoped that this study will contribute to the literature by extending available knowledge and providing information for NPOs, particularly community NPOs, seeking to move toward professional management, especially in their relationships with volunteers.

1.5 Contributions to literature and implications for practice

The anticipated theoretical and practical contributions to the literature and implications for practice are as follows:

1. The study will further deepen the understanding of SET, particularly regarding the link between Homans’ assumptions which emphasise the importance of the value of the resources exchanged and volunteers’ motives. The study’s examination of how these factors influence workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and intention to stay will be a significant contribution to literature.

2. It is hoped that the study will provide useful information for volunteer supervisors and managers for formulating policies and procedures that will help them address issues related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay.

3. This study integrates literature from distinct research fields such as sociology and psychology by examining volunteering from different perspectives. By doing so, it contributes to our existing knowledge of volunteer management and NPO governance in three ways. First, the interaction between organisational and individual factors is considered by applying a theoretical approach to analysing organisational relationships. This analysis focuses on management and the individual behaviour of volunteers in community NPOs. Second, while several studies document the changing nature of volunteering and the new challenges to NPO governance and management, few studies offer an explanation for how these trends influence volunteer behaviour or community NPO performance, or an explanation of how to effectively manage these new challenges. Through this study, a well-established socio-psychological theory
(SET) is used to explain the process by which these factors might affect several outcomes. The introduction of this theory into a conceptual model may be a missing link for explaining volunteers' relationships with their organisations and immediate supervisors, as well as volunteer motivations in community NPOs. Finally, this study demonstrates how community NPOs can manage their volunteers by ensuring that their needs are met, in order for them to be satisfied, committed and motivated to stay with the organisation.

1.6 An overview of the methodology used in the study
The methodological process used to examine the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on volunteer workplace outcomes is influenced by the post-positivist paradigm. This was considered appropriate because, unlike positivists who believe in strict causes and effects that operate independently of human beings (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba 2011; Neuman 2011), post-positivists do not believe in strict cause and effect. Rather, they “recognise that all cause and effect is a probability that may or may not occur” (Creswell 2013 p. 24). In other words, positivists believe that research can be conducted by researchers without them influencing the results. On the other hand, the post-positivist framework is similar to critical realism that deals mainly with identifying and examining the influence of variables on outcomes. Post-positivists do not regard their findings as absolute truth but rather as possible occurrences, and conclusions are largely based on a reductionist approach (Creswell 2013) that permits the researcher to express ideas about real social phenomena in researchable hypotheses. Consequently, researchers explore how their hypotheses relate to each other with statistical testing and analyses based on strict scientific guidelines. As a result, the findings are regarded as objective, as the researcher’s values are somewhat controlled.

Specifically, a quantitative approach is suitable for this research based on post-positivist philosophical assumptions. As indicated previously, post-positivists do not believe in absolute objectivity; they believe reality can only be understood in a limited manner, and that this is best done through the critical examination of social phenomena. A quantitative process involves critically examining the impact of independent variables upon a dependent variable (Neuman 2011). Independent variables are regarded as the causes while the dependent variable is regarded as the outcome. The quantification of data into numbers which are analysed with statistical
procedures helps to determine the strength (whether positive or negative) of the relationship between the independent variables (POS and LMX) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay).

The investigation uses a formal quantitative research approach and this includes the application of a quasi-experimental/cross-sectional explanatory design which involves the gathering of data through surveys (Creswell 2009). The use of self-report surveys to gather information from volunteers will enable the researcher to collect sufficient data that can be statistically analysed to determine causes and effects, as this study aims to add to the current understanding and application of SET in NPOs involving volunteers. This is in line with Creswell’s (2009) suggestion that in most cases, a quantitative approach should be used if the study involves testing a set of variables or hypotheses. In addition, a quantitative research design is chosen because the aim is to obtain findings that are applicable not only to the sample but to the population it represents.

1.7 Outline of the thesis
Chapter One outlines the research topic and context of the study by discussing volunteer-involving NPOs and justifications for the research. It also provides an overview of the methodology of the study.

Chapter Two reviews the theoretical framework (SET) that is used as a lens to examine the impact of management and their supports on workplace outcomes. Chapter Three begins by analysing the relevant literature about POS and LMX and their impact on workplace outcomes. This is followed by an in-depth review of literature about the dependent variables in this study such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to stay and motive fulfilment. The variables and the identified knowledge gaps are discussed, and relevant hypotheses are proposed.

In Chapter Four, research paradigms are discussed, and the research design for the study is presented. Information about community NPOs and the descriptive statistics of the demographic analysis are also provided in this chapter. In Chapter Five, descriptions of the data gathering process, data analysis methods, and findings are
provided. The discussion of the results of the study will be given in Chapter Six while in Chapter Seven, a summary of the previous chapters, and the conclusion regarding the research questions and hypotheses are provided. Chapter Seven also includes the contributions of the findings to theory, literature, implications for practice, limitations of the study and suggestions for further studies.

1.8 Conclusion
This chapter has presented an overview of the thesis which includes a discussion of NPOs, the justification for the research and the methodological process that will be used in the research. The organisational factors, individual factors and workplace outcomes that will be explored in the study were introduced and discussed briefly in order to provide the context of the study. The research questions that will be used to realise the aims of the study were stated. The next chapter will introduce and review the relevant literature about the theoretical frameworks that will be used as a lens in the study.
Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction
Social exchange theory (SET) is one of the theoretical frameworks used in organisational psychology and human resources management to explain the work outcomes resulting from effective interactions between management, supervisors and employees. In organisational behaviour settings, where the relationships between individuals have considerable influence on productivity and other work outcomes, SET has often been chosen by researchers as an analytical theoretical lens.

SET is discussed in this chapter in the form of an overview of Homans’ (1961) propositions as well as Blau’s (1964) and Gouldner’s (1960) propositions regarding the norm of reciprocity, as they are amongst the thoroughly considered classical views on SET. Following this, the definitions of social exchange will be stated, and a general discussion of SET will be presented. In particular, this discussion will examine the differences between SET and economic exchange. Also, the elements that facilitate the process of social exchange, and the current limitations of SET, will be discussed. This chapter includes a brief discussion of the relevance of social exchange in the context of volunteers’ workplace relationships and outcomes.

2.2 Early development of social exchange theory
SET has a long history dating back to 1901 when Chavannes (1901, p. 59) identified SET as a “fundamental explanation of all human relationships as it encompasses all aspects of relations between human beings”. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), further work on SET can also be traced back to the early works of Malinowski (1922), Mauss (1925) and Malinowski (1932). After Malinowski’s (1932) work, the literature is largely silent about SET until the 1950s. One of the foremost scholars in the 1950s was Homans (1958), who reintroduced the SET concept in his work entitled: “Social behaviour as exchange”. His work centres on the principle of reinforcement, and he argues that an action that is reinforced is most likely to be repeated. Reinforcement, in this context, means a reward that benefits the receiver in the process of an exchange of resources. Resources that are exchanged can be tangible goods or services, or intangible, socially valuable commodities such as symbols of approval, status or compliments, as long as they provide benefits for the recipient (Blau 1964; Molm, Peterson & Takahashi 2001).
Homans followed his 1958 work in 1961 by focusing on the individual behaviour of people interacting with each other. Homans’ definition of social exchange provides a further opportunity to understand his view of the concept. He defines social exchange as the exchange of tangible or intangible commodities between two or more people. The exchange can be costly or less rewarding for at least one of the individuals concerned (Homans 1961) because no explicit negotiation is involved. This definition informs the different propositions he puts forward to explain social exchange in which rewards and punishment are emphasised.

Homans’ first proposition, “the success proposition”, states that “For all actions taken by persons, the more often a particular action is rewarded, the more likely the person is to perform that action” (Homans 1961, p. 16). In other words, a behaviour that generates a positive outcome is likely to be repeated (Cook & Rice 2003) as the continuation of behaviour is motivated by its associated reward. According to the success proposition, individuals have self-interested motivations to continue relationships because of the rewards they will get from them. Referring to this proposition, Heath (1976) explains that the quest for social rewards drives people to enter into relations with one another. Consequently, the perceived reward that is expected to be an outcome of an action determines whether the relationship will have continuity. In contrast, and in the context of a workplace situation, if an employee is not rewarded, this is likely to result in the discontinuation of the relationship. Hence, since the nature of relationships is governed by reciprocal actions, relationships will cease in the long run if reciprocity norms are violated (Cook & Rice 2003; Zafirovski 2005).

Homans’ second proposition, “the stimulus proposition”, states that:

If in the past the occurrence of a particular stimulus, or set of stimuli, has been the occasion on which a person’s action has been rewarded, then, the more similar the present stimuli are to the past ones, the more likely the person is to perform the action, or some similar action, now (Homans 1961, p. 22-23).
The “stimulus proposition” states that behaviour that has been rewarded on a given occasion in the past will be repeated in similar situations (Homans 1961). As argued by Homans, the recurrence of situations associated with successful outcomes makes it possible for the repetition of the actions that led to the outcome. This proposition emphasises that the rewards for an action are likely to be repeated in similar situations. A reward, according to Blau (1964), obligates the recipient to reciprocate similarly in social exchanges. For example, an employee whose behaviour or action is rewarded by a supervisor will feel acknowledged and will therefore seek to replicate similar behaviour in the hope of future reciprocity.

The third proposition or “the value proposition”, as put forward by Homans (1961, p. 55), states that “The more valuable to a person is the result of his action, the more likely he is to perform the action”. In the context of volunteering, volunteers’ motives inform the actions they will perform. Thus, fulfilment of their motives will encourage them (volunteers) to perform the action again. Additionally, Homans (1961, p. 25) states that “The results of a person’s actions that have positive values for him we call rewards”. This is also considered to be relevant to volunteering situations. In both paid and volunteer organisations, employees and volunteers will see positive outcomes which result from their actions as rewards, and negative outcomes as a sign of inequitable exchanges. One interpretation of Homans’ third proposition can be seen in the use of reinforcement in the workplace by supervisors. If supervisors selectively reward the actions of volunteers, the outcomes will be a positive influence on their work outcomes, in line with their motives for volunteering. This will encourage them to continue to perform such actions or similar actions as the need arises. If he/she is not rewarded, the volunteer may regard the social exchange as unfair or unbalanced. The issue of value here is concerned with the degree to which a person finds a particular reward valuable when compared to other available rewards (Homans 1974). This means that the usefulness or benefits of a reward to the recipient are important in terms of getting the desired action from the recipient. In a nutshell, according to the value proposition, in the case of volunteers, if rewards are to be considered valuable resources, they should fulfil volunteers’ motives.

Homans’ (1961) fourth proposition, the ‘deprivation–satiation’ proposition, introduces the idea of diminishing marginal utility. It states that “The more often in the recent past
a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any further unit of that reward becomes for him” (Cook & Rice 2003, p. 55). This proposition centres on the need for variation, since if one particular reward is received often, it may start diminishing in its relevance once the recipient reaches the point of satiation. Therefore, it is important that there is variation in the exchange of resources in order to sustain the interest of the recipient. Considered from the perspective of volunteering, the deprivation–satiation proposition addresses the need to vary the ways in which volunteers are rewarded in order to sustain or retain them as volunteers. The positive reciprocal exchange of resources is fundamental to successful social exchange relationships, but when the exchanges become monotonous, the resource exchange will start diminishing in value. Hence, it may not be enough to verbally praise a person’s work without using other types of rewards to strengthen the general positive reward atmosphere one is trying to build. In the workplace, workers who develop a good relationship with supervisors are also likely to be given greater autonomy, better work assignments and quicker promotion (Mueller & Lee 2002; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien 2001; Gerstner & Day 1997).

The fifth and final proposition, “the aggression–approval proposition”, is divided into two parts. The first part of the proposition states that:

- When a person’s action does not receive the reward he expected, or receives punishment he did not expect, he will be angry; he becomes more likely to perform aggressive behaviour (Homans 1961, p. 37).

This first part of the “aggression–approval proposition”, shows that individuals become frustrated when they do not get what they expect (Homans 1961). In a group or organisational setting, the consequences of persistent frustration will be aggression which will result in conflict at the expense of harmonious relationships. In this regard, Homans (1961) argues that it is painful when someone receives a punishment they do not expect for an action they have performed, and such unwarranted punishment results in anger.

The second part of the fifth proposition states that:

- When a person’s action receives [the] reward he expected, especially a greater reward than he expected, or does not receive punishment he expected, he will
be pleased; he becomes more likely to perform approving behaviour, and the results of such behaviour become more valuable to him (Homans 1961, p. 39).

In summary, the second part of the fifth proposition states that an individual is likely to repeat approved behaviour due to the rewards they receive for their actions. What needs to be stressed here, and what has been echoed in one form or the other in the other propositions, is that an individual who is rewarded in accordance with their expectations will continue to perform the behaviour that is rewarded. Grouping both aspects of the fifth proposition together, Cook and Rice (2003) state that the emotional reactions of individuals are different in various reward situations. The emotional reaction may be a display of disapproval or unhappiness if they do not receive what they expect (Cook & Rice 2003) or a positive response if they receive what they expect, or if what they receive is commensurate to their efforts. Homans’ (1974) argument reflects the question of equity; individuals become aggressive when what they receive is considered to be unfair. Also, Homans introduces the concept of distributive justice in his analysis by arguing that the absence of a fair distribution of resources results in an emotional state of anger. The anger is only mitigated after the person has received the expected reward.

Homans set the platform for SET in his 1958 work and subsequently in 1961 with his explanation of the five propositions. Gouldner’s (1960) work in the same period is regarded as a classical reference to SET due to the insights he provides about the norm of reciprocity. Reciprocity is considered to be a basic tendency in human social interaction. Gouldner (1960) states that the norm of reciprocity is a mutually gratifying pattern of giving and receiving which is fundamental to the norms of social interaction. Gouldner (1960, p.171) also describes reciprocity as a universal norm based on the principle that “people should help those who have helped them and people should not injure those who have helped them”. However, he stresses that the universality of the norm of reciprocity does not mean it is unconditional, as it is contingent on the response to the rewards given by the party with whom one is in a social exchange (Gouldner 1960). This argument reflects the view espoused by Homans in his third proposition which stresses the centrality of the expected value of the benefit received as a determinant of the value of the resource given in exchange. In this regards, Gouldner (1960) argues that the obligation to reciprocate is contingent upon the value
attributed to the reward received or the perceived value of the reward (Homans 1961). Also, the desire to reciprocate also varies with the status of the participants in the social system. According to Gouldner’s argument, though the resources exchanged may not have equal value, and may be far from what is ordinarily judged as equal, because of the status of the participants, both may instinctively come to terms with the value of the items they are exchanging. Consequently, Gouldner (1960) argues that the question of equivalence in what has been received or exchanged is a problematic consideration in social exchanges, since the reciprocity of the rewards is said to be unspecified.

The question of equivalence was further considered in two ways by Gouldner (1960). The first is referred to as heteromorphic reciprocity, which means that the resources exchanged may be materially different but equal in value, according to the parties in the social exchange. The second type is referred to as homeomorphic reciprocity, which means that the resources exchanged are materially identical, either in their form or the conditions under which they are exchanged. Homeomorphic reciprocity is associated with negative reciprocity, which deals with retaliations, when the emphasis is not on the exchange of resources that will be of benefit to the recipients but on the exchange of resources which are similar to the perceived injuries to the beneficiary (Gouldner 1960). In making the distinction between heteromorphic and homeomorphic reciprocity, Gouldner (1960) argues that in most cases the social exchange is between parties diametrically opposite in terms of their status and the resources they have available to exchange, yet both parties derive value from their relationship.

One of Gouldner’s central ideas regarding SET is that the desire for reciprocity is an internalised one which obliges people to reciprocate. In this regard, the norm of reciprocity serves as a mechanism through which a social system is maintained because people are able to relate to each other as a result of their understanding of the norm involved. For example, Gouldner (1960) argues that as long as the norm of reciprocity guides the way people relate to one another, the receiver of a resource will feel indebted until he/she can reciprocate. The norm of reciprocity helps to stabilise social relations as the feeling of indebtedness helps the parties to the exchange to remain in the exchange system because of the need to have an opportunity to reciprocate with something of greater value. This resonates with Gouldner (1960, p.
175) in terms of “the time period when there is an obligation still to be performed, when commitments which have been made are yet to be fulfilled” which in the case of organisational relationships, may mean that an employee may remain in his/her job until an appropriate reciprocity is achieved. Again, Gouldner (1960) contends that given the norm of reciprocity, it is considered morally inappropriate to discontinue a social relationship, or to be in a conflictual relationship with those you are still indebted to. Supporting this view, Blau (1964) posits that a person who gives a satisfying and beneficial service to another obliges that person to reciprocate. In this regard, Paese and Gilin (2000) add that the need to reciprocate, in the sense it has been considered, is usually influenced by feelings of obligation to repay a favour. Such feelings are presumed to occur instinctively regardless of whether the repayment is requested or not.

Following his work in 1961, and in response to what other scholars had written, Blau (1964) refocuses on SET by emphasising the importance of rewards and costs. In this way, SET is looked at from an economic and utilitarian viewpoint as an alternative to seeing behaviour as being based on reinforcement principles. Utilitarianism is used to qualify an individual’s anticipated rewards, as pointed out by Heath (1976). Arguing in a similar fashion to Homans’ second proposition, Blau states that reinforcement theories look at how people look at what has been rewarding to them in the past. Put differently, people’s actions or activities will reflect what has been rewarding to them in the past and they will act on the basis of their judgement, but utilitarianism is premised on the notion that employees look at how their present social exchange will reward them in future, or how the value of the current social encounter will translate to something positive in the future.

Generally, the simple inference that can be drawn from the classical views of SET is that it deals with a series of interactions that result in obligations for the involved parties to reciprocate in a social exchange. In addition, as pointed out by Gouldner (1960), the norm of reciprocity guides social exchange. The review of the literature in this section has shown the early conceptions of SET and some recent contributions to its classical ideas. The discussion shows that SET is an essential framework for examining social relationships, especially relationships in workplace settings. This is explored further in the next section.
2.3 Social exchange theory
Blau (1964, p. 91), whose view is frequently cited in discussions about social exchanges, defines social exchanges as “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others”. In line with this definition, Emerson (1976) and Konovsky and Pugh (1994) similarly describe a social exchange as a relationship that entails expectations of unspecified future rewards from others, while De Clercq, Dimov and Thongpapani (2009) define it as an exchange relationship based on shared understanding and the norm of reciprocity. The exchange can be in the form of discussion, favours, assistance, money, love, goods or services (Blau 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005).

The foregoing definitions show that SET is a sequence of positive interactions which over a period of time generate openness, obligation and friendship between people in the social network (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). The social interactions stressed in the SET literature are mutually dependent, and responses are generated by the actions of the other person in the exchange. A social exchange has also been referred to as a balanced or reciprocal relationship between two individuals or between an employee and an organisation (Rousseau 2001). In a workplace context, a social exchange is a cooperative relationship between employees and an organisation, or between employees and their supervisors.

However, Blau (1964) argues that the norm of reciprocity is not the central driving force of exchange, but that it reinforces and stabilises the existential conditions of the exchange itself. In other words, people may feel obliged to reciprocate when they are the recipients of a positive gesture, not because of the norm of reciprocity but because of a self-interested desire to keep on receiving the service or benefit in return for what they have provided. This indicates that individual motives or desires play a major role in how a relationship is initiated and how it can be sustained. One of the determinants of recipients’ actions evident in the literature is how recipients perceive the value of a particular reward (Blau 1964; Homans 1958, 1974). Such value, if it is found to fulfil the instrumental and emotional needs of people in a relationship, has the potential to sustain the relationship. Emerson (1976) explains that what is important in social exchange is the relationship that emerges from it over time, as well as the appropriate rules adopted to guide the exchange. Abiding by the rules of exchange leads to mutual
interdependence, which, in the view of Gouldner (1960), will in the long run result in a continuously balanced exchange that is beneficial to all parties involved.

SET involves the principle of one person doing another a favour with the general expectation of some future return, but the exact nature of this return is not stipulated in advance (Blau 1964) and may not be known. Though the expected return is not known or specified, a continuous lack of return or an unbalanced exchange may cause disequilibrium in the relationship. Such an unbalanced relationship in an organisational setting will affect both paid and unpaid staffs' attitudes and trust. Thus, fulfilling the obligation of repaying what has been received is central to social exchange, and as long as the exchange is balanced regarding frequency and value, the relationship will continue to grow. This underlines the importance of social exchange in developing workplace relationships, and it will be discussed further in the next section where the differences and similarities between social exchange and economic exchange are considered.

2.3.1 The differences and similarities between social exchange and economic exchange

The discussion of SET has so far shown that it is a suitable theoretical framework for analysing social interactions or exchanges in an organisational setting. It generally deals with how individuals are motivated by the benefits they expect to receive from their involvement in the social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Thus, at one level, the expectation of benefit makes SET similar to economic exchange, which is purely based on economic advantage in the form of monetary compensation before or after a transaction has been completed. However, it is important to point out that social exchanges are developed around the notion of trust, according to which other members involved in the exchange are expected to reciprocate at some point in time. Economic benefits are a “one-off”, whereas effective workplace social interactions result in a “keep on giving” relationship, long after the initial encounter (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005).

Economic exchange is a formal contract that stipulates the exact nature of the resource to be exchanged, and it can be enforced through legal sanctions in cases of breaches of contract (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen 2002). Prior research indicates that
SET was based on an examination of economic exchanges (Liao 2008) and that economic exchanges and social exchanges are similar in some respects. One of the similarities, according to Blau (1964), Liao (2008) and Gefen and Ridings (2002) is that like economic exchanges, in social exchanges people go into a relationship only if the benefit justifies the cost. Based on this principle, an individual will continue in a relationship only if the benefit outweighs the cost. Alternatively, if this benefit is not achieved, the relationship may terminate. In this regards, Uehara (1990) also states that the concept of SET is closely linked to economic exchange as SET theorists analyse exchanges as a kind of rational behaviour which people engage in when faced with situation of scarcity of resources, as individuals will select the alternatives they identify as the ones most consistent with their goals, or that provide the best path to achieving their goals. The purpose of such exchanges, therefore, is to maximise benefits and minimise costs, as it is in economic exchanges. Also common to both exchanges is the contributor’s expectation of some form of future return (Blau 1964; Konovsky & Pugh 1994).

With regard to the differences between economic and social exchanges, Blau (1964), Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) and Konovsky and Pugh (1994) state that economic transactions are based on specified tangible repayment within a specified time frame, while social exchanges involve the transfer of socio-emotional benefits that are not governed by explicit agreements and time frames. Similarly, Cole, Schaninger and Harris (2002), Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) and Uehara (1990) argue that only social exchanges elicit obligations, trust, gratitude and kinship as a result of a continuous exchange between the parties. Furthermore, in a social exchange relationship individuals tend to identify emotionally with the “person or entity with which they are engaged” (Lavelle, Rupp & Brochner 2007, p. 845) while economic exchanges are purely economic transactions. Therefore, social exchanges are considered to involve higher-quality relationships than economic exchanges.

Another factor that distinguishes social exchanges from economic exchanges is that in social exchanges there is no guarantee that the benefits provided will be reciprocated by another party directly, even though there is a feeling of obligation in the exchange network (Ekeh 1974). In contrast, economic exchanges, also referred to as negotiated exchanges, are less risky, and are not developed based on experiences
of trust between members (Uehara 1990). Hence, economic exchanges are not linked to behaviour that can be characterised as affective commitment.

Social exchange theorists such as Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue that positive social exchanges result in high-quality relationships because of the associated feelings of trust, obligation and commitment. In this regard, economic exchanges are referred to as involving low-quality relationships because the sense of obligation or commitment from employees towards their employing organisation is relatively weak. Amo (2006) also points out that an economic exchange does not contribute to an employee’s affective commitment because it takes place under contractual guidelines. Hence, the trust or emotional attachment involved is non-existent or very low. For this reason, in economic transactions there is no formation of social relationships and obligatory feelings that go beyond the contractual obligations.

Uehara (1990) states that unlike economic exchange theorists, social exchange theorists are primarily concerned with the impact of exchanges on the solidarity of the group. Social exchange theorists consider the extent to which the exchange that has taken place increases the cohesion of the group. Based on the explanation of reciprocity given by Gouldner (1960), obligation, trust, and cooperation are created and extended among people in social exchange relationships. Hence, social exchange theorists are more interested in the reciprocal relationships created by exchanges than they are in the material outcomes of economic exchanges, as individuals driven by economic motives have a private self-interest in maximising profits (Uehara 1990).

Importantly, the exploration of the social exchanges which take place in economic exchange environments needs to consider the emotional or intrinsic aspects of relationships in a group in order to increase the understanding of factors that can enhance cooperative group formation. In other words, though employees’ main motives in their associations with organisations are tied to economic outcomes, they are involved in social interactions with their counterparts at work and with their immediate bosses. Employees’ positive social encounters in the workplace will help to provide a suitable environment in which both they and their organisations can pursue economic and non-economic objectives. Viewed in this light, social exchanges and economic exchanges exist side-by-side in organisations.
As the above discussion has shown, economic exchanges result in low-quality work relationships and poor work outcomes (low affective commitment), and this highlights the importance of creating conditions that will promote social exchange relationships in the workplace. The different types of social exchange relationships in the workplace are considered in the next section.

2.3.2 Different types of social exchange relationships

In this section, the discussion focuses on the two forms of social exchange: direct and indirect exchanges. These two forms of exchange differ fundamentally regarding how participants relate to each other. Social exchanges that are direct (restricted) are exchanges in which actor A gives to B. In contrast, social exchanges that are indirect (generalised) exchanges involve exchange in which A gives to B who in turn gives to C or D who may not follow the usual exchange loop, and may then give to A or B (Ekeh 1974; Levi-Strauss 1969; Uehara 1990).

Direct exchanges are dyadic exchanges which involve two parties who directly exchange favours based on mutual reciprocity. Indeed, the main principle of the direct exchange is mutual reciprocity, and its application has helped in gaining a better understanding of the development of reciprocal relationships that have been found to result in positive workplace outcomes. Ekeh (1974) argues that because direct or restricted exchanges take place in the form of a dyad in which there is mutual reciprocity, there is a possibility that it may lead to tension and conflict instead of solidarity. This is because there is a high degree of accountability for each partner in a dyadic exchange, and the relationship also creates intensely self-interested partners who are frequently in conflict over the fairness of the resources exchanged (Uehara 1990).

The indirect or generalised exchange can be classified as a triad exchange. It is based on indirect reciprocity where actor ‘A’ is not expecting a return from actor B (Uehara 1990) but trusts that they will receive a return from some other actor in the exchange loop, which could be actor C or D. Although actor A does not expect a reward from B, they expect to be indirectly rewarded by what B gives to C. In other words, A is satisfied with B’s action in giving to another. This is typically an exchange loop where everybody
in the loop benefits indirectly from what has been exchanged. It is incumbent on the people in the exchange loop to make sure the exchange network is maintained in order to keep the relationship going. Unlike restricted exchanges, generalised exchanges are relatively devoid of tension and conflict because those involved in the exchange trust each other (Ekeh 1974).

As further explained by Ekeh (1974), the principle of indirect reciprocity helps to explain the generalised responsibility to others from whom one cannot directly expect payback or return. As an alternative, there is a belief that one’s good deed will be repaid by others not known (Uehara 1990). According to the views of Levi-Strauss (1969) and Uehara (1990), an indirect exchange is regarded as involving indirect reciprocity, and it provides a convincing explanation for why people volunteer their services to non-profit organisations, as most volunteers do not expect to be directly reciprocated for their volunteering activities. Volunteering is characterised as a non-obligated exchange or helping, as formal volunteering takes place in an organisation, and it is not motivated by a feeling of personal obligation to any particular individual (Omoto & Snyder 1995).

Indirect reciprocity, as referred to in the case of generalised exchanges, results in a willingness to engage in multiple exchanges to serve the interests of one’s group or organisation. For the present study, it is important to point out that although the expectation of direct reciprocity is absent in a generalised exchange, the belief in reciprocity keeps the generalised exchange going because the exchange takes place strictly in the belief that what is done to ‘B’ by ‘A’ will definitely be repaid by ‘C’ or ‘D’ if not by ‘B’ directly. Reciprocal obligation, though not directly taking place, is characteristic of generalised exchanges, and it helps to build a stable social exchange relationship as it becomes an established expectation of the people in the social exchange network.

2.3.3 Important elements facilitating social exchange processes
The development of, and sustainability of, positive social exchanges is important because it results in steady and amicable organisational relationships that lead to positive workplace outcomes. Hence, understanding the elements that facilitate social exchange processes is important. As indicated above, one of the assumptions of SET
is that high-quality relationships evolve over time into relationships which embody loyalty, commitment and trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). It is therefore important to develop and maintain high-quality relationships by deploying the necessary elements to facilitate the exchange process. As noted by Cole, Schaninger and Harris (2002), high-quality relationships require certain conditions, such as abiding by the rules of exchange in the relationship. In other words, it means creating an environment that encourages high-quality workplace relationships, and this requires both parties to adhere to the norms guiding the exchange process.

As suggested in the literature, the norm of reciprocity is a fundamental functional rule of SET (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005) because it guides social exchange processes. It is important that there is a supportive environment in the workplace – for employees to engage in reciprocal acts as a way of fulfilling obligations to either the supervisor or the organisation or both. Reciprocity as a guiding norm of exchange results in cooperation between volunteers and their supervisors or organisations over time. This will lead to a mutual understanding in the workplace under conditions where issues and challenges are easily met in order to achieve stated work objectives. This is possible because of the supportive social and organisation-specific work environments engendered by positive social exchange relationships. In an organisational setting, what needs to be done at any given time needs to be communicated and understood in terms of the rules of exchange between the individuals involved and in terms of organisation-wide policies and procedures.

The development and sustainability of the exchange process also depends on the quality of communication in the organisation. Excellent communication facilitates the social exchange process as it ensures the availability of information that needs to be known at the individual social exchange level, and information that needs to be known regarding organisational policy, procedures and culture. For the exchange to take place, sufficient information is necessary in terms of knowing the applicable rules in the organisation as well as knowing the other parties in the exchange. According to Rousseau (2001), communication enables the parties to get a clearer picture of each other’s obligations. However, Rousseau states that this may lead to less job satisfaction because it can mean that if the actual situation differs from the situation described in employment contracts, the employees will be aware of it. In light of
Dobni’s (2008) assertion that organisations can encourage the development of workplace networks through relevant policies and procedures, such policies and procedures will amount to nothing if they are not sufficiently communicated to all stakeholders in the organisation.

Moreover, communication is also a fundamental element that enables supervisors to provide support that will foster appropriate and desirable exchange relationships. For instance, Rubin (1993) remarks that if employees find communication processes satisfactory, they develop positive working relationships and job satisfaction. In the context of this study, supervisor support is necessary for volunteers because they require information and other resources that will enable them to do their work efficiently and form productive networks in the workplace. Although the importance of communication in exchange relationships between paid staff and the organisation, and in relationships between employees and supervisors, is well known, (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005; Griffith, Harvey & Lusch 2006; Konovsky & Pugh 1994; Paille 2009), very few studies have examined organisational relationships with a view to understanding the role communication plays in social exchange processes between volunteers, their organisations and supervisors.

Supervisors are regarded as one of the agents of the organisation as they have constant exchange relationships with employees (Konovsky & Pugh 1994). They are therefore able to influence the relationships employees have with their organisations. As any relationship based on mutuality cannot survive without trust, it follows that trust is required to sustain the supervisor/employee relationship in the organisation. Trust, as defined by Liao (2008, p. 1883), is the “willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party, with the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party”. According to Blau (1964), trust develops mutually between social network members due to time-tested social interactions. On this note, Van Dyne et al. (2000) also suggest that there should be a properly managed social relationship framework to develop a culture of trust among network members. Trust has elements such as fairness and mutuality, and these have been noted as important constituents of positive social exchange relationships. In any interpersonal relationship, such as a relationship between an employee and his supervisor, the notion of fairness is very
important if the relationship is to grow. For instance, if the relationship an employee has with his/her superior is built upon mutual trust and fairness, the relationship is bound to expand positively to include benefits for the organisation as well as the individual. Thus, supervisors are very important in terms of facilitating workplace social exchanges. More specifically, employees’ interactions with each other over a long time enable them to develop trust with each other.

Trust is regarded as a social currency, and this highlights its importance in a social exchange relationship. In the context of the discussion of both types of social exchange relationships, trust is required to sustain relationships in both negotiated and non-negotiated exchanges. However, there is a need to point out that trust is required more in non-negotiated exchanges, especially as it applies to the relationships between volunteers and their supervisors and organisations. According to Blau (1964), and Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), trust, loyalty and commitment are the basis for social exchange relationships and are bound to emerge under conditions of continuous exchange, resulting in long-term relationships. For example, trust is broken when expectations are not met by any of the organisations’ agents (Rousseau 1989). As such, they (volunteers) will be affected psychologically in their social exchange when their trust is betrayed. Such feelings of betrayal have been found to affect satisfaction which in turn affects attitudes and behaviours, including the level of commitment, turnover, and citizenship behaviours (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau 1994; Robinson & Morrison 1995) and intention to stay (Bang, Won & Kim 2009).

Social exchange processes are also influenced by a host of other factors, such as individual differences and values. Although these variables have been identified in previous research, more research is required to understand their influence on the social exchange process. Some of these variables may have to do with employees’ social values, which are very relevant for the examination of social interactions or exchange processes, especially in the context of volunteers in NPOs. As explained by Maki and McClintock (1983), the social values of individuals have been found to have a significant influence on the outcomes of social exchanges. In this regard, it is difficult to use a one-size-fits-all approach to deal with social exchanges involving people because they come from different backgrounds, and they may therefore work for
different motives because of the different meanings work has for them. For example, volunteers and paid employees might have different needs, aspirations and attitudes and thus they may have different motives. It is important to recognise this in the relationship model.

Past literature has also referred to equity theory in discussing fairness or lack thereof in social relationships. Equity theory, as developed by Adams (1965) is used to address the notion of fairness. Equity theory is based on social comparison, which helps to explain how employees determine fairness or unfairness. It has featured prominently in the works of early SET researchers such as Homans (1961) and Blau (1964). As argued by Adams (1965), employees assess the ratio of their job input to their output, and compare it with the ratios of other employees at the same level. In this instance, Adams (1965) states that inequity exists when an employee feels that the outcomes of their efforts are the same as those of other employees but are not similarly rewarded.

Given the argument of equity theory, a situation that is described as unjust by employees cannot result in balanced exchange, and this precipitates dissatisfaction. In this situation, employees will adjust their attitudes and behaviours in light of their perceptions of inequity. This adjustment may be in the form of less commitment to their organisation. On the other hand, the perception by an individual that their ratio of input to output is equal to that of their co-workers will increase the likelihood of job satisfaction and commitment.

2.3.4 Current limitations of SET
SET, as an analytical lens used in the study of organisational relationships, has several limitations. For example, some problems identified by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005, p. 875) are: “theoretical ambiguities and empirical needs, and frequent misunderstanding” of the general concept of SET. They list the norms of exchange, resource exchange, and the relationships that emerge, as some of the causes of the conceptual misunderstandings associated with SET. Their findings indicate that although the norm of reciprocity is believed to be universal, its application varies from culture to culture (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005), mainly because of the way people of different cultures attach value to what they do or what is happening to them. At the
organisational level, organisational cultures differ from one sector to another and hence it follows that the practices of private, public and NPO sectors are different from each other in terms of policies, goals and processes for achieving set goals. Thus, even though SET has been said to have universal appeal, there is a shortage of studies demonstrating its universality across different organisations. This is one area that requires further study among scholars of SET.

Another unaddressed issue or limitation can be found in Shore et al.'s (2009) concern about the lack of longitudinal and experimental studies in SET. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) identify exchange rules as an area that deserves further enquiry in a longitudinal study in order to deepen the understanding of SET. Before Shore et al.'s (2009) and Cropanzano and Mitchell's (2005) studies, Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne (1997) stated that there was a dearth of studies looking at exchange processes, especially exchange processes in volunteer organisations. In the context of this study, exchange processes will be fundamental in examining the impact of perceived organisational support and leader–member exchange on organisational outcomes such as volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The study will also examine the role of volunteers’ motive fulfilment in the understanding of social exchanges in relation to the organisation and some of its core stakeholders such as managers and supervisors.

It has been established in the literature that positive social exchange results in work outcomes such as organisational commitment and trust. However, the question of reciprocity or obligation to reciprocate that has received extensive coverage in the literature in the discussion of positive social exchange has received less attention in regard to how it applies to volunteers in community NPOs. This will require the study of exchange rules across all types of organisations, including community NPOs. In this regard, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) point to the neglect of other exchange rules as a potential obstacle to a better understanding of SET. They also highlight the shortage of literature that examines the possibility of multiple forms of exchange taking place simultaneously in networks, especially generalised networks. The emphasis here is on the need to consider different exchange rules in dealing with various situations in a social network. As people in a social network may have different social values, it follows that multiple rules of exchange may be needed in terms of obligations.
to reciprocate or understandings of reciprocity. Therefore, this study contributes to the literature by looking at social exchange process in terms of the factors determining reciprocity in NPOs, and especially in terms of how the process combines POS and LMX and the role of volunteers’ motive fulfilment in social exchange relationships.

The review of the literature in this section has described the early development of SET and some recent contributions to its ideas. The literature review also includes: an examination of the difference between SET and economic exchange, types of SET, current limitations of SET and elements that facilitate the exchange process. The review points to the appropriateness of SET as an essential analytical framework for examining social relationships, especially relationships in workplace settings. For this reason, this study aims to contribute to SET in the following ways:

1. It will provide insights into the use of SET in explaining volunteers’ workplace relationships.
2. It will examine the relationships between SET’s constructs and their influence on volunteers’ satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to stay.
3. It will examine the relationships between SET in terms of the link between Homans’ third proposition and volunteers’ motive fulfilment.

All of the aspects of SET discussed above are central to the understanding of SET in an organisational setting.

2.4 Conclusion
In this chapter, a brief overview of the historical context of SET was described, especially as it relates to Homans’ propositions and Gouldner’s norm of reciprocity. Homans’ propositions were an attempt to lay the foundations for the understanding of SET. Following this, there was a general discussion of SET, particularly about the fact that SET is a fundamental framework for examining relationships in organisations. The limitations of SET as identified in the literature were stated, and the types of social exchange were discussed. The aims of the study and how the study contributes to our understanding of SET were also discussed.

In the next chapter, the focus will be on reviewing the relevant literature in order to understand concepts such as POS, LMX, volunteers’ motivation and their impacts on
work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay. The discussion will also focus on the rationale used to justify the hypotheses in this study.
Chapter Three: Literature review

3.1 Introduction
In this chapter, the two constructs of SET (POS and LMX) will be discussed individually where applicable regarding their influences on workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). The chapter will then detail the organisational commitment of volunteers to their organisations, their job satisfaction and their intentions to stay. In addition, volunteer motives and motive fulfilment will be discussed, with a focus on motive fulfilment as an interactive variable that affects LMX's and POS's influence on the aforementioned work outcomes. Volunteer motivations are discussed in detail in this chapter in order to provide the background needed to understand motive fulfilment. This chapter will also present hypotheses corresponding to each of these variables.

3.2 Perceived organisational support (POS)
POS is a SET construct used to explain workplace relationships between the organisation and its employees. The term perceived organisational support (POS) is based on an employee’s perceptions regarding the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares for them (Aselage & Eisenberger 2003; Eisenberger et al. 1986). Organisations exhibit human-like characteristics, through their agents (supervisors and managers) (Eisenberger et al. 2010) in the form of power which allows them to develop policies and procedures that are used to control and guide the behaviours of employees. Hence, in their relationship with their organisation, employees evaluate whether its policies and procedures have allowed it to meet their socio-emotional needs.

The extent to which the organisation treats, respects and values its employees’ contributions is used in the assessment of its fulfilment of its obligations to its employees (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro 1990). The treatment of its employees by an organisation may result in a positive mood that “would create a felt obligation to care about the organisation’s welfare and help the organisation to reach its objectives” (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001, p. 825). According to Brunetto et al. (2013), it is assumed that when an organisation relates to its employees well in terms of access to resources and respect, the employee will reciprocate by working
hard to improve their organisational effectiveness. Such positive organisational relationships could develop into emotional ties and a sense of unity with the organisation over time (Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006).

In an organisational context, both employers and employees are constantly evaluating their loyalty to each other. From the organisation’s perspective, dedicated and loyal employees are emotionally committed to the organisation and this will be reflected in their increased level of performance, reduced absenteeism and decisions to stay longer with the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991). Employees’ dedication and loyalty are based on positive evaluations of their organisation’s commitment to them in the form of respect, pay, recognition, resources and access to the information needed to improve their performance of their jobs (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

According to SET, employment involves the exchange of service for tangible and intangible rewards (see Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982; Organ & Konovsky 1989). Such rewards can be in the form of favourable treatment from the organisation, resulting in a feeling of obligation to reciprocate (Gouldner 1960). Consequently, the tendency for continuous reciprocity between the organisation and employees is increased – as long as both parties receive favourable treatment from each other. This applies to volunteers in community NPOs who offer their services for the benefit of the public without monetary compensation.

Employees value organisational resources or rewards more if they are discretionary benefits given out of choice (Blau, 1964; Gouldner 1960) rather than being enforced by external factors such as government policy or workers’ unions. Such, discretionary aids are seen as an expression of the organisation’s positive appreciation of employees’ contributions and concern for their welfare (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro 1990). Hence, Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Shore and Shore (1995) argue that POS will increase if employees believe that rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) and favourable job conditions (such as respect, fair treatment and job enrichment) are given by the organisations voluntarily.

According to Levinson (1965), employees do not view actions taken by an organisation’s agents (such as supervisors) as their personal motives but rather as the
organisation’s intention towards them. However, this view is influenced by the extent to which the employees associate the supervisor with the organisation (Eisenberger et al. 2010). Therefore, within an organisational context, the degree to which employees regard the supervisor’s actions as the manifestation of the organisation’s decision will determine their POS. If the decision results in fair exchange or favourable treatment, it would be seen as a favour which comes from the organisation and not from the supervisor or manager.

Previous literature has shown the importance of high-quality POS and its influence on employee wellbeing (Brunetto et al. 2012), retention (Cohen 2006), commitment (Eisenberger et al. 2002) stress (Rodwell & Demir 2012) and supervisor-subordinate relationships (Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997). Based on these work outcomes, it is important to also examine the impact of POS on volunteers, specifically those in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. In line with the norm of reciprocity, volunteer job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay is contingent upon the support they received from the organisation (Gouldner 1960). That is, if they feel that their contributions are appreciated and they are receiving the support they need from both the organisation and their supervisors, they will feel obliged to reciprocate. A positive relationship between an organisation and its volunteers would result in a high level of trust, interaction, support, rewards, motivation and feelings of obligation to reciprocate (Maurer, Pierce & Shore 2002). On the other hand, volunteers who feel they are not being appreciated or supported will not see the need to reciprocate or will reciprocate with poor performance and commitment.

Research involving unpaid employees (volunteers) has shown the importance of some organisational characteristics (policies, respect and pride) and their influence on volunteers’ organisational commitment (Bennett & Barkensjo 2005; Boezeman & Ellemmer 2007) and reduced risk of turnover (Starnes & Wymer 2001). To date, previous research does not appear to have verified the influence of POS on volunteer work outcomes thoroughly. It is necessary, therefore, to examine the influence of POS on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.
3.2.1 POS in the context of volunteer in NPOs

The fact that most community NPOs depend on volunteers means that it is important for them to develop positive relationships with them in order to achieve their organisational goals. Since volunteers in community NPOs do not get remuneration or tangible benefits, the perception of support from the organisation in the form of recognition, being valued, and feeling the organisation cares about their wellbeing will be important to them (Farmer & Fedor 1999). Studies by Clary and Snyder (1991), Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) and Omoto and Snyder (1995) have all found that people volunteer to fulfil needs or functions such as value expression, social adjustment, relationship formation, ego defence, or knowledge acquisition. This strongly indicates that volunteers’ work in the organisation for specific expectations or reasons. Hence, in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia, volunteers’ positive POS will depend on the organisation fulfilling at least some of the needs or functions mentioned and this, in turn, will influence how volunteers relate to the organisation in carrying out their volunteering activities. In other words, an organisation that is seen to be fulfilling any of these needs will, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), have affectively or emotionally attached employees (which in this case would be volunteers) to their organisation. The opposite applies when this is considered regarding volunteers who feel they receive poor POS (Rosse & Hulin 1985). Thus, when such support is provided, it conveys the extent to which the volunteer is appreciated and valued. This is consistent with Boezeman and Ellemers’ (2007) remark that volunteers derive feelings of respect from their perceptions of being supported – this will result in their being psychologically engaged in their organisations. Garner and Garner (2011) state that volunteers are more inclined to continue volunteering when they perceive that the organisation is open to their ideas about volunteering.

Given the importance of positive POS, it is, therefore necessary to understand the extent to which volunteers perceive that certain organisational characteristics are embodied in the organisation’s policies and procedures, and how such perceptions could be useful in the management of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Lo Presti (2013) argues that sound organisational policies and procedures improve volunteers’ organisational experiences and reduce turnover rates. According to Starnes and Wymer (2001), organisational support in the form of high-quality relationships, social support, sufficient information and adequate internal
communication are the main factors that can reduce the risk of turnover among volunteers. In addition, Bennett and Barkensjo (2005) found that internal marketing strategies, which they said were similar to the variables such as social support, organisational task support, the level of information, and appreciation from the organisation, were positively associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. On the other hand, they found that the adverse experiences in relation to these organisational factors during volunteering were negatively associated with the same outcomes.

Regarding the link between organisational activities and organisational commitment, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) found that the perception of organisational support, particularly task support, increased volunteers’ commitment to their organisations. In the same study, they also found that there is a relationship between respect and organisational commitment among volunteers. In their recent studies of various NPOs (churches, animal shelters, etc.) organisational factors such as communication with volunteers about their work correlates positively with pride in the NPO (Boezeman & Ellemers 2014).

The preceding empirical studies highlight evidence of the impact of organisational factors on volunteers’ work outcomes. However, although the importance of the influence of organisational characteristics on the quality of volunteering and the concomitant work outcomes has been emphasised (Grube & Pillavin 2000), less attention has been paid in the literature to the influence of these characteristics on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay.

3.3 Leader-member exchange (LMX)
According to Landry and Vandenberghe (2009), the relationship between employees and their immediate supervisors falls under the term leader-member-exchange (LMX). Thus, it (LMX) emphasises two-way relationships between employees and their supervisors (Dansereau, Graen & Haga 1975), with an underlying assumption that organisational success or failure is attributable to high-quality LMX (Mardanov, Heischmidt & Henson 2008) or low-quality LMX (Dienesch & Liden 1986). LMX, as a construct of social exchange theory (Erdogan & Liden 2002; Kamdar & Van Dyne 2007; Liao, Liu, & Loi 2010), emphasises that high-quality LMX relationships create
feelings of mutual obligation and reciprocity (Gouldner 1960; Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne 1997). Such relationships are therefore considered to be social in nature. On the other hand, low-quality LMX relationships are characterised as economic exchanges which are based on a formal agreement and balanced reciprocation of tangible assets, such as an employment contract that focuses on pay for job performance (Blau 1964). As such, the premise of LMX theory is social exchange relationships that are characterised by loyalty, commitment, support and trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn 2003).

The theory of LMX deals with the nature of the interpersonal relationships that develop between employees and their immediate bosses through exchanges over a period (Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997) and this relationship is classified as either high-quality or low-quality (Dienesch & Liden 1986) depending on the types of resources exchanged. There are several benefits of high-quality LMX, namely preferential treatment, increased job-related communication, differential allocation of formal and informal rewards, unlimited access to supervisors, increased performance-related feedback, and high levels of mutual support, trust and respect (see Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Shiva & Suar 2010). On the other hand, employees in low-quality LMX relationships often experience limited emotional support and trust, and few or no benefits outside the employment contract (Gerstner & Day 1997).

High-quality LMX, therefore, will result in sound interpersonal relationships, due to the social exchanges between subordinates and their supervisors in which participants treat each other with respect and fairness. In this type of relationship, the subordinates are in the inner circle and are referred to as “in-group” members because of their unrestricted access to information, support and resources which in turn makes it easy for them to do their work (Gerstner & Day 1997; Mueller & Lee 2002). In return, members of the in-group reciprocate with high levels of loyalty and commitment (Northouse 2001). The LMX theory of the in-group stresses the importance of interpersonal communication – which strengthens interpersonal relationships – in the organisation. For example, Northhouse (2001) states that high-quality LMX relationships result in less employee turnover, and higher job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day 1997). Lower employee turnover and higher job satisfaction will be achieved when subordinates receive a higher level of trust, emotional support, and related benefits in
high-quality relationships (Dansereau, Graen & Haga 1975; Dienesch & Liden 1986). Moreover, good relations between supervisors and subordinates lead to higher job satisfaction and help to retain employees because they provide a disincentive to quit. LMX is an important organisational factor because, as emphasised by Morrow et al. (2005), no matter the underlying cause of poor LMX, it is generally recognised as a determinant of volunteer turnover (Morrow et al. 2005) in an organisation.

Organisational success is mainly due to a positive supervisor-employee relationship (Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997). Previous research such as Eisenberger et al. (2010) points out that employees in higher-quality relationships are more likely to be committed to achieving the goals of their task and to carry out other duties as recommended by their leader. Findings by Liao, Hu and Chung (2009) of a study of a tourist hotel state that leader-member relations have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction in a tourist hotel in Taiwan. In other words, employee in high-quality relationships with their supervisors or managers had greater job satisfaction. The combination of LMX research suggests that high-quality LMX leads to positive outcomes for the employee (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995; Shiva & Suar 2010), supervisor (Boezeman & Ellemers 2014; Northouse 2001) and the organisation (Morrow et al. 2005; Shiva & Suar 2010).

3.3.1 LMX in the context of volunteering in NPOs

NPOs are not profit-making (Hodgkinson 1999, Morris 2000) and they operate ‘at the mercy’ of the money donated to them by their donors (Chandler & Johansen 2012). This also applies to community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Hence, a significant percentage of their workforce comprises volunteers whose services are not rewarded by financial compensation. For this reason, it is important that there should be positive social exchange relationships between volunteers and organisational representatives such as supervisors or managers. LMX in the context of volunteering is very crucial given the demands by government for NPOs to be more professional in order to enhance the management and training of volunteers (Chang 2005). NPOs’ responses to this requirement have resulted in NPOs that use volunteers adopting organisational structures (Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003) that take account of the relationships between volunteers and their supervisors and managers. Brudney (1999) found that these structures involve formal management practices which cover basic training, written
policies, high-level organisational support and job descriptions for volunteers. Volunteering Australia (2007) surveyed nearly 1000 voluntary organisations and found a high percentage had formal management practices. The study identifies the formal management practices in the organisations surveyed as follows: volunteer orientations (93%), training for volunteer roles (92%) and volunteer appraisal processes (55%). These are human resources management practices, which suggests a high level of organisational and management support for volunteers.

The focus of this study is on continuous volunteering rather than sporadic and episodic volunteering. According to Eckstein (2001) continuous volunteering is linked to strong feelings of belonging to a group and a sense of connectedness or relatedness. As a consequence, Vantilborgh et al. (2012, p. 647) argue that continuous volunteering (for example in community NPOs) “is initiated, managed and supervised by the group, and intentions or preferences of the individual are secondary to those of the group”. Vantilborgh et al.’s argument highlights the usefulness of LMX in continuous volunteering as it does not just take place aimlessly but in a systematic manner where volunteers are trained and led, and where volunteers train and lead others in the NPOs. Volunteers’ needs and wants are intertwined with the needs of their organisations due to a strong feeling of belonging which provides the basis for a high-quality relationship, resulting in regular volunteer commitment (Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003).

The discussion of formal management of NPOs thus far suggests there is a high-level relationship between volunteers and management, and that volunteers can be found at most levels of responsibility within organisations. This indicates the likely presence of a volunteer-supervisor dyad relationship in NPOs. This view is supported by Taylor and McGraw (2006) who point out that a high proportion of individuals with professional skills are being recruited to join sporting organisations as volunteers. Some of these volunteers lead and manage others. This suggests that volunteers fill a void which is capable of impacting on the effectiveness of the organisations. Consequently, Taylor and McGraw (2006) argue that it is imperative to recognise volunteer management practices, which includes overall leadership questions, especially as they apply to the relationship between volunteers and management. Taylor and McGraw’s (2006) study focuses on volunteers in sporting organisations,
but it is logical to assume that their findings also apply to volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

High-quality LMX is required to coordinate and motivate the efforts of volunteers in order to avoid non-cooperation and non-acceptance of leadership, which according to Pearce (1993) are often observed among volunteers working in NPOs. In Tyler and Blader’s (2000) study, this problem has been addressed in terms of acceptance of leadership, and identification or cooperation with the organisation by volunteers. Pearce (1993) argues that leaders’ relationships with volunteers that involve the appreciation of their significant contributions to the NPOs will be inspiring and encouraging for volunteers. If this occurs, the question of volunteer non-cooperation and non-acceptance will not arise as they are in high-quality LMX relationships.

NPOs are regarded as moral organisations, as “they for ideological reasons and non-material aims contribute to society and the lives of people” (Boezeman & Ellemers 2014, p.163). As such, supervisors or managers whose relationships with volunteers exemplify the moral values of the organisation (e.g. altruism, selflessness) will be consistent with what volunteers want to identify with, and they will, in turn, be inspiring for volunteers (Pearce 1993). Similarly, organisational leaders whose relationships with volunteers involve demonstrations of the moral standards that NPOs, particularly community NPOs, stand for, will motivate volunteers to identify with the organisation (Boezeman & Ellemers 2014).

As stated previously, immediate supervisors work closely with their subordinates. Hence, their behaviours play critical roles in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours (Bhatnagar 2007; Tymon, Stumpf & Smith 2011). This applies to volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Hence, their supervisors can influence their attitudes and behaviours, which will, in turn, affect their work outcomes.

An empirical study by Boezeman and Ellemers (2014) of volunteers working across various types of NPOs (churches and animal shelters) found that the perception of high-quality LMX in the form of leader support during volunteering correlated directly and positively with respect from the leadership. Their study also reported that perceived leader support and perceived encouragement for expressing ideas
correlated directly and positively to respect. In the same study, high-quality LMX in the form of perceived leader support and encouragement for expressing ideas correlated with satisfaction with the leadership, via respect (Boezeman & Ellemer 2014).

Past studies relevant to the volunteering context show that there is a positive relationship between LMX and the affective commitment of paid employees (Dulebohn et al. 2012) while in NPOs, LMX influences organisational commitment (Shiva & Suar 2010), satisfaction (Boezeman & Ellemer 2014) and intention to stay (Bang 2011). Previous studies of managers have also shown that supervisory support and positive working conditions have been found to be positively correlated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Golden & Veiga 2008; Schyns, Torka & Gössling 2007) and decreased turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day 1997). Although most of these studies have dealt with paid employee contexts, their findings may help us to understand LMX as an antecedent of work outcomes in volunteering contexts in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

3.4 Volunteer motivations

The discussion of motivation in this section will highlight the lack of convergence of views about the concept. The different definitions given by scholars to indicate their understanding of the term will be discussed briefly. The definition and discussion of motivation as they relate to how volunteer motivation is considered in this study are presented. Specifically, the discussion of volunteer motivation in this section is meant to explain the context in which volunteer motives are examined in relation to volunteer motive fulfilment as a mediator in this study.

The term motivation has been defined from both cognitive and behavioural perspectives. These differing perspectives have resulted in different definitions, but they all describe it as a process of satisfying needs. For example, Reber (1995), describes motivation as an internal process that initiates an action. An action is only begun in order to satisfy a perceived purpose or need. According to Latham and Pinder (2005, p. 502), “the perceived relationship between applying energy to actions and the resulting need satisfaction influences how much of the energy pool is devoted to that action”. In other words, motivation determines how and when energy is used, and an individual’s decisions about how to allocate time and energy to different tasks are
based on the amount of need satisfaction that the individual expects will result from such actions.

Studies on motivation are principally aimed at providing an understanding of human behaviour in terms of the psychological forces which result from the interactions between the individual and the environment. These psychological forces energise, direct, and sustain work-related behaviour (Herzberg 1966; Pinder 1998; Vroom 1964). In Pinder’s (1998) and Vroom’s (1964) studies, motivation is described as a ‘spur on effect’, or it is described as referring to the conditions that encourage people to invest behavioural energy in their work (energise), and the factor that refers to activities people are likely to focus their efforts on (direction). There is also a factor that refers to what makes people persist in efforts over time (persistence). In a work environment, these factors are work-related behaviours, and they determine its form, direction, involvement and duration. In other words, motivation is used to describe what makes people take action, and what directs them into certain forms of sustained action over time.

Motivation in the context of volunteering has been described as the reasons underpinning the donation of time and effort to a cause by volunteers (Briggs, Peterson & Gregory 2010; Reiss 2004). Motivation is a common term used interchangeably in the volunteering literature with motive (See Akintola 2011; Hallmann & Harms 2012; Reed, Aquino & Levy 2007; Briggs, Peterson & Gregory 2010). For example, Lo Presti (2013) states that the study of what induces people to engage in volunteer activities voluntarily is concerned with the motivation or motives to volunteer. According to Gnoth (1997), motivation focuses on particular situational boundaries within which motives are expressed, while Schiffman et al. (2001) describe motive as a push for a felt need that results in behaviour or action.

Furthermore, Georgiadis, Biddle and Stavros (2006) state that a motive is largely triggered by what one desires, or one’s expectations. An unsatisfied expectation, according to Ramlall (2004, p. 53) “creates tension that stimulates drives (motives) within the individual” and these drives result in behaviour that focuses on some particular goals that, if met, will help in the attainment of those goals. Kanfer (1991) emphasises the importance of needs as internal desires that mediate behavioural
processes, ultimately resulting in motivated workers or de-motivated workers, depending on whether the needs are met or not. As argued by Atkinson and Birch (1974), the two constructs (motive and motivation) cannot be separated during the execution of an action as they occur simultaneously, and the terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

Volunteer motivation has been examined to identify the functions it serves for volunteers. Khoo, Surujlal and Engelhorn (2011) characterise volunteer motivation using a five-factor model which includes solidarity, altruistic factors, commitments, external traditions, and family traditions. Warner, Newland and Green (2011), see volunteer motivation as involving: a desire to contribute to society (i.e. altruism), to contribute to the nation (e.g. patriotism), to obtain tangible rewards (e.g. extrinsic motivation), or to take on challenging tasks (e.g. intrinsic motivation). In contrast, Clary et al. (1998) and Lai et al. (2013) identify six motivations for volunteering that are related to: values, understanding, social factors, career, protection and self-enhancement. These six dimensions are referred to as six motives or functions that underlie volunteers’ motivations, and they are usually grouped into altruistic and egoistic dimensions. These six constructs are discussed below (Subsection 3.4.2) in terms of their altruistic and egoistic dimensions.

Consistent with the literature, the term motive will be used whenever any of the components of motivations is mentioned. For example, when referring to the dimension of motivation, Lee et al. (2014) use the term ‘motive’ to identify altruism and patriotism. Clary et al. (1996) when referring to functional motives, use the term motives like other authors such as Willems et al. (2012) and Finkelstein (2007).

An approach known as the functionalist approach underlies the development of the six constructs of motives by Clary et al. (1998). Hence, scholars do refer to these constructs as functional motives because they describe the functions volunteering serves for individuals.
3.4.1 The functional approach to motivation

The functional approach to motivation is regarded as one of the commonly used approaches in studies of volunteer motivation. The functional approach, according to Clary et al. (1998) and Snyder (1993), holds that individuals volunteer to satisfy certain needs or motives, and that different people can engage in the same volunteering activities with a view to performing any of several different functions. This approach underlies the development of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), which identifies six reasons or motives for volunteering (Clary et al. 1998). Through the six motives identified, each of the functions that volunteers would achieve in the process of volunteering becomes very clear. Hence, the functional approach explains the reasons that underlie volunteering, which results in the development of numerous inventories to represent the diverse motives or functions that individuals have for volunteering (Mannino, Snyder & Omoto 2011).

From the functional perspective, volunteering takes place at an individual level to reflect personal needs or requirements that are driven by self-interest, such as the personal goals of enhancing self-esteem, making friends and acquiring skills, while at the group level, volunteering is other-oriented or directed towards others (and beyond the self). Hence, the six constructs have been categorised under the altruistic (selfless) and egoistic (self-centred) distinctions. The functions, identified in the VFI, are of particular importance because they indicate the diversity of motives that can bring about volunteerism and sustain continuous involvement in volunteering (Mannino, Snyder & Omoto 2011).

The six main personal and social functions volunteerism serves that as identified by Clary et al. (1998) have made it easier to match the motivation characteristics of individuals to the opportunities the organisations can provide. The six types of functional motives that volunteering can serve are:

- values motive
- understanding motive
- self-enhancement motive
- career motive
- social motive
- protective motive.
Other scholars who have used more than six categories or dimensions of motivation also use the distinction between egoistic and altruistic motives. For example, the motivation to volunteer scale developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) resulted in 28 motives, which they categorised as either egoistic or altruistic motives. A distinction between altruistic and egoistic motives was also used in a study by Phillips and Phillips (2011). Moreover, Finkelstein (2007), Hoye et al. (2008) and Smith et al. (2010) acknowledge that regardless of the different approaches used, the distinction between altruistic and egoistic motives appears to be the most common volunteer motivation construct in research. Consistent with the literature, the present study analyses six functional motives using the distinction between altruistic and egoistic motives. The measuring scale used in this study measures the six functional motives but categorises them as either altruistic or egoistic. The six function motives are discussed below in terms of their altruistic and egoistic characteristics.

### 3.4.2 Altruistic motives (values)

The values motive among the six functions volunteering serves refer principally to altruistic motives, which in the context of volunteering occur when a volunteer engages in an activity voluntarily in a bid to help others without the expectation of anything in return (Akintola 2011; Hoye et al. 2008; Phillips & Phillips 2011). The term ‘altruism’ is used to describe selfless concern for the welfare of others (Baron & Byrne 2003). Altruism has been used to describe volunteer motives based on two perspectives. The first refers to satisfaction with the intangible reward of feeling that one has helped others (Frisch & Gerrard 1981) and the second relates to an external concern which is the happiness of others (Treuren 2009). Bierhof (1987) refers to altruistic behaviour as any conduct that is self-initiated and undertaken without anticipation of external reward.

However, such understandings have been challenged by other researchers who argue that volunteering is not entirely based on altruism (Meneghetti 1995; Smith 1981). For example, Cialdini et al. (1987) argue that volunteering activities that are aimed at helping others could, in fact, be motivated by a desire to enhance personal affective situations such as the relief of negative feelings. This means that self-centred motives, in fact, drive volunteering activities that are thought to be driven by altruistic motives.
Moreover, situational factors which produce an empathic desire to help may also elicit a simultaneous emotional state in the form of sadness which is self-induced (Maner & Gailliot 2007). Some scholars assert that self-benefit is a common goal of helping, and that helping that benefits others is simply an instrumental means of achieving a self-serving end (Batson, Ahmad & Stocks 2011). Hence, volunteering activities driven by altruistic motives can also help the volunteer to relieve psychological feelings, which is self-interest that falls under the egoistic classification.

3.4.3 Egoistic motives
Egoistic motives refer to motives based on self-interest or motives that satisfy the personal desires of the volunteer. According to Phillips and Phillips (2011, p. 25) egoistic motives refer to “behaviour intended to benefit oneself”. They state that egoistic motives are central to how decisions are made about volunteering. The desire for enhancement, understanding, career, social and protective motives are categorised as egoistic motives and they are explained below.

3.4.3.1 The enhancement motive
The enhancement motive refers to volunteer activities that seek to enhance self-esteem and personal satisfaction (Chacon, Vecina & Dávila 2007). In addition, the term enhancement is used to describe volunteers who engage in volunteering activities that directly benefit themselves (Phillips & Phillips 2011), and according to Treuren (2009), they include benefits such as the opportunity to reduce negative emotions particularly guilt. The quest to satisfy enhancement motives is what makes some people participate in volunteering in order to increase their self-esteem, self-confidence and self-improvement (Akintola 2011; Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan 2005). In light of this, if enhancement motives are met by a volunteer organisation such as a community NPO, the likelihood that the volunteer will reciprocate by continuing to volunteer will increase.

3.4.3.2 The understanding motive
The understanding motive refers to “a volunteer’s desire to receive self-oriented benefits pertaining to personal growth and learning of new skills” (Wang 2004, p. 421). It also refers to the experience that allows volunteers to apply their skills and abilities
(Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan 2005) in volunteering organisations. Motives on the part of volunteers such as seeking opportunities for organisational training to enhance their technical knowledge and some specific skills (Hager & Brudney 2004) are described as understanding motives. Community NPOs in Queensland, Australia will be able to improve their volunteers’ recruitment and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction and increased intention to stay if they can provide volunteers with training and professional development. Importantly, feelings of reciprocal obligation will increase in community NPOs where volunteers are afforded opportunities for training that will enhance their working life outside volunteering.

3.4.3.3 The career motive

The career motive is closely related to the understanding motive as it refers to volunteering with the intention of helping one's career. A career motive is a desire to obtain job-related advantages (Akintola 2011; Phillips & Phillips 2011). Individuals who decide to volunteer due to a desire for career enhancement want to engage in activities that will improve their career prospects. Therefore, involvement in activities that result in gaining relevant skills and experience are likely to lead to job satisfaction and a feeling of having an obligation to reciprocate. Volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland may participate in volunteering activities to increase their job prospects and enhance their careers (Omoto & Snyder 1993). Hence, providing activities that will strengthen volunteers’ careers is likely to increase their reciprocal obligations.

3.4.3.4 The social motive

Social motives are classified as egoistic motives in that they are aimed at increasing the personal satisfaction of the volunteer. A social motive is a desire to belong to a group and create social networks that meet one’s needs (Clary et al. 1998). A volunteer’s desire for social motive is to enhance his/her social capital in the community, which is also about belongingness and interpersonal relationship. A social motive as indicated in the VFI is at work when a volunteer participates with his or her friends or family, or participates in activities viewed favourably by her friends and relatives (Clary et al. 1998). In an attempt to satisfy social motives, most volunteers go into volunteering activities in organisations where their friends or family members work (Chacon, Vecina & Dávila 2007). In some other cases, people volunteer in order to make new friends or meet people, and this, in turn, increases their social capital in
the community. Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace’s (2009) study of emergency services volunteers revealed that a significant percentage of people volunteer for social motives. According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), a social motive is expressed by people who have social attachments or see themselves as members of a group, and that group increases their pro-social (or helping) behaviour. In this instance, volunteers who have a problem working in a group may decrease their volunteer activities and hours.

3.4.3.5 The protective motive
Protective motives involve a desire to tackle personal problems (Clary et al. 1998). Individuals who volunteer for protective motives do so to reduce their feelings of guilt such as when they feel more fortunate than others, or to reduce their preoccupation with a particular problem (Akintola 2011; Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan 2005). Volunteering for such individuals helps them to forget about their personal problems. Therefore, organisations (such as community NPOs) that provide activities that make volunteers feel they are giving back their fair share of what they have acquired help them to escape from negative feelings, consequently resulting in more satisfied and committed volunteers.

3.4.4 Some relevant empirical findings of the influence of motives on volunteers’ work outcomes

An examination of motive, as it has been considered in this study, shows that the reasons people volunteer are either altruistic or egoistic, or a combination of the two. This has been confirmed by the findings of several studies. For example, Lee, Alexander and Kim’s (2013) study of motivational factors that affect volunteers in local events in the US revealed that altruistic values, ego enhancement, personal development, and community concern have positive influences on volunteer intention to continue volunteering for future events in their communities. This is inconsistent with Wang’s (2004) study in sports volunteerism which showed that intentions to volunteer differ and are contingent on the three elements of personal development, ego enhancement, and social approval. The differences between the findings in Lee, Alexander and Kim (2013) and Wang (2004) may be attributable to the nature of the organisation or setting in which their participants were volunteering.
Using data on Italian religious service volunteers, Cappellari, Ghinetti and Turati (2011) showed that altruistic motives have a significant impact on volunteers’ willingness to donate their time for volunteering activities. Carpenter and Myers’ (2010) research on volunteer fire-fighters in Vermont, USA, revealed that altruistic motives are positively related to the probability of wanting to become a volunteer fire-fighter. A study of 116 AIDS volunteers by Omoto and Snyder (1995) indicated that self-oriented motivations were related to the duration of volunteering, while altruistic motivations did not have a direct effect on volunteers’ length of service. These findings were in contrast to Penner and Finkelstein’s (1998) study that also used AIDS volunteers as a sample. They found altruistic motives predicted time spent and that self-oriented motives did not. Meier and Stutzer (2008) studied the relationship between life satisfaction and volunteering by measuring intrinsic motivation, and the relative importance people attach to intrinsic goals (family and friends) and extrinsic goals (career and income) in life satisfaction. They found that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations help to explain volunteerism, but only intrinsic motivation has a significant positive impact on life satisfaction. The same applies to caregiver volunteers in HIV/AIDS NPOs in South Africa who were motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Akintola 2010). A summary of studies on volunteer motives and their findings is presented in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Past research on motives and findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Motivational factors examined</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boezeman and Ellemers (2009)</td>
<td>Autonomy and relatedness needs</td>
<td>Autonomy and relatedness needs were positively related to volunteers’ job satisfaction, and indirectly and positively associated with volunteers’ intentions to remain in their positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bang and Ross (2009)</td>
<td>Six motives for international sport</td>
<td>Expression of values, career orientation and love of sport predicted volunteer satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornelis, Van Hiel, and De Cremer (2013)</td>
<td>All of the VFI scales</td>
<td>Self-oriented motivations predicted doing what was expected by youth development volunteers but both self-oriented and other-oriented motivations predicted going beyond what was expected (extra-role behaviours) and satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finkelstein (2007)</td>
<td>Six functional motives</td>
<td>Satisfaction was positively associated with all motives except career and protective motives. In addition, satisfaction correlated positively with amount of time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The essence of motive fulfilment as the term is used in this study is built around the view that when reasons (motives) for volunteering are met, they will result in one or more favourable workplace outcomes. Motive fulfilment is different from motive. Motive, in terms of the functional approach used by Clary et al. (1998), describes the function or reason a volunteer has decided to give his/her time for unpaid activities in an organisation. As such, when the reason (motive) has been achieved, it is referred to as motive fulfilment. In other words, motive fulfilment, specifically in the context of volunteerism, refers to a state where the volunteer feels his/her reason for volunteering has been met. Such reasons could be one or a combination of the following:

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

The present work uses motive fulfilment as a mediator of the influence of POS and LMX on the three workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). Motive fulfilment consists of the elements stated above, which are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Motives/Reasons</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jacobson, Carlton and Monroe (2012)</td>
<td>Seven primary motives for nature-based volunteering</td>
<td>Positive correlations between motives and satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwok, Chui and Wong (2013)</td>
<td>Intrinsic and extrinsic.</td>
<td>Found empirical evidence for altruistic and egoistic motives. Intrinsic motivation was positively related to life satisfaction and need satisfaction, while need satisfaction was significantly correlated not only with life satisfaction but also with extrinsic motivation. Volunteer need satisfaction was found to mediate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love et al. (2011)</td>
<td>Six functional motives</td>
<td>Motives related to altruism, career and golf interest predicted volunteer satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omoto, Snyder, and Hackett (2010)</td>
<td>Other-oriented motivation was a stronger predictor than self-oriented motivation of AIDS volunteers’ frequency in activism and general civic engagement.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Stukas et al. (2016)</td>
<td>Six functional motives</td>
<td>All six functions predicted volunteer motivation, activities and work outcomes.</td>
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### 3.5 Motive fulfilment
The essence of motive fulfilment as the term is used in this study is built around the view that when reasons (motives) for volunteering are met, they will result in one or more favourable workplace outcomes. Motive fulfilment is different from motive. Motive, in terms of the functional approach used by Clary et al. (1998), describes the function or reason a volunteer has decided to give his/her time for unpaid activities in an organisation. As such, when the reason (motive) has been achieved, it is referred to as motive fulfilment. In other words, motive fulfilment, specifically in the context of volunteerism, refers to a state where the volunteer feels his/her reason for volunteering has been met. Such reasons could be one or a combination of the following:

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

The present work uses motive fulfilment as a mediator of the influence of POS and LMX on the three workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). Motive fulfilment consists of the elements stated above, which are
values (altruism) and egoistic (understanding, enhancement, social, career and protective) motives. Motive fulfilment in this study is used to refer to the meeting of the needs which induced the volunteer to work for the organisation, and the consequences for the volunteer and their organisation. As indicated in Section 1.3, motive fulfilment is used as a mediator in this study. The essence of motive fulfilment, as opposed to motives, follows from Clary et al. (1998) who investigated how motives influence volunteering decision, and what happens if these motives are met or fulfilled. This study seeks to determine the consequences of the fulfilment of each of the six motives on volunteers’ workplace outcomes through POS and LMX in community NPOs in Queensland.

In the context of volunteerism, the functional approach examines the consequence of motive fulfilment on volunteerism (Mannino, Snyder & Omoto 2011). The functional approach, considered from the perspective of motive fulfilment, seeks to understand how people identify their motivations for volunteering, how they seek opportunities that fulfil those motives, and how they sustain their involvement over time (Snyder & Omoto 2000). This further explains why the functional approach is used in this study as it not only addresses the question of what motives make people seek to volunteer but also investigates the consequences of motive fulfilment for the volunteer and by extension the organisation for which he/she volunteers.

According to Mannino, Snyder and Omoto (2011), motivation is a dispositional factor in volunteerism, and it is also linked to the nature of volunteering activities, as well as their sustainability. The discussion of motive fulfilment in the literature focuses on two types of outcomes which are polar opposites, in that if volunteering activities are satisfying, this will result in a commitment to the organisation for a long time (Finkelstein 2008), whereas if there is dissatisfaction with the volunteering activities because of lack of motive fulfilment, this will result in a turnover (Gazley 2012). People’s initial motives are important, not only in initiating volunteer activities, but also in helping volunteers to determine the nature of their experiences as volunteers, depending on whether the motives are met or unmet.

As stated by Snyder, Clary and Stukas (2000), the extent to which an individual’s volunteer motivational concerns give him/her satisfaction will determine if the
individual will derive satisfaction from his/her time spent volunteering and their commitment to continuing as a volunteer. This view is echoed in an earlier publication by Clary and Snyder (1999). They state that the extent to which functional motives are fulfilled by the opportunities made available in the organisation in which volunteering is taking place influences the alignment between individual motives and an organisation, and the commitment to continue participation in the organisation (Clary & Snyder 1999). The above arguments are consistent with Homans’ (1961) explanation of the importance of resources exchange in terms of determining the response from the recipient.

In view of the argument above, the literature has suggested three stages of the volunteering process within an organisation. These are: the antecedent stage, the experience stage and consequence stage (Davis, Hall and Meyer 2003; Omoto & Snyder 1995). The antecedent stage includes the importance of the various motives for volunteering, the experience stage consists of the degree of fulfilment of the motives (which in this case can be any or combination of the six motives listed in Section 3.4.1) and the consequence stage consists of the possible positive workplace outcomes such as involvement, time spent volunteering and length of service (Davis, Hall and Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2008). Since volunteers’ obligations to the organisations are not bound by monetary contracts, the experience stage becomes very important because it determines the volunteers’ involvement and continuity. According to Omoto and Snyder (1995), because volunteers’ future behaviour (the experience stage) largely depends on the relationship between the volunteer and the organisation, factors within the organisation and the match between the volunteer benefits and the individual's personal and social motives will have a direct effect on the length of time spent volunteering. This is consistent with SET – that is, the continuation of positive behaviour depends on whether previous behaviour has yielded a reward or benefit.

Several studies on volunteers have reported a significant positive relationship between the importance of various motives and the degree to which each motive is fulfilled. For example, Davis Hall and Meyer’s (2003) test of the volunteer process model includes a link between motives for helping and their fulfilment. They found that the strongest predictor of each fulfilment (such as fulfilment of the altruistic motive) was the initial
importance of that same (altruistic) motive. In addition, Finkelstein’s (2008) study of volunteers at a hospice NPO in the south-eastern United States found that each motive for volunteering positively predicted the extent to which it was fulfilled. For example, the values motive was best predicted by values motive fulfilment and the enhancement motive was predicted by enhancement fulfilment.

These studies indicate that people seek out activities that are likely to fulfil their strongly held motives first and the fulfilment, in turn, influences positive workplace outcomes. This is also one of the focal points of Homans’ (1961) value proposition discussed previously in Section 2.2.

Davis Hall and Meyer (2003) and Pearce (1993) suggest that the motivation to volunteer will be a better predictor of the initial decision to undertake an action such as volunteering, but the fulfilment of motives will be a better predictor of volunteers’ future behaviours in the organisation because fulfilment results in more satisfied volunteers. In line with this view, the focus of this study is on the role of motive fulfilment as an intervening variable or a mediator among other possible organisational variables that affect volunteers’ workplace outcomes. However, fulfilment cannot be determined without uncovering the underlying motives. Hence, the six functional motives volunteering serves will be assessed in order to determine whether each motive for volunteering significantly predicts its corresponding motive fulfilment that will be tested as mediator. Therefore, the hypotheses are:

**Hypothesis 1a:** The values motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the values motive.

**1b:** The understanding motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of understanding motive.

**1c:** The enhancement motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of enhancement motive.

**1d:** The career motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of career motive.

**1e:** The social motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of social motive.

**1f:** The protective motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of protective motive.
Hypotheses 1a-1f will only be tested with correlation coefficients because they are antecedents of motive fulfilment – they do not represent the main focus of this study regarding the mediating variables and are thus not represented in the model (Figure 3.1).

3.6 Motive fulfilment as a mediator

Volunteer experiences in the organisation have been suggested as an important factor which could influence motive fulfilment. According to Penner (2002), volunteers’ perceptions about how they are treated in the organisation and the organisation management practices impact on their volunteering behaviour. Thus, organisations’ policies and the nature of relationships in organisations are all factors that may determine whether volunteer motives are fulfilled. Hence, Brudney (1999) and Wilson (2000) state that volunteering takes place, not only on account of motivation but also because of organisational support. In this regard, Dwiggins-Beeler, Spitzberg and Roesch (2011) and Penner (2002) argue that organisational variables (such as POS or LMX) or dispositional variables (such as motive fulfilment) alone may not fully explain volunteers’ workplace outcomes. Consequently, Penner (2002) suggests that dispositional variables can be mediators in the relationship between organisational variables and workplace outcomes, or organisational variables can mediate the impact of dispositional variables on workplace outcomes. Thus, there is a need to look at the interactive consequences of these variables but in the context of this study, the focus will be on dispositional variables (motive fulfilment) as mediators in the relationship between the independent variables (POS and LMX) and workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). This is a gap in the literature that needs to be researched.

An intervening variable can act as a mediator or moderator. The moderator determines ‘when’ or for ‘whom’ a variable causes an outcome (Frazier, Tix & Barron 2004, p. 116). That is, a moderator indicates under what conditions the independent variable can affect the determined variable. It “affects the direction and strength of the relation between independent variable and dependent variable” (Baron & Kenny 1986, p. 1174). On the other hand, mediation is said to occur when a third variable serves as a transmitter for the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007). Hence, the use of a mediator enables the examiner
to investigate by what means the independent variable exerts its effect on the dependent variable (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007). Based on these differences between mediators and moderators, a volunteer’s motive fulfilment (the fulfilment of each of the motives such as value, understanding, enhancement, career, social and protective motives) in this case, will be considered as a mediator of the relationship between POS and LMX, and volunteer workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay).

In line with Baron and Kenny (1986), volunteers’ motive fulfilment will be regarded as a mediator in this study as there is a possibility its elements (fulfilment of values, understanding, enhancement, career, social protective motives) will affect the established relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Evidence of relationships between the independent and dependent variables, as well as between the mediating and dependent variables, have already been established in the literature. For example, Bang (2007) finds significant relationships between LMX and the affective commitment of volunteers. In addition, Shiva and Suar’s (2010) study of paid staff in NPOs shows similar results. Farmer and Fedor’s (1999) study of an NPO in New York found that POS was associated with volunteer participation. In addition, from the literature reviewed (see Penner & Finkelstein 1998; Omoto & Snyder 1995; Pearce 1993), there are indications that each of the elements of motive fulfilment has a vital influence on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Hence, fulfilment of motives could also affect the direct impact of POS and LMX on work outcomes.

Furthermore, the processes through which the independent variables affect dependent variables need more clarification in order to deepen the understanding of the exchange processes of volunteers. Volunteering has been described as a means of exchanging time and effort for the fulfilment of personal needs (Clary et al. 1998). This means that in the concept of SET, motives play a major role in influencing volunteers’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. In this study, in line with Dwiggins-Beeler, Spitzberg and Roesch’s (2011) and Penner’s (2002) suggestions, in the volunteer exchange process, volunteers’ motive fulfilment will be considered as an intervening or a mediating variable between POS, and LMX and job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay.
3.7 Work outcomes and hypotheses

In this section, work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay will be discussed in relation to the independent variables (POS and LMX) and the interactive variable (motive fulfilment) in order to develop the hypotheses in this study. While hypotheses 1a-1f above are used to show the relationships between motives and motive fulfilment, the hypotheses in this section are used to test the relationships between the independent variables (POS and LMX), the dependent variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to stay) and the mediating variable (motive fulfilment, representing fulfilment of each of the motives listed in Section 3.5).

3.7.1 Volunteer job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one’s job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfilment of one’s important job values, providing the values are compatible with one’s needs” (Locke 1976, p. 1304). Job satisfaction is a concern among organisational psychologists as it is associated positively with productivity and negatively with absenteeism in the workplace (Lo Presti 2013). It is an attitudinal variable that describes the feeling of an individual about his/her job (Chiboiwa, Chipunza & Samuel 2011; Knights & Kennedy 2005; Samuel, Osinowo & Chipunza 2009). This involves a reflection of the present and past experiences of the work environment (Locke 1976).

According to Gidron (1983) and Herzberg (1966), there are two fundamental components of job satisfaction. The first one is satisfaction with the communication context in terms of organisational support (e.g. training and supervision), integration (e.g. belongingness, staff relations, and acknowledgement), and information (e.g. face-to-face interaction, recognition, and information dissemination). The second component is satisfaction with the organisational context regarding the nature of the work assignment (e.g. time, location, and job fit), participation efficacy (e.g. meaningful content and measurable outcomes), and sense of empowerment (e.g. actualisation, and autonomy).
Volunteers’ perceptions of job satisfaction are based on the fulfilment of those motives that have motivated them to participate in volunteering. For example, volunteers’ job satisfaction is characterised as the level to which the support provided by the organisation meets their motives (Jiménez & Fuertes 2005; Okun & Eisenberg 1992). As such, the level of job satisfaction experienced by both altruistic and materially-motivated volunteers will depend on the extent to which the volunteer organisation fulfils their motives.

Past studies have identified the job satisfaction of volunteers as an outcome of volunteer experiences (Cuskelley, Hoye & Auld, 2006; Rioux & Penner 2001) and satisfaction has also been linked to time spent volunteering, longevity of service, and intention to continue volunteering (Finkelstein 2007; Omoto & Snyder 1995). When volunteers evaluate their experiences against their expectations and notice that there are discrepancies between them, there will be job dissatisfaction (Farrell, Johnson & Twynam 1998) and this could result in them leaving the organisation.

Job satisfaction in the workplace has received significant attention because it has been found to predict relevant workplace outcome variables (Chiboiwa, Chipunza & Samuel 2011; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002). For instance, job satisfaction has been found to significantly relate to turnover and withdrawal behaviour (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002). Underscoring the importance of satisfaction to volunteers, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991, p. 281) argue that “people will continue to volunteer as long as the experience as a whole is rewarding and satisfying”. For example, as stated previously, volunteers’ experiences in the organisation have been found to influence their levels of job satisfaction. The main factors influencing job satisfaction include organisational support, participation efficacy, empowerment, and group integration (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002). Organisational experiences that result in mutual understanding and reciprocal rewards also influence job satisfaction (Silverberg, Marshall & Ellis 2001).

Volunteers’ sources of satisfaction have been linked to several other factors such as the opportunities to expand one’s social network, be part of an event, achieve job competence or experience (Elstad 1996) and experience social interaction (Pearce 1993). Opportunity to expand one’s network (Elstad 1996) is consistent with the notion
of relatedness needs in the studies of Boezeman and Ellemers (2009) and Barraket et al. (2013). In the same vein, Pearce (1993) maintains that volunteers are more likely to experience job satisfaction and intention to stay in their organisation when volunteering gives them opportunities to interact socially, and when their services benefit others in the community. In Osborn’s (2008, p. 85) study of volunteers in NPOs organisations in South Australia and the Northern Territory, he found that “volunteers talked about the importance of feeling that they were part of a team, treated as equals, and consulted about policy matters”. In sum, volunteers’ job satisfaction is influenced by a range of factors which include motive fulfilment and experiences in the organisation.

3.7.1.1 POS as an antecedent of volunteers’ job satisfaction
POS theorists (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002) posit that employees’ socio-emotional needs such as emotional support, affiliation, esteem and approval are best met through the support provided by the organisation. This means that POS serves as a means by which organisations provide resources that meet employees’ needs which are not met by financial rewards. Thus, the nature of the exchange relationships between workers and the organisation affects workers’ work outcomes.

POS is important in the consideration of volunteer relationships with an organisation because the relationships are based on relational contracts (Farmer & Fedor 1999) which do not involve financial exchanges. Thus, it is expected that the perceptions of POS will serve as a relational currency in return for their contributions, and that this will motivate volunteers to reciprocate.

The fulfilment of socio-emotional needs by the organisation increases employees’ overall job satisfaction and affective commitment (Armeli et al. 1998; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). Apart from POS contributing to overall job satisfaction through the fulfilment of socio-emotional needs, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) posit that it also serves as the employee’s indicator of the organisation’s willingness to provide aid when needed.

The assumption that the occurrence of expected exchanges in terms of harmonious relationships between the organisation and paid employees engender job satisfaction
has been researched extensively. For example, Paillé, Grima and Dufour’s (2012) study of public service employees found a positive relationship between POS and job satisfaction. A meta-analysis of paid employees by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found a strong relationship between POS and job satisfaction. However, the impact of POS in the context of volunteers remains relatively unexplored. One of the few exceptions is Farmer and Fedor’s (1999) study of an NPO in New York. They found that volunteers who reported high levels of organisational support were satisfied in their jobs and participated more than those who reported little support. Also, as reported by Lo Presti (2013), Guntert and Wehner (2008) interviewed 900 volunteers in Switzerland and found job satisfaction was positively associated with organisational support and the levels of information the volunteer received. Empirical evidence of POS in the context of volunteers is still very limited in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Hence, there is a need for more research to test the effectiveness of POS in influencing volunteers’ job satisfaction in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 2:** Volunteers’ perceived organisational support is positively related to their job satisfaction.

### 3.7.1.2 Motive fulfilment as mediator between POS and job satisfaction

As indicated in the section above, employees who receive the emotional support they need are more likely to experience job satisfaction. This is in line with Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) and Rousseau and McLead-Parks’ (1993) findings that an organisation that fulfils its employees’ socio-emotional needs shows it values and care for the employee’s wellbeing, and this creates a feeling in the employee that they have an obligation to reciprocate with greater levels of work performance. Referring to Gouldner’s (1960) and Homans’ (1961) argument, the value of the benefit and its relevance increases the obligation to reciprocate. Applying this to volunteers, and in line with Clary et al.’s (1998) statement that individuals volunteer to satisfy specific needs or functional motives, it can be argued that a volunteer’s perception of favourable treatment will be based on the desire to satisfy socio-emotional needs which fulfil functional motives. As such, to increase volunteers’ feelings that they have an obligation to reciprocate, an organisation must first create an environment that supports and serves their functional motives. For example, Clary et al. (1989) found
that volunteers who received benefits that met their functional motives were more satisfied with volunteering than those who received fewer important benefits, and those who received benefits that were of no importance to them. This is an indication that in the case of volunteers, resources should be used selectively in meeting their six functional motives – for them to feel that the organisation cares for them and values their contributions.

To clarify the role of motive fulfilment, in their longitudinal study of 238 community volunteers in the US, Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003) use a more elaborate model that includes mediating variables such as the fulfilment of altruistic and egoistic motives. Apart from finding a significant relationship between the fulfilment of motives and volunteer satisfaction, the study also showed that the fulfilment of both types of motives mediated the relationship between the antecedents (dispositional empathy and motivation) and outcomes. The inclusion of other variables to determine how antecedent variables linked with the outcomes deepened the understanding of the exchange process (Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003).

Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003) confirmed the possible mediating role of motive fulfilment between independent variables and workplace outcomes. However, the variables investigated were different from the ones in the present study. In the present study, the effect of the fulfilment of six volunteer motives as mediators between POS and job satisfaction in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia will be tested with the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3**: Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and job satisfaction.

### 3.7.1.3 LMX as an antecedent of volunteers’ job satisfaction

Evidence from past literature confirms that LMX relationships have a direct impact on employees’ job satisfaction (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto 2007, Stringer 2006; Mardanov, Sterrett & Baker 2007). The meta-analysis of LMX by Dulebohn et al. (2012) supports the view that LMX has a significant influence on a variety of attitudinal and behavioural workplace outcomes. Based on SET, employees’ perceptions of support, trust and other tangible and intangible benefits from their managers, result in obligations to
reciprocate (Gouldner 1960). The availability of both tangible and intangible benefits results in high-quality LMX relationships, which in turn leads to job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day 1997; Erdogan & Enders 2007). For example, Erdogan and Enders (2007) confirmed that employees in high-quality LMX relationships are more satisfied than those in low-quality relationships. This means employees in low-quality relationships are likely to be the least satisfied with their jobs.

Bang (2011) assessed the impact of LMX on job satisfaction and intention to stay from the perspective of leaders and followers among sports volunteers in America. The study found that the quality of LMX influences volunteers’ satisfaction and intention to stay. Thus, in this study, it is expected that high-quality supervisor–volunteer relationships will be positively related to job satisfaction for volunteers working in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Hence the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 4:** LMX is positively related to volunteers’ job satisfaction.

### 3.7.1.4 Motive fulfilment as a mediator between LMX and job satisfaction

Volunteers’ job satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay are all work outcomes linked to volunteers’ motive fulfilment. Volunteers’ fulfilled motives, in the form of intrinsic rewards, increase their job satisfaction and encourage them to be committed and thus improve their performance (Lavelle 2010). Similarly, Davis Hall and Meyer (2003) confirmed that when volunteers get functionally significant benefits, particularly ones that address their motives for volunteering, they are most likely to be satisfied. Previous literature using SET has indicated that volunteers in high-quality LMX are more satisfied (Bang 2011) and are more likely to be affectively committed.

As supervisors are regarded as the representatives of the organisation, Chaudhry and Tekleab (2013) state that contributions by leaders which fulfil employees’ expectations will result in positive employee feelings regarding the quality of their relationships with the leaders and the organisations. With regard to LMX as a construct of SET, it is argued that the resources provided by employees and managers will influence the quality of the relationship. The relationship will be influenced because the greater the value of the resources given to the employee, the higher the employee will rate the
quality of the relationship (Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997). In the context of volunteering in community NPOs in Queensland, this occurs if what the supervisor provides aligns with the volunteers’ motives.

There have been consistent results showing significant links between LMX and job satisfaction. An examination of 27 studies of LMX by Gerstner and Day (1997) revealed that there is a significant association between employees’ job satisfaction and their relationships with their supervisors. Also, both workplace self-esteem (Pierce et al. 1989) and autonomy (Deci, Connell and Ryan 1989; Fried 1991) which are driven by high-quality relationships between employees and their supervisors have been found to be significantly related to employee job satisfaction. However, there is a lack of an explanation about the relationship between LMX and work outcomes (Karrasch 2003). Some studies have argued that “LMX may not exert a direct impact on workplace outcomes” (Cheung & Wu 2012, p. 65) because of the possibility of a mediating variable, which in this case may be fulfilment of the volunteer’s motive. For example, Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) found that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between LMX quality on the one hand and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job performance on the other. Accordingly, there is a need to investigate the means by which LMX as an independent variable affects workplace outcomes (dependent variables) such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay.

Therefore, as variously stated above, volunteers’ motive fulfilment is an essential building block of LMX relationships, and in line with the related argument of Hepperlen (2002), they should also be expected to mediate the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction. In other words, the fulfilment of the six functional motive of volunteers will impact on LMX’s influence on job satisfaction in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. In the present study, the following hypothesis is therefore formulated:

Hypothesis 5: Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and job satisfaction.
3.7.2 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is a reflection of an individual's psychological attachment to their organisation and is an indication of “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation” (Mowday, Steers & Porter 1979, p. 226) that develops over time as the exchange relationship progresses. According to Engelberg, Zakus and Skinner (2007), insights into the nature of the linkages between the individual and the organisation, conceptualised as organisational commitment, can be traced back to the early studies of Kelman (1956), Etzioni (1961) and Kanter (1968). However, the theoretical distinction between attitudinal and behavioural commitment by Mowday, Porter and Steer (1982) is commonly used in the literature. Attitudinal commitment is described as the employee’s bond with the organisation that reflects his/her identification with that organisation (Mishra 2005). Attitudinal commitment is also referred to as a psychological state that indicates an employee’s relationship with his/her organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990). Behavioural commitment is clear manifestation of such behaviour (Mowday, Steers & Porter 1979) and an examples is commitment to extra attendance, or behaviour that is referred to as engaging in behaviours beyond those assigned by the organisation (Omoruyi, Chipunza & Michael 2011). In summary, both attitudinal and behavioural commitments define the psychological state that reflects the nature of the individual commitment to the organisation.

Commitment is a desirable attitude which every organisation seeks to encourage because of its positive effects on the organisation’s efficiency. Commitment is believed to reduce absenteeism, reduce turnover intention and increase positive contributions to the organisation. In addition, committed individuals are likely to participate in organisational activities wholeheartedly, thereby contributing to the goals and success of the organisation. The level to which employees are committed in the organisation is used to differentiate between those who intend to stay and those who intend to leave (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000), and it describes volunteers’ willingness to dedicate more time and effort to the organisation’s activities. This finding has been supported by empirical studies that have shown how organisational commitment or lack thereof can predict a broad range of work attitudes and behaviours such as loyalty (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001), job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001). Non-commitment has been associated with
stress, tardiness, low levels of morale, and withdrawal behaviours (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran 2005; DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Farrell & Stamm 1988; Porter et al. 1974). In addition, Mowday Porter and Steer (1982) argue that non-committed employees may not present a good image of the organisation to the community. This will have more effect on community NPOs who mainly recruit from the community through word of mouth.

Employees’ commitment has been categorised as affective commitment, continuance commitment or normative commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990). Affective commitment has been described as the degree to which an employee is emotionally attached to, identified with, and believes in the organisational goals (Allen & Meyer 1990; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton 2003). Continuance commitment has been defined as the perceived cost associated with leaving the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990); that is, the employee is committed because of what it would cost him/her to leave the organisation (in the form of investment or limited alternative jobs). Normative commitment takes place as a result of felt obligation; that is, employees feel they ought to remain in the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990). A comparative study by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) suggests that affective commitment relates more positively to on-the-job performance than normative and continuance commitment. This was supported by the findings of a study by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) in which the positive correlation between affective commitment and low turnover, absenteeism, high job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour were higher than others. In addition, affective commitment has been found to be the most consistent predictor of turnover (Somers 1995), and it has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Knights & Kennedy 2005). Affective commitment is considered to be the most important type of commitment among volunteers (van Vuuren, de Jong, & Seydel 2008). Given the aforementioned influence of affective commitment on various workplace outcomes, this study will focus on the affective commitment of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia as opposed to normative and continuance commitment.

As indicated above, employees who are affectively committed to the organisation usually have a strong affiliation with, and are loyal to, the organisation (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001). This means that volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia who are emotionally attached to their organisation will be more
engaged in organisational activities. For example, both Penner and Finkelstein (1998) and Grube and Piliavin (2000) found a significant positive association between organisational commitment and the number of hours per week volunteers reported working in organisations.

An employee’s behaviour is most likely to be influenced by their emotional attachment to the organisation (Allen & Meyer 1990). By implication, affectively committed volunteers are more likely to align their goals with the organisation’s goals and exhibit behaviours that are in line with the organisation’s policies and goals (Shum, Bove & Auh 2008). For this reason, affectively committed volunteers are more likely to remain with the organisation in order to help it achieve its goals (Suliman & Illes 2000) and are likely to be absent from work less often. Therefore, community NPOs with emotionally committed volunteers are more likely to have lower rates of turnover. The positive effects of affective commitment can help the organisation in terms of recruitment and retention of their volunteers. Past literature on for-profit organisations (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001) and NPOs (Grube & Piliavin 2000; Penner & Finkelstein 1998) has shown that affective commitment is negatively related to turnover intention.

3. 7.2.1 POS as an antecedent of volunteers’ affective commitment

The perception by an employee that they are receiving support from their organisation will result in a positive mood and a “felt obligation to care about the organisation’s welfare and help the organisation to reach its objectives” (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001, p. 825; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). Using the notion of the norm of reciprocity, when an organisation relates to its employee well regarding access to resources and respect, the employee is bound to reciprocate by working hard to improve organisational effectiveness (Brunetto et al. 2013). Over time, this could develop into emotional ties and a sense of unity with the organisation (Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006).

When POS is considered positively by employees, it elicits the feeling that their organisation is committed to them. This makes the employee emotionally attached or affectively committed to their organisation (Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006). Boezeman and Ellemers’ (2007) study of Dutch volunteers working in NPOs showed that the type of perceived organisational support (emotion-oriented and task-oriented
organisational support) was significantly related to respect for a volunteer organisation and indirectly and positively associated with organisational commitment through respect. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated to examine the relationship between POS and volunteers’ affective commitment to community NPOs in Queensland, Australia in the present study:

**Hypothesis 6**: Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to their affective commitment.

### 3.7.2.2 Motive fulfilment as a mediator between POS and volunteers' affective commitment

The importance of POS to the organisation has been extensively researched. Studies have shown the direct effects of POS on different positive workplace outcomes for employees such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay (Armeli et al. 1998; Brunetto et al. 2013; Eisenberger et al. 1986 & Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). However, research about the processes involved in these associations is relatively limited.

Analyses of the association between POS and affective commitment have mainly based their findings on employees’ general beliefs about the organisation’s value and care for their wellbeing. The pre-conditional aspect of POS regarding its fulfilment of the individual’s socio-emotional needs before influencing affective commitment has received less focus (Lee & Peccei 2007). Hence, this study intends to fill this gap by emphasising the role of motive fulfilment which has been identified as a need that is important to volunteers, and which, if satisfied, results in affective commitment.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), employees are psychologically fulfilled when organisations provide them with rewards that meet the needs they consider necessary. Continuous exchanges of rewards will result in employees developing real emotional links with the organisation due to increased feelings of psychological fulfilment. This has been indicated in several other studies. For example, Armeli et al. (1998), Eisenberger et al. (1986), and Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) state that when POS fulfils employees' socio-emotional needs such as approval, self-esteem and affiliation, this results in increased emotional attachment to the organisation. In this way, the
positive impact of POS on affective commitment depends on the extent to which important socio-emotional needs are fulfilled. On the other hand, volunteers’ commitment has been associated with the fulfilment of their motives. Thus, in the case of volunteers who are not financially rewarded, socio-emotional need fulfilment will be determined by the extent to which the rewards match their reasons for volunteering. Therefore, POS is expected to be an antecedent of motive fulfilment.

Studies that have focused on the role of need fulfilment have found that it partially mediates the association between POS and affective commitment. However, these findings were based on certain kinds of needs. For example, Lee and Peccei (2007) found organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) is partially mediated by the relationship between POS and the affective commitment of paid employees. Based on this, it is expected that the impact of POS on affective commitment will be mediated by the fulfilment of socio-emotional needs which in this case are volunteer motives. To test this in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 7:** Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and affective commitment.

### 3.7.2.3 LMX as an antecedent of volunteers’ affective commitment

Past research suggests that affective commitment is influenced by the quality of supervisor–employee relationships (Gerstner & Day 1997). Clary (2004) found that for volunteers the experience of high-quality LMX results in an increased sense of belonging to the organisation – increasing the likelihood that they will remain devoted to their organisations in the long term. Similarly, Krishnan (2005) emphasises the need for a good relationship between the supervisor and the volunteer – for the volunteer to keep on working with the supervisor. This is mainly because high-quality LMX provides greater access to information sharing, respect, friendship, negotiated role responsibilities, participative decision-making (Mueller & Lee 2002; Shiva & Suar 2010) and access to more resources and privileges (Brunetto et al. 2013). All of these characteristics are important in volunteer working environments as they contribute to the development of healthy interpersonal relationships.
Previous studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment of paid employees (Dulebohn et al. 2012), such as nurses (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto 2007; Nelson 2012). In NPOs, LMX influences organisational commitment (Shiva & Suar 2010), satisfaction and intention to stay (Bang 2011). In Australia, Hoye’s (2004) study of LMX and the performances of voluntary sport organisation boards found that higher quality LMX was associated with higher levels of board performance.

However, there is still a limited amount of empirical research examining the relationship between volunteers’ LMX and affective commitment in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 8**: LMX is positively related to volunteers’ affective commitment.

**3.7.2.4 Motive fulfilment as a mediator between volunteers’ LMX and affective commitment**

Supervisor support can increase employees’ affective commitment, which in turn will promote other positive work outcomes such as low turnover intentions and satisfaction. According to previous research, there is a negative and significant relationship between the affective commitment of employees to their supervisors or managers and intention to leave the organisation (see Becker 1992; Lee & Olshfski 2002; Landry, Panaccio & Vandenberghe 2010). Since LMX theory is used to explain the quality of the dyadic relationships between supervisors and followers, it is likely that those individuals who receive resources that fulfil their motives will reciprocate with positive outcomes such as affective commitment. Therefore, motive fulfilment is expected to mediate the relationship between LMX and work outcomes. For example, in Hepperlen’s (2002) study, basic psychological need fulfilment was found to mediate the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction and between LMX and affective well-being. Although Hepperlen’s (2002) study shows the mediating role of needs fulfilment, it is not enough to draw conclusions about its influence on the association between LMX and affective commitment. In light of these findings, coupled with Bennett and Barkensjo’s (2005) assertion about the mediating role of volunteer motives, the following hypothesis about the mediating impact of motive fulfilment on
the relationship between high-quality LMX and volunteers’ affective commitment in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia, is formulated:

**Hypothesis 9:** Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and affective commitment.

### 3.7.3 Intention to stay

Apart from job satisfaction and affective commitment, factors affecting volunteers’ continuity have also been of concern to organisational psychologists (Clary & Snyder 1998; Omoto & Snyder 1995) because of the possibility that what make them start volunteering may not be what makes them remain with the organisation. Behavioural intention is one of the factors that has been identified that could help us to understand volunteers’ continuity or intention to remain with the organisation. According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 5), intention is “a measure of the likelihood that a person will engage in a given behaviour” that could either be to leave or remain. Intention to remain is defined as an individual’s conscious plan to keep serving as a volunteer (Blau & Holladay 2006) while the intention to leave is a subjective probability that an individual will leave the organisation within a certain period of time” (Zhao et al. 2007, p. 651). A volunteer’s intention to remain is linked to his or her feeling of satisfaction derived from his organisation’s fulfilment of his expectations. Such fulfilment could be a result of receiving rewards that meet his needs or motives for volunteering.

Similar to commitment, intention to stay is an accurate reflection of the psychological state of the individual concerned. Intention to stay has been found to be a significant predictor of longevity or permanence (de León & Fuertes 2007), while the intention to leave has been found to be an important predictor of turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000; Steel & Ovalle 1984). Many studies of paid employees have focused on turnover and have used turnover intentions as a substitute for actual turnover (Price 2001), which is a term used to denote employees leaving their organisations voluntarily (Pearson 1995). Although factors such as relocation, health problems, work demands, and being employed full-time may cause a volunteer’s actual turnover, it could also be as a result of unmet motives and job dissatisfaction.
According to Penner (2002) and Taylor et al. (2006) volunteers’ relationships with the organisation and its agents are among the factors that affect how long they will stay with the organisation. Other studies have identified different factors such as differences between expectations and real experiences (Kim et al. 2009), relationships with other staff, working conditions (Hidalgo & Moreno 2009; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt 1971), job design (Hidalgo & Moreno 2009; Miller, Powell & Seltzer 1990), empowerment (Kim, Chelladurai and Trail 2007) and opportunities for positive peer interaction (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008) as determinants of intentions to stay or to leave. Moreover, job satisfaction and affective commitment have also been identified as factors that affect individuals’ behavioural intentions in studies of both paid employees and volunteers.

Intention to stay is usually associated with low rates of absenteeism – culminating in high retention rates (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000) and these outcomes benefit the organisation by reducing the cost of recruitment and training. Being able to retain volunteers also reduces the negative impacts of turnover intentions, which are devastating for NPOs because they depend on volunteers due to a lack of sufficient financial resources, unlike for-profit organisations which have the resources needed to hire employees when the need arises. Also, intentions to stay reduce the loss of volunteers who have acquired relevant knowledge and experience that will impact on the organisation’s effectiveness and efficiency. Therefore, understanding the factors that influence retention are important for managers of volunteers because it will enable them to develop appropriate policies to enhance recruitment and retention.

3.7.3.1 POS as an antecedent of volunteers’ intention to stay
Based on the analysis of motivational theory, it can be expected that volunteers will leave an organisation if their motives for volunteering are not fulfilled or if they have disappointing experiences in the organisation. According to Penner (2002), volunteers’ perceptions of the treatment they receive from their organisation are one of the variables that affects their experiences. This has been established in the literature, with several findings showing that the way an organisation treats its volunteers determines how long they will stay with the organisation. For example, Osborn’s (2008) study of volunteers in South Australia and the Northern Territory found bad
management, boredom, or personality clashes with other volunteers or new staff affect their continuity. The main issues reported by most (95%) of the participants in Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace’s (2009) study of emergency volunteers regarding why they might consider leaving (turnover intention) their chosen organisation were largely LMX- and POS-related problems. The volunteers or participants in their study listed conflict within the unit or brigade in which they were volunteering, poor leadership displayed by paid emergency response professionals and lack of equipment (Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace 2009) as factors that might result in their intention to quit the organisation. This is consistent with Rogers et al. (1999) who investigated the quality of the work life of volunteers by surveying 21 managers of volunteer programs in Australia. Their findings revealed that negative experiences of volunteering usually occur as a result of mismatches between what the organisation gives and what the volunteers expect, or a situation where their expectations are not met. While all these studies have focused on intention to quit, this study adopts the alternative approach of examining factors that enhance volunteers’ intentions to stay.

As indicated by Baard, Deci and Ryan (2004) and Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989), work conditions that facilitate the satisfaction of intrinsic needs contribute positively to psychological adjustment and intentions to remain. In contrast Rogers et al. (1999), state that volunteers’ unmet motives lead to high rates of turnover. This was confirmed by Barraket et al.’s (2013) study of spontaneous volunteers in Queensland. The study found that spontaneous volunteers who responded to Queensland disasters were more likely to work for more hours and days during the disaster period if they had previously had positive volunteering experiences. Also, they were the ones who were more likely to respond to other volunteering requests in the future. In other words, people whose past volunteering experiences were satisfactory will have no problem volunteering again when required (Barraket et al. 2013). This aligns with Homans’ argument that when a situation arises that is similar to a previous one, and if the original situation resulted in a behaviour which was rewarded, then the new situation is likely to result in the same behaviour (Homans 1961). Barraket’s finding demonstrates the importance of motives and experience in recruitment, and consideration of retention in volunteering.
Generally, organisational support in the form of adequate leadership, good quality relationships, social support, healthy levels of information and internal communication were listed as elements that reduce the risk of turnover among volunteers (Starnes & Wymer 2001). In light of this, and based on findings in a qualitative study of health and social care organisations in Ireland by MacNeela (2008), there is likely to be a high intention to continue if volunteers have positive experiences of their organisation. Based on this, the following hypothesis about the influence of POS on intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia, is formulated:

**Hypothesis 10:** Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to their intention to stay.

**3.7.3.2 Motive fulfilment as a mediator between volunteers’ POS and intention to stay**

As indicated above, the way an organisation commits to fulfilling its employees’ socio-emotional needs shows whether it cares about them. According to SET, volunteers will feel obliged to reciprocate actions that promote their overall wellbeing, (Blau 1964; Gouldner 1960). According to Clary (2004), people are more likely to volunteer if they believe their motives will be met by volunteering. Hence, if their goals are not met, they will become dissatisfied. Lack of motive fulfilment, therefore, will be an indication of an employer’s lack of care and support – a situation best described as an unbalanced exchange relationship between the volunteers and their organisations. According to Robinson and Rousseau (1994) and Rousseau (1989), such unbalanced exchange relationships result in resentment and mistrust, which will have a negative effect on job satisfaction. A dissatisfied volunteer is more likely to reduce involvement and consider leaving the organisation. In contrast, volunteers’ positive experiences will mean that they have been provided with tasks that match their needs, and a comfortable environment that supports the achievement of their goals.

In the context of paid employees, several studies have found significant relationships between POS and work outcomes. For example, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found a significant positive association between POS and intention to remain, while Allen, Shore and Griffeth (2003) found that POS reduces turnover intentions and
actual turnover. From this perspective, motive fulfilment, as well as perceived organisational support, are linked to volunteers’ high performance and intentions to stay. Therefore, if motive fulfilment is a major factor in volunteers’ judgments of the organisation’s support, then it will be expected to mediate the relationship between volunteers’ POS and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 11**: The association between POS and intention to stay will be mediated by volunteers’ motive fulfilment.

### 3.7.3.3 LMX as an antecedent of volunteers’ intention to stay

LMX is a relationship-centred theory used to explain the dyadic relationships between supervisors and followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). Several studies have found a positive association between LMX and work outcomes such as turnover intentions. However, there is insufficient research evidence related to the association between LMX and volunteers’ intention to stay.

LMX theorists posit that a supervisor’s behaviour can affect his followers’ attitudes and behaviours (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne 1997; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien 2001). This is possible because the relationship between a supervisor and his or her followers is regarded as one of the extrinsic factors that can influence entire work experiences in either a positive or a negative manner (Gerstner & Day 1997; Mardanov, Heischmidt & Henson 2008). Consequently, an employee’s unhappiness in the workplace could be as a result of an extrinsic factor such as a poor relationship between a supervisor and his subordinates. In such a case, the subordinate is more likely to consider leaving the organisation. The impacts of negative relationships between supervisors and subordinates have been empirically studied in the literature in which workplace outcomes, such as turnover intentions were high among employees who perceived their relationships with supervisors as being of a low standard (Harris, Kacmar & Witt 2005; Morrow et al. 2005).

Employees’ perceptions of the quality of LMX are determined by the support they receive from their supervisors in the form of information, respect, trust and
empowerment (Gerstner & Day 1997). Affective relationships which continue outside the organisation could evolve between the supervisor and those who believe they are receiving enough support. According to Wheeler et al. (2007), turnover will reduce – implying that intention to stay will increase – when employees experience high-quality LMX. This is consistent with Northouse’s (2001) findings in which fewer turnover intentions, greater organisational commitment and positive job attitudes were found to be related to high-quality LMX. Also, the quality of LMX was negatively related to turnover intention in the meta-analytic study of Gerstner and Day (1997) while Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) found LMX was negatively related to actual turnover. These results indicate that as the quality of LMX increases, intention to stay increases while turnover intention decreases.

High-quality LMX is characterised by the provision of resources that meet the physical and psychological needs of the supervisor’s subordinates. Hence, for unpaid employees (volunteers), it is expected that intention to stay will be high among those who experience high-quality LMX. Given the discussion above of LMX’s positive link to satisfaction and affective commitment, it is expected that high-quality LMX will increase volunteers’ intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**Hypothesis 12:** High-quality LMX is positively related to volunteers’ intention to stay.

### 3.7.3.4 Motive fulfilment as mediator between volunteers’ LMX and intention to stay

Omoto and Snyder (1995) found that satisfaction with the organisation was significantly associated with length of tenure as a volunteer. Employees’ immediate supervisors or managers are regarded as agents of the organisation. Their behaviours play significant roles in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours (Bhatnagar 2007; Joo 2010; Rousseau & Greller 1994; Tymon, Stumpf & Smith 2011; Whitener 2001), with the overall consequences showing in employee work outcomes such as the intention to continue with the organisation.

Research has consistently shown that there is a relationship between favourable perceptions of manager support and employee retention. For example, Cascio (2006)
refers to a study undertaken by Harter et al. (2002) in which employees were found to believe that their managers’ or supervisors’ encouragement of their development helped to reduce their turnover intentions. In the context of volunteering, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) and Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003) found that organisational satisfaction regarding motive fulfilment was associated with the amount of time spent working as a volunteer. Previous research has also shown that there is a positive and significant relationship between LMX and intention to continue (see Bang 2011). The above discussion indicates that there is a correlation between LMX and intention to stay. There is also evidence of a link between volunteer motive fulfilment and reduced turnover intentions (Lee, Alexander & Kim 2013; Van Dyne & Farmer 2004).

Apart from the inconsistencies indicated previously regarding the association between job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay, there are inconsistent findings relating to the link between LMX and turnover intention. For instance, some literature reports that there is a moderately negative correlation between the quality of LMX and turnover intention (Gerstner & Day 1997; Harris Kacmar & Witt 2005; Morrow et al. 2005). Other studies report a weak influence of LMX on turnover (Schyns, Torka & Gössling 2007; Vecchio & Norris 1996). This may suggest the possibility of an intervening variable such as motive fulfilment in the case of volunteering because intention to stay is said to increase if the volunteer perceives that his/her efforts have been appropriately rewarded. Therefore, it is plausible to suggest that that the fulfilment of the six functional volunteer motives will mediate LMX and work outcomes such as turnover intentions in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The following hypothesis is therefore formulated:

**Hypothesis 13:** Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and intention to stay.

The hypotheses shown above will be tested on volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The conceptual framework (Figure 3.1 below) was developed to illustrate the interactive relationships between the variables. The conceptual framework indicates the links between the independent variables (LMX and POS), the intervening variables (volunteers’ motive fulfilment) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). The blue and red thick arrows
indicate the direct relationships between the independent variables (POS and LMX) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). The indirect relationships are indicated with thinner arrows from the independent variables to the mediators (motive fulfilment) and from the mediators to the dependent variables. The mediators, conceptualised as motive fulfilment in the model, stand for all the individual forms of motive fulfilment in the model.

**Figure 3.1: Conceptual model**

![Conceptual model diagram]

### 3.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, the various considerations of volunteer motivations by scholars were discussed. The discussion focused on several types of volunteers’ motives and on the classification of the motives into two categories: altruistic motives and egoistic motives. These motives are said to predict fulfilment of motives. Independent variables such as
POS and LMX, and work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay as dependent variables were examined in detail in this chapter as they form the basis upon which the hypotheses were formulated. As scholars such as Penner (2002) and Dwiggins-Beeler, Spitzberg and Roesch (2011) have pointed to the possibility of a mediating variable between organisational variables and work outcomes, this chapter presented volunteer motive fulfilment as a mediating variable. Consequently, the applicable hypotheses that point to the nature of the enquiry in this study were stated.
Chapter Four: Research methodology

4.1 Introduction
This chapter provides an explanation and justification of the methods and procedures that were used in this study. It begins with a discussion of relevant research paradigms, with a particular focus on the positivist, post-positivist and interpretivist paradigms. This discussion explains the reasons for using a quantitative approach within a post-positivist paradigm. A description and justification is then given of the quantitative survey that was conducted, and the measurements used for the study are explained. Information about community NPOs and the descriptive statistics used in the demographic analysis are provided. The chapter ends with a discussion of ethical issues that were considered during the study.

4.2 Research paradigms
Philosophical approaches that underpin research are referred to as research paradigms (Creswell 2014; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2000; Neuman 2011). According to Neuman (2011, p. 94), a research paradigm is “a general organising framework … that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods of seeking answers”. Scholars such as Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2000) refer to a research paradigm as the views that influence how researchers choose their methods for data collection and analysis. In sum, paradigms are guides for understanding social phenomena or what is regarded as reality.

Paradigms are usually divided into different categories based on their ontological perspectives or assumptions about how social inquiry should be approached. The most common ontological perspectives in the literature are: positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism (Babbie 2010; Creswell 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 1991; Neuman 2006). These perspectives are seen as ideological platforms which researchers can use to address issues in their research. In other words, research designs are usually developed within one or two of the paradigms and they serve as guides in research projects. In light of this, a research paradigm is also seen as a worldview within which a researcher seeks to understand the world and locate his/her investigation (Guba & Lincoln 1994) as opposed to other available philosophical approaches. Hence, Neuman (2006) defines a research paradigm as a set of
fundamental beliefs that directs or influences a research design. Babbie (2010) and Neuman (2011) explain that each paradigm is based on different social theories and research techniques, as a result of the different assumptions made in each. The philosophical view embodied in a paradigm determines the research process in terms of what to examine, the hypotheses, and the facts and conclusions obtained from the findings (Babbie 2010). Therefore, a researcher’s approach is usually linked to a specific philosophical perspective, which influences the choice of research methodology, data collection techniques and analysis. Given the importance of philosophical views, it will be necessary to discuss in detail what differentiates the paradigms in order to identify the one that was considered most suited to this study.

Paradigms are mainly differentiated in terms of their ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies (Denzin & Lincoln 2005; Neuman 2011). Ontology deals with questions about what reality is and what the fundamental categories of reality are (Neuman 2014, p. 94); that is, it deals with what type of knowledge is relevant and what can be learned from it. The ontological aspects of a paradigm are regarded as very important because they deal with the social phenomenon to be investigated (Grix 2002).

There are different ontological positions, including objectivism, constructivism and realism (Matthews & Ross 2010). The first two positions (objectivism and constructivism) are diametrically opposed. Objectivists believe reality exists on its own and is independent of human influence (Guba 1990). On the other hand, constructivists believe that reality is based on social actors’ perceptions and that the nature of reality is a subject of debate as it is constantly being reviewed (Bryman 2008; Matthews & Ross 2010). Realists disagree with the ontological perspectives of both objectivists and constructivists. According to realists, the existence of social reality is independent of social actors and it includes hidden structures which can only be known through the senses and through the effects of those structures (Matthews & Ross 2010). In view of this, Hay (2002) argues that the researcher’s ontological position is his/her perspective on the nature of the social and political phenomena being investigated. What this means to researchers, according to Grix (2002), is that having a clear ontological position will enhance the researcher’s ability to show how the different components of the research design relate to each other, and their ability to justify the selected paradigm.
Next is the question of epistemology – how the researcher can learn more about the social phenomenon being investigated. Epistemology focuses on ways of gathering and discovering knowledge (Grix 2002) which may be objective or subjective or both. Epistemologists ask questions such as “can we be certain that we know something if we have not experienced it?” (Creswell 2003, p. 5). Lastly, methodology focuses on choosing the most appropriate techniques that can be used to acquire knowledge based on the selected paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln 2005). The most frequently used paradigms that embrace the above ontological viewpoints are positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Table 4.1 below shows a summary of these philosophical assumptions with regard to their ontologies, epistemologies, methodologies and methods. Post-positivism, a modified version of positivism, is included.

**Table 4.1: Assumptions of positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Post-positivism</th>
<th>Interpretivism</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology</td>
<td>Realist: reality is driven by natural mechanisms and is apprehensible.</td>
<td>Critical realism: Real world exists but cannot be fully understood due to human imperfection.</td>
<td>Similar to constructivism: Subjective view of reality.</td>
<td>Belief in external reality. Accept explanations that best produce the desired outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology</td>
<td>Objectivist: Investigator is independent of the inquiry.</td>
<td>Objectivist, but modified.</td>
<td>Subjective: Knower and known are inseparable – investigator is a passionate participant in the inquiry.</td>
<td>Both independent and dependent points of view.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Experimental/ Manipulative with the aid of questions and hypotheses</td>
<td>Modified experimental/ manipulative</td>
<td>Emphasis on realism or naturalistic settings</td>
<td>Based on the research question(s) that need to be answered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Purely quantitative</td>
<td>Primarily quantitative</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Quantitative &amp; qualitative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Positivists advocate the use of a natural science approach in which causes and effects are established by external factors (Grix 2002). Knowledge is believed to be obtained objectively because the researcher is assumed to be independent of the research findings. The methodology involves experimentation/manipulation in which questions and hypotheses are empirically tested under controlled conditions (Guba 1994). In contrast, post-positivists claim that realities are subject to human influence; that is, they believe that what is considered as real or as a social phenomenon is derived from humans’ subjective interpretations of their experiences (Creswell 2014; Matthews & Ross 2010). Post-positivists argue that the absolute truth of a social phenomenon cannot be fully apprehended. Their methodologies employ a modified experimental approach. Unlike positivism, which is typically quantitative, both quantitative and/or qualitative methods are acceptable in post-positivist research (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba 2011). Interpretivism and pragmatism hold views that are different to both positivism and post-positivism. The epistemological position of interpretivism is that a more detailed strategy that respects the differences between people and the objects of natural sciences is required (Bryman 2004). This position is more suitable for qualitative research than it is for quantitative research (Creswell 2014). Lastly, pragmatists do not believe in a single system of philosophy and reality. For them, social phenomena can be understood better by combining different methods (Creswell 2014).

4.3 Selected paradigm and justification

From the discussion of paradigms above, it can be seen that the application of a particular paradigm indicates the philosophical principles which the researcher uses to relate the chosen method to reality. In view of this, post-positivism was chosen as the most suitable paradigm for addressing the current research problem.

The basic assumptions of positivism were not suitable for this research for the following reasons. Firstly, the ontology and epistemology of positivism assume that there is one reality and it is apprehensible. Thus, positivists believe in strict causes and effects that operate independently of human beings (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba
that is, they believe that research can be conducted by the researchers without them influencing the results. In contrast, post-positivists “do not believe in strict cause and effect, but rather recognise that all cause and effect is a probability that may or may not occur” (Creswell 2013 p. 24). The post-positivist framework is linked to critical realism that deals mainly with identifying and examining the influence of variables on outcomes. In the context of the present study on community NPOs, the post-positivist framework helps the researcher to examine the influence of POS and LMX on work outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Post-positivists do not regard their findings as absolute truth but rather as possible occurrences, and findings are mainly based on a reductionist approach (Creswell 2009) that permits the researcher to express ideas about real social phenomena in testable hypotheses. In other words, a post-positivist framework allows the researcher to locate his/her study within the social milieus that may influence organisational behaviour (such as POS, LMX and the corresponding work outcomes). As a consequence, researchers explore how their hypotheses relate to each other in a conceptual model that can be statistically tested and analysed (See the conceptual model for this study in Chapter Three, Figure 3.1). As a result, the findings are regarded as objective as the researcher’s values are somewhat controlled.

However, not all social phenomena are observable. Positivists are only concerned with observable realities, and they ignore the unobservable mechanisms that influence human behaviour (Guba & Lincoln 1994) such as the psychological states or feelings of individuals about organisations. These states are not easily observed but they show the extent to which, in the context of this study, the volunteers in the community NPOs will be motivated. Positivists’ main interest is testing theories and proving hypotheses through measuring and analysing causal relationships that are believed to be constant in all contexts. According to Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011), unlike post-positivists, positivists do not accept the possibility of more than one interpretation of reality or social phenomena. Post-positivism’s main aim is to discover both observable and the non-observable mechanisms (Matthews & Ross 2010; Perry, Riege & Brown 1999) based on the belief that reality cannot be fully understood due to the limitations of the social actors (Guba & Lincoln 2005). This main aim of post-positivism is consistent with the objectives of this study because the concept of SET and motive fulfilment that
are being investigated involve human beings and their experiences in organisations. These experiences include some non-observable phenomena such as individuals’ perceptions of their relationships with the organisation which may not be fully understood through observation only (Perry, Riege & Brown 1999). These are considered very important issues in the present study, and can best be handled by using a post-positivist framework. As such, positivism is not the most suitable paradigm for this research.

As for interpretivism and constructivism – they are not appropriate for this study. The ontology of interpretivism is linked with the constructivist paradigm that believes social phenomena are only made real through the perceptions of social actors and are also constantly being reviewed (Bryman 2008; Matthews & Ross 2010). According to this view, reality cannot be objective because it is derived from individuals’ interpretations of their experiences (Creswell 2014; Matthews & Ross 2010). For example, the researcher does not start with a theory but rather collects and interprets data based on the participants’ historical and socio-cultural contexts. In addition, constructivism requires researchers to include their personal views and understandings of the research problem in the data analysis. In other words, the researcher is not independent but deeply involved with the phenomenon being researched. Thus, the epistemological assumptions of constructivism are based on the existence of multiple subjective realities that differ with time and context (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba 2011). The associated methodologies are mainly qualitative and primarily involve the use of interviews and dialogue data collection techniques.

The fundamental ontological beliefs of interpretivism and pragmatism are similar to those of post-positivism in that they acknowledge the role of social actors. Post-positivists do not regard perception as reality (Perry, Riege & Brown 1999). Both interpretivism and pragmatism equate perception with reality, and see reality as being based on individual ideologies, social constructs, language and usage, and existing cultural norms and symbols (Guba 1990; Perry, Riege & Brown 1999). As a result, reality is considered to be derived from multiple meanings and varies according to objects under review. The researcher has to focus on the “complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas” (Creswell 2014, p. 8). On the other hand, post-positivists regard individual perceptions as only “a window onto reality
through which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions” (Perry, Riege & Brown 1999, p. 18). In other words, post-positivists believe that the use of several “sources of data, investigators, theories, and method” will lead to a better understanding of reality (Guba 1990, p. 21). Based on these views, this research combines several data sources in order to obtain a reliable outcome that best answers the research questions. In this regard, in the present study, the research design begins with a review of the literature, followed by the development of the research problem and questions. Hence, the ontological perspective guiding this research follows the basic views of post-positivism. In the next section (Section 4.4), the research design and methods that support this approach are discussed.

4.4 Research design
In the social sciences, research data collection and analysis are based on a strategic process that serves as a framework for the researcher to answer the research questions (Creswell 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2006). Some scholars describe the research design as a blueprint that guides or shows how the research is going to be conducted (Mouton & Prozesky 2005). In other words, it is a structure or strategic process adopted by a researcher to address the research questions objectively and accurately. An appropriate research design helps to validate how the researcher approaches the research problem. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), this process involves two basic decisions: deciding the type of research, and where to obtain information. These are explained further in terms of methodology and method.

4.4.1 Methodology and method
The problem being studied and the nature of the data to be collected determine the research methodology. Table 4.1 above shows that methodology is different from method. However, these terms are often used interchangeably in the literature. Grix (2002) and Walter (2012) argue that these terms are often used wrongly due to a lack of understanding of their differences. To avoid this confusion – especially the wrong usage of these terms – the meanings of these terms will be discussed.

Methodology, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), is an operational structure with necessary steps to get a clear understanding of the research. Grix (2002, p. 169) describes a methodology as the “choice of approach and research methods adopted"
for a particular study. In other words, methodology is basically an account of how things will be done in a study. It shows the lens, that is, the ontological and epistemological assumptions, and the methods (techniques) used by a researcher to collect the data. In contrast, a method is a specific technique used to collect data (Grix 2002). Methods include questionnaires, interviews or collecting documentary evidence. Grix (2002) further explains that the research questions and sources of data collection are inextricably linked to the chosen methods of a research project. Generally, techniques for data collection and analysis in research publications are either qualitative or quantitative or mixed. The next subsection provides a brief overview of each approach and an outline of the tools in each.

4.4.2 Qualitative, quantitative and mixed-method approaches

Qualitative research is an approach used to investigate individuals’ interpretations and responses to social problems (Creswell 2014). Qualitative research is commonly associated with constructivist frameworks that use exploratory approaches in which data is obtained through interviews, observations, photos, symbols or opinions (Neuman 2011; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009), data analysis involves the breaking down of the data into different themes or categories and then analysing them in terms of themes or categories assigned by the researcher. Hence, this technique is most useful when in-depth knowledge about a phenomenon is required, or if the intention of the researcher is to generate theories or ideas. The approach is usually subjective because findings are not derived from statistical procedures. They are based on the researcher’s interpretation of the research problem based on the views of those under study. Consequently, it is impossible to replicate or generalise the findings (Bryman 2008).

Quantitative approaches, on the other hand, involve the use of measurement to test theories and analyse causal relationships between variables (Creswell 2014; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009). Quantitative approaches are referred to as deductive because the arguments they project are based on what is known. The method, data collection and analysis are usually quantified. Unlike qualitative approaches, quantitative approaches are mainly used to test theories, which in the present study means SET and its constructs POS and LMX. Quantitative approaches follow a
standardised logical scientific sequence which makes it possible to generalise findings from the sample selected to the general population and quantitative studies are replicable (Neuman 2011). Despite these advantages, critics of quantitative approaches believe that measurement processes are not a true reflection of respondents’ views. For example, Bryman (2008, p. 159) argues that using a quantitative approach limits responses to the suggested answers, and the concept being measured is ‘assumed rather than real’. In other words, quantitative approaches only answer “what” questions and not “why” questions. However, quantitative methods provide more uniform data in terms of the responses from the participants (Babbie 2010). In addition, testing the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments increases the credibility of quantitative research (Bryman 2008). This will be discussed in depth later in Section 4.6: validity and reliability.

Lastly, there is an approach which includes both qualitative and quantitative methods. This approach is referred to as mixed methods research and it is usually linked to pragmatism. Bryman (2008) and Creswell (2014) describe this method as the combination of qualitative and quantitative research techniques in a single study. Although there are suggestions that mixed methods provide a deeper understanding of a research problem than is possible when using either approach separately, the decision to use a particular approach depends on the research objective. In other words, what determines the use of a specific method is the overall aim of the study. Mixed methods research involves the use of multiple techniques in data collection (such as interviews and questionnaire surveys) and analysis (statistics and text analysis). This enables the researcher to tap into the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to enhance the validity, confirmability and reliability of the research. However, mixed methods research is more complex and time consuming and requires resources that may not be available to the researcher. This is one of the reasons a mixed methods approach was not considered in this study. Table 4.2 below shows a summary of the differences between the three approaches.
Table 4.2: Features of the three types of research approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Quantitative methods</th>
<th>Qualitative methods</th>
<th>Mixed methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philosophical</td>
<td>Pre-determined –</td>
<td>Emerging – reality</td>
<td>Both predetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assumption</td>
<td>social phenomena</td>
<td>is socially</td>
<td>and emerging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>have an objective</td>
<td>constructed and</td>
<td>methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reality that is</td>
<td>arises out of social</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>independent of the</td>
<td>action and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>researcher</td>
<td>interpretation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paradigms</td>
<td>Positivism</td>
<td>Post-positivism</td>
<td>Pragmatism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-positivism</td>
<td>Critical theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructivism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Participatory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Hypothetical and</td>
<td>Inductive/interpretive</td>
<td>Multiple forms of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deductive, focus is</td>
<td>focus is on</td>
<td>drawing on all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>on description and</td>
<td>understanding and</td>
<td>possibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>explanation of data</td>
<td>interpretation of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– for example, surveys,</td>
<td>data e.g. case study,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experiments or</td>
<td>focus groups,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>census data</td>
<td>interviews,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>observation, audio-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>visual data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question structure</td>
<td>Instrument-based</td>
<td>Open-ended questions</td>
<td>Both open-ended and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>questions</td>
<td></td>
<td>closed questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of data</td>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Words, images,</td>
<td>Variables, words and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>categories</td>
<td>images</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data analysis</td>
<td>Statistical analysis</td>
<td>Text and image</td>
<td>Statistical and text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and interpretation</td>
<td>analysis, themes,</td>
<td>analysis, across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>patterns interpretation</td>
<td>databases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>interpretation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cavana, Delahaye and Sekeran (2001); Creswell (2014); Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011)

The above discussion and table show that qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches differ in terms of:

- the underpinning philosophies
- the methods of data collection
• the data processing procedures and analyses
• the ways results are communicated.

Furthermore, the type of research, that is, the nature, aims and research problem of a particular study, also determine the use of the techniques discussed above. A research approach (design) can be further classified as descriptive, predictive, diagnostic, exploratory, explanatory or causal (Davis 2005; Burns & Bush 2006). Several authors use different descriptors to explain and examine research designs. For example, Cooper and Schindler (2003) use a research design framework with eight characteristics. However, they all still converge under three broad objectives: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Babbie 2007; Singleton & Straits 2010). The aim of exploratory studies is to investigate things the researcher knows little about (Cooper & Schindler 2003). The research plans of exploratory studies are less structured due to lack of clear descriptions of independent and dependent variables (Singleton & Straits 2010). There is no precise set of procedures for observation and analysis.

In contrast, descriptive research follows a well-structured plan that enables a researcher to provide a systematic description of a research problem as accurately as possible (Hussey & Hussey 1997; Johnson 2001; Singleton & Straits 2010). However, like diagnostic research (aimed at understanding attitudes and behaviours), descriptive research does not provide evidence of causes and effects (Zikmund 2003). On the other hand, explanatory research focuses on finding cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Burns & Bush 2006; Cooper & Schindler 2003). Unlike descriptive research, explanatory research goes beyond merely seeking information about variables; rather, it tests relationships between variables in order to determine cause and effect. This approach is highly structured as it “formally seeks the answers to questions and hypotheses” (Singleton & Straits 2010, p. 108). For this reason, the process has to be carefully planned. The process and descriptors used in this study are adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2003) and are highlighted in bold in Table 4.3 below. However, it needs to be pointed out that not all the options mentioned in the table apply in this study. For example, the option of a longitudinal
study, among others, does not apply in this study – this study adopted a cross-sectional approach due to time constraints.

### Table 1.3: Descriptors of research design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The degree to which the research question has been crystallised</td>
<td>• exploratory study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• formal study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The method of data collection</td>
<td>• monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• interrogation/communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The power of the researcher to produce effects in the variables under study</td>
<td>• experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• ex post facto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The purpose of the study</td>
<td>• descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• causal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time dimension</td>
<td>• cross-sectional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• longitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The topical scope – breadth and depth – of the study</td>
<td>• case study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• statistical study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research environment</td>
<td>• field setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• laboratory research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• simulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The participants’ perceptions of research activity</td>
<td>• actual routine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• modified routine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cooper and Schindler’s (2003, p. 146) eight descriptors of research designs

4.5 An overview of the methods and design of the study

According to Creswell (2014), social science researchers have a large number of designs to select from. The range of options has been increased by technological advances in computer-based statistical packages used for analysis. As indicated above, a post-positivist paradigm is applied in this study. Based on the highlighted descriptors or descriptors written in bold above, this study uses a formal quantitative research approach. This includes the application of quasi-experimental/cross-sectional explanatory design, which involved the gathering of data through surveys (interrogation/communication). A quantitative approach is applied in the data collection and analysis to determine causes and effects based on the rationale given below.
Firstly, this study aims to add to the current understanding and application of SET in community NPOs which use volunteers. This includes using a number of hypotheses to examine how some variables impact others. To achieve this aim, the researcher began with an in-depth review of relevant literature in order to have a broad understanding of relevant theories and concepts. These are important steps in developing research hypotheses and questions, and in selection of appropriate methods (Babbie 2007). For this study, a number of research questions and hypotheses were used to test the effectiveness of SET in influencing volunteers’ relationships within community NPOs. For example, the research questions address how the quality of POS influences affective commitment, and how motives influence such relationships. A quantitative research design is the best approach for examining such issues. This is in line with Creswell’s (2009) suggestion that in most cases, a quantitative approach is used if the study involves testing a set of variables or hypotheses. In addition, a quantitative research design was chosen because the researcher’s aim was to obtain findings that are applicable, not only to the sample, but to the population. A quantitative research design increases the objectivity and generalisability of a study because it involves hypothesis and theory testing under tightly controlled conditions which ensure that the researcher does not have influence over the entities under observation.

In addition, a quantitative approach is more suitable for this research since it is based on post-positivist philosophical assumptions. As indicated previously, post-POSITIVISTS do not believe in absolute objectivity; they believe reality can only be understood in a limited manner, and that this is best done through the critical examination of social phenomena. A quantitative approach involves critically examining the impact of independent variables upon a dependent variable (Neuman 2011). Independent variables are regarded as the causes while the dependent variable is the outcome. The quantification of data into numbers which are analysed using statistical procedures helps to determine the strength of the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable, and whether it is positive or negative. Unlike qualitative research, quantitative research does not require the investigator to become objectively involved with the participants. Put differently, it is not necessary to build relationships with the participants for the purposes of data collection, or for the interpretation of findings. The researcher is independent of the object under
investigation and can use a survey (interrogation/communication) technique to gather data from a large sample of respondents without influencing them.

Moreover, the focus of this study was not to develop a new theory but to gain more understanding of the causal relationships between variables by formulating a set of hypotheses to test a theory. This requires the use of pre-designed survey questions which do not require the in-depth information that is sought from respondents in qualitative or mixed methods research. Therefore, a qualitative or mixed methods approach was not suitable for this study. However, this does not mean qualitative and mixed methods are regarded as less important in this type of study. Any of these methods could be used in further research to provide insights into how the constructs examined in this study relate to each other.

Quantitative research designs can be classified as either experimental or non-experimental. Experimental designs are used to examine cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Sousa, Driessnack, & Mendes 2007). The process in experimental research includes describing, differentiating, or explaining the impact of one or more variable on others. Non-experimental designs, on the other hand, seek to establish relationships between variables and to determine the causes and effects of such relationships. The procedures are either descriptive or exploratory and mainly involve observing settings that occur naturally without manipulation (Neuman 2011; Sousa, Driessnack & Mendes 2007). They do not require the random assignment of participants or the use of a control group. However, as indicated previously, non-experimental designs are suitable for studies intending to establish a relationship between variables, as in the case of this study, and not for determining causality.

Experimental designs, on the other hand, are used to examine cause and effect relationships through the manipulation of the independent variable(s). Experimental designs can be split further into true experimental or quasi-experimental designs. The main aim of both is to test hypotheses about causal relationships (Singleton & Straits 2010). In other words, they examine whether a particular variable affects another variable. However, there are some significant differences between true experimental designs and quasi-experimental designs. The former involve the manipulation or modification of a variable and the comparison of the modified outcome with the non-
modified one (Singleton & Straits 2010). Both designs have sets of guidelines. True experimental designs usually require at least one control group and one experimental group to which the participants are randomly assigned (Flick 2009; Johnson 2001). Such designs in most cases include a pre-test and a post-test and are suitable for studies in which the researcher has unlimited control over the variable(s). Examples of frequently used true experimental designs are: post-test only control group designs, pre-test/post-test control group designs, Solomon four-group designs, and cross-over designs (Sousa, Driessnack & Mendes 2007). In all of these, the random assignment of participants is compulsory. Thus, this design is not suitable for this study because the research does not involve the manipulation of independent variables, or the random assignment of participants. Moreover, it was not possible for the researcher to have full control over volunteers' behaviour during the investigation.

In contrast, quasi-experimental designs are mostly used in situations where a control group is not required, or the researcher has limited control over variable(s), or the variables cannot be manipulated. Also, in quasi-experimental designs a pre-test and post-test as well as random assignment of participants to groups are not compulsory. However, quasi-experimental designs are exposed to more threats of both internal and external validity because the participants are not randomly assigned to groups (Sousa, Driessnack & Mendes 2007). According to Sousa, Driessnack and Mendes (2007), this may reduce the confidence level and the representativeness of the findings to the general population. This problem can be minimised if the sample is a practical representation of the population. According to Creswell (2009), Cook, Heath and Thompson (2000), the extent to which the responses represent the population is an important factor in terms of generalisation of the results. The four frequently used quasi-experimental designs are: non-equivalent pre-test/post-test control group design, control-group interrupted time series design, single-group interrupted time-series design, and counterbalanced design (Creswell, 2009; Sousa, Driessnack & Mendes 2007). A non-equivalent post-control group design that involved only a post-test was used in this study because the technique did not require the participants to be randomly assigned to groups.

Lastly, a quantitative research design can be further categorised based on the timing of data collection or the time when the event under investigation was experienced.
For example, research data collected once at a specified time is referred to as cross-sectional, while data collected many times over a period is regarded as longitudinal. Or the research can examine an identified present event that is linked either to a past event (retrospective) or potential future outcomes (prospective). A cross-sectional research design was more suitable for this study because the researcher could use a survey questionnaire to collect data from the participants at one particular time.

The use of a survey in the form of a questionnaire with multi-item scales enabled the researcher to integrate and measure more interdependencies including unobservable constructs (Hair et al. 2006; Stevens 2002). In order to determine the relationships between the independent and dependent variables (in response to the research questions), data collected was quantified and analysed using a suitable statistical data analysis model. How these processes were applied in this study, and the credibility and generalisability (validity and reliability) of this study, are discussed in more detail in the sections below.

4.6 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are important factors in a quantitative study. They are used to assess the credibility of the measures used, as well as the findings of the study. Validity refers to the overall accuracy or truthfulness of a study (Neuman 2011) while reliability refers to the consistency of the results or findings, if they were to be repeated under the same circumstances (Neuman 2011; Walter 2012). As indicated previously, quantitative research deals with measuring variables, and so it is important to ensure the measurement scale is valid. A valid scale is one that accurately measures the proposed construct(s) (Davis 2005). The term measurement validity is used to describe how well the empirical indicator used matches the construct that it is presumed to measure (Davis 2005; Neuman 2011). Therefore, a better fit means a higher level of measurement validity. While, there are quite a number of validity tests, three commonly used ones are: construct validity (which includes content validity), internal validity and external validity.

Whereas validity deals with accuracy in a quantitative paradigm, reliability is a measure of consistency and replication – that is, it is a measure of whether the same
results would be obtained if the study were to be repeated under the same circumstances. The methodology chosen for this study helped to ensure that the study was reliable and that it could be replicated. There are three main types of reliability and they are discussed further under the sub-title: validation of the measurements. A summary of the different types of validity and reliability, along with the descriptions, is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Types of validity and reliability in quantitative research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Validity (true measure)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct validity</td>
<td>The extent of consistency in a multiple-item measurement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content validity (or face validity)</td>
<td>The extent to which all aspects of the intended constructs are represented in the measure, as well as the extent to which others believe the method of measurement makes sense or fits the defined concept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convergent validity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discriminant validity</td>
<td>The extent to which two measurement scales measuring the same concepts are similar to each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion-related validity</td>
<td>The extent to which two measurement scales measuring different concepts can be differentiated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictive validity</td>
<td>The extent to which the selected measurement scale agrees with an external set standard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reliability (dependable measure)</strong></td>
<td>The use of a future occurrence criterion to predict a current measure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability reliability</td>
<td>The extent to which a particular measurement scale result is consistent when repeated for the same concept at different times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representative reliability</td>
<td>The degree to which measurement scale results are consistent across different groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalence reliability</td>
<td>The degree to which measurement scale results are consistent when using different indicators that measure the same concept.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Babbie 2010; Creswell (2014); Davis (2005); Neuman (2011); Remler and Van Ryzin (2011).
4.7 Validation of research measurements

Internal validity is used to describe the overall confidence level of the research findings. It is used to ensure the study’s design is free from internal errors and that the findings are a true measure of the proposed causal relationships between the variables (Davis 2005; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Neuman 2011). It is used to establish the extent to which inferences can be made about the existence of a causal relationship between two variables. Several scholars have suggested different ways of ensuring internal validity. Neuman (2006) recommends that questionnaires should measure all the variables. Yin (2003) recommends comparing empirically-based patterns with the results of the present study (pattern matching). Pattern matching can be achieved by an in-depth review of the literature and by linking theory with observed patterns. In line with these suggestions, this study begins by reviewing the relevant literature in order to establish an appropriate theoretical pattern which can be tested with hypotheses. A survey questionnaire containing valid and reliable questions which have been successful in similar studies was used. The information collected was statistically analysed to give the researcher a better understanding of the participants investigated. Thus, the researcher was able to draw conclusion and made recommendations about the participants in line with findings reported in the literature.

As indicated above, construct validity refers to the degree to which a scale correctly measures what it was intended to measure, and it consists of content validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, criterion-related validity and predictive validity. Construct validity can be established by developing hypotheses from theories (Burns 2000). Others have suggested that construct validity can be realised with a clear definition of conceptual boundaries (Neuman 2006; Westen & Rosenthal 2003). To ensure that the constructs examined in this study are measured with the right scale, all the constructs in the hypotheses were developed from theory and all the concepts were clearly defined and statistically analysed. Content validity was confirmed using currently known and successful measures to address the issues under review. The validity and reliability, as well as the convergent validity and discriminate validity of these measures have been shown with explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) recommend that the researcher should ensure that all dimensions of the proposed constructs are covered in the survey
questionnaire. Corrections and modifications were made by the study’s supervisory team and the questionnaire was pre-tested.

Establishing reliability involves determining the stability reliability, representative reliability and equivalence reliability. Stability reliability refers to a measurement yielding the same result if the study is repeated at different times (Neuman 2011). The test for stability usually involves the test-retest (t-test) method. This involves the use of the same measure to test a set of respondents at two different times (Davis 2005; Neuman 2011). If the two tests yield the same results, the scale is stable. However, such results are not easily attainable as variations may occur, either due to the effect of differences which occur over time, or the unreliability of the instrument. For example, a variation may occur because respondents’ attitudes change over time. Or the first test may influence the participants’ responses in the second test. This study did not test for stability reliability because data was collected at one time only, and the questionnaire was completed anonymously.

Representative reliability refers to a measure that yields the same result across groups (Neuman 2011). In other words, it examines the consistency of a scale when applied to different groups, such as different classes, races, sexes and age groups. The sample in this study consisted of a number of subgroups, (such as, males, females, age groups, and educational qualifications). However, they were not examined separately because of the need to maintain anonymity. Hence, it was not possible to establish the causes of any inconsistency.

Equivalence reliability examines consistency across multiple indicators (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006; Zikmund 2003). This method is used when several items in the research questionnaire measure one concept. The rationale behind this is to test the internal consistency (homogeneity) of the measures. The split-half method and Cronbach’s alpha are the two techniques used for testing internal consistency. The split-half method involves randomly dividing the measures into halves and checking to see if the results from the two halves are the same (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006; Zikmund 2003). The main problem with this approach is that the coefficient of reliability is entirely dependent on how the items were divided (Davis 2005). The Cronbach’s alpha technique examines internal reliability by computing the mean reliability
coefficient estimates for all possible ways a set of items measures can be divided into halves (Davis 2005). Cronbach’s alpha was used in this study because the technique addresses the limitation of the split-half method and it is the most frequently used method for assessing the reliability of a multiple-item concept in business research (Davis 2005).

4.8 External validity
External validity relates to the extent to which findings can be generalised beyond the actual research context (Bryman 2008; Ghauri & Gronhaug 2010). Specifically, it is used to determine whether the cause-effect relationships found are applicable to other similar settings, as well as across other settings. To ensure generalisability, Creswell (2009) states that the selected sample should be representative of the population. A detailed description of other processes, including the technique used to collect data, and also the justification of the instruments, is explained in the following section.

4.9 Sampling process
The aim of sampling is to select a sample that best represents the characteristics of the larger population (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006). The sampling process includes defining the population (and the sampling units), selecting the sample frame, sample design, sample plan, and lastly the actual sample (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006 & Zikmund 2003). Each of these steps is detailed in the following section.

4.9.1 Defining the population
A population is the entire group or set of units (people, events or objects) that possesses the characteristics the researcher wants to investigate (Burns 2000; Walter 2012). According to Davis (2000), definition of the population for a study usually cover four components: the elements, sampling units, extent and time. An element is a single individual or unit of the population. A sampling unit is the single element or groups of units which are analysed (Burns 2000; Bryman 2004; Davis 2005; Neuman 2006; Zikmund et al. 2013). The extent is the set boundary of the population and the time is the period for which the data is collected (Davis 2005). Given these definitions, all the volunteers working in community NPOs in Queensland comprise the population of this study, and the unit of analysis is the individual volunteer. The reason for selecting the
individual as the unit of analysis was to reflect the aim of this study, which is to examine the impact of the workplace relationships of volunteers (with management and their supports) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay, as well as how motives mediate the impact of management and their supports on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Hence, a self-reported survey was used because it provided reliable information.

4.9.2 Selecting sample frame and design

A sampling frame is “the list of elements from which the sample may be drawn” (Zikmund 2003, p. 363). Specifying the sample frame helps in selecting the sample that best represents the population, bearing in mind the limited resources available to the researcher (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006). The sample frame for this study was volunteers who volunteered at least twice a week and had been volunteering for a year or more for the selected organisations. This was considered to be an ideal sample frame for this study as relationships between volunteers and organisations evolved over time.

The sample design, on the other hand, is the technique used to select sampling units. Sample selection techniques are usually classified as either probability or non-probability sampling (Davis 2005; Neuman 2006; Cooper & Schindler 2003; Zikmund 2003). In a probability sample, each element has an equal chance of being included in the sample, whereas the likelihood of each element in a non-probability being selected is not known (Bryman 2008; Davis 2005; Zikmund 2003). The former method can be further classified as simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, or multi-stage cluster sampling (Blaike 2000), while the latter can be further broken down into convenience, purposive, snowball, quota, deviant case, sequential, and theoretical sampling (Berg 2004; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2000; Zikmund 2003). The features associated with each of these major types of sampling are presented in Table 4.5
**Table 4.5: Types of sampling**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of sampling</th>
<th>Cost and degree of use</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Probability designs</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Simple random:</strong> each member of the population is assigned a unique number and samples are selected randomly</td>
<td>High cost, especially when respondents are far apart; moderate use.</td>
<td>Provides reliable estimates; minimal advance knowledge of population is required; data analysis and computer errors are easy to eliminate or analyse</td>
<td>Sampling frame needed; researcher’s prior knowledge of the population (if any) is not used; larger sampling size errors than stratified sampling for the same sample size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Systematic:</strong> uses natural order of sampling frame, starts from an arbitrary starting point, and items are selected based on a pre-set interval</td>
<td>Moderate cost; moderate use</td>
<td>Simple, easy to draw and check; reduces variability because of stratification effect of population</td>
<td>Introduces increased variability if sampling interval is related to periodic ordering of population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stratified:</strong> population is divided into groups and sub-samples are randomly selected from each group.</td>
<td>High cost; moderate use</td>
<td>Ensures all groups are represented; characteristics of each group can be analysed separately and compared; decreases variability for same sample size.</td>
<td>Requires the researcher to have accurate information on proportion in every stratum; preparing stratified lists may be costly if classified lists are not available; variability may increase due to faulty classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cluster:</strong> samples are selected randomly and all units in the group are observed</td>
<td>Low cost; frequent use</td>
<td>Reduces field costs if clusters are geographically defined; requires listing each individual in the selected clusters; estimation of cluster’s characteristics as well as those of population are possible</td>
<td>Larger errors for comparable size than other probability samples; requires ability to assign population members to a unique cluster, otherwise may duplicate or omit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multistage</strong></td>
<td>Sample is selected from a combination of two or more samples techniques above.</td>
<td>High cost; mostly used in nationwide surveys</td>
<td>Reduced error of final estimates and number of observations required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonprobability designs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Convenience</strong></td>
<td>Sample selection based on most conveniently available or most economical</td>
<td>Not expensive, frequent use</td>
<td>List of population is not required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purposive or judgement</strong></td>
<td>Sample selection based on the judgement that the group has necessary representative characteristics of the population; sample is selected to fulfil a purpose, ensure all members have a certain characteristic</td>
<td>Moderate cost, moderate use</td>
<td>Suitable for certain types of forecasting; sample guaranteed to meet a specific objective; units that are close together can be selected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quota</strong></td>
<td>Classification of population by pertinent properties; decide on the desired proportion and fix quota for each</td>
<td>Moderate cost; frequent use</td>
<td>Involves some stratification of population; list of population is not necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowball: probability method is used to select the initial respondents; any additional respondents are obtained by referral from initial respondents</td>
<td>Inexpensive; not frequently used</td>
<td>Useful in specific situations in locating members of rare populations</td>
<td>Sample units bias is high; selected sample may lack the rare characteristic; representativeness of rare characteristic may not be apparent in sample; inferring data beyond the sample is risky</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Davis (2005); Kemper, Stringfield & Teddlie (2003); Neuman (2006); Zikmund (2003)

For quantitative research, probability sampling is mostly used to obtain a representative sample (Blaike 2000). However, in cases where probability sampling is unattainable, Babbie (2007) recommends the use of a non-probability sampling technique. For example, in purposive sampling, the focus is on selecting “only those that best illuminate and test the hypothesis of the research team” (Kemper, Stringfield & Teddlie 2003, p. 269). In other words, using a non-random technique to select a minimum sample with the needed characteristics increases the representativeness of the population. Moreover, Babbie (2007), Burns (2000) and Hair et al. (2010) state that the representativeness that is required of the sample, together with the data collection procedure and data analysis, equally determine the sampling method. As such, the sampling procedure applied in this study is purposive non-probability sampling. This sampling procedure involves examining the entire sample available instead of selecting a sample based on probability or random sampling. As previously mentioned, an important facet of quantitative research is that findings can be generalised to a wider population. For the researcher to be able to generalise, the selected sample needs to be a practical representative of the population. Hence in this study, the volunteer sample size had to be representative of the entire population of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland.
4.9.3 Sample size

The sample size is the actual number of people required to achieve the research objectives (Zikmund 2003). How to determine the appropriate number for a particular research project is an unresolved issue. However, some factors that can be affected by the sample size are the homogeneity of sampling units, confidence, precision, the level of significance (statistical power) required, analytical procedure, costs, time and personnel (Davis 2005; Emory & Cooper 1991; Zikmund 2003).

Homogeneity refers to samples with similar traits, while the confidence level is the extent to which the estimated population parameters are true (Davis 2005). The more similar the sampling units (homogeneity), the smaller the sample required, while confidence levels generally ranges from 0% to 100%. However, in business and social science research, a 95% (p ≤ 0.05) confidence level is the most acceptable (Burns & Bush 2006; Cavana, Delahaya & Sekaran 2001). Sample size also depends on the degree of closeness (precision) with which the researcher wants the sample to reflect the population in respect to the characteristics being examined (Zikmund et al. 2013). A larger sample size yields greater precision because the larger the sample, the smaller the sampling error. However, after a certain point, the increase in precision resulting from an increase in the size of a large sample begins to diminish (Bryman 2008). This means that precision increases at a diminishing rate, and at some point increasing the sample size is no longer cost-effective (Hazelrigg 2004). In addition, the statistical power of a finding is also affected by the sample size. This relates to the “researcher’s ability to correctly recognise a relationship” and is usually calculated as the size of the standard error (Davis 2005, p. 226). The analytical procedure applied also determines the sample size, because most often, different types of data analysis require certain minimum sample sizes (Davis 2005). For example, a sample size of 100 to 200 responses is regarded as appropriate for regression analysis and partial least squares analysis in structural equation modelling (Chin & Newsted 1999; Hair et al. 2006). Lastly, resource constraints (in costs, time and personnel) may hinder the researcher’s ability to obtain the required sample size for the research (Davis 2005).

Apart from all the factors discussed above, the accessibility and size of the population are also possible hindrances to getting a large sample size. Thus, Cook, Heath and
Thompson (2000) argue that the extent to which the responses represent the population is more important than size, while Ticehurst and Veal (2000, p.164) state that it is the “absolute size of the sample that is important, and not its size relative to the population”. Roscoe (1975) suggests between 30 and 500 as an optimum sample size, while Hoelter (1983) recommends a sample size of between 100 and 200 for quantitative research. Others argue that in multivariate research the ratio of the number of respondents to the number of independent variables should be at least five to one or ten to one (Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins 2001; Hair et al. 2006). In summary, Hair et al. (2006) and Manning and Munro (2006) argue that considering the model complexity, missing data, and error variance of questions and items, a sample size of between 150 and 400 is appropriate. As such, the 680 volunteers who were found to have met the specifications of the sample frame were deemed to provide an appropriate sample size for this study.

4.9.4 Sample plan, and actual sample
The sampling plan refers to the actual procedures and methods used to select the desired sample (Davis 2005). A good sampling plan reduces sampling errors because it details how and when the sampling will be performed (Davis 2005; Zikmund 2003). The actual sample is the selected segment from the population that the researcher intends to investigate (Bryman 2008; Neuman 2011). Thus, a sample is a portion of the population selected for further investigation. According to Neuman (2014), an ideal sample should be representative of the population. It should have the features of the population in order for the findings to be generalisable. As indicated previously, none of the community NPOs had enough volunteers, especially the continuous volunteers. Considering all these factors, purposive non-probability sampling was used in this study. This involved the use of all the volunteers from the five organisations who volunteered at least twice a week and had been volunteering for at least a year for the selected organisations (sample frame).

4.10 Data collection strategy – survey
This section defines and discusses briefly the relevant issues about surveys and how a survey was used in this study. Surveys are a basic tool for gathering information, especially in quantitative research with individuals as the unit of analysis. Ghauri and Gronhaung (2005), and Mouton and Prozesky (2005) define surveys as a method of
using structured questions to gather information from selected respondents. The
questions are structured so that the information gathered reflects the characteristics,
attitudes or opinions of the respondents. There are several means of conducting
surveys, such as face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews and self-administered
questionnaires (Malhotra et al. 2006; Zikmund 2003). A summary of the advantages
and disadvantages of surveys is presented in the table below.

Table 4.6: Advantages and disadvantages of surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They can be used to investigate a wide range of topics across different</td>
<td>Data are mostly a reflection of a specific time rather than constant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>respondents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are an efficient means of collecting detailed information from a</td>
<td>Self-reported data, and response rate may not be what is required in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large number of respondents in a relatively short time and they are</td>
<td>research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inexpensive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good for studying large populations and they provide quick reliable and</td>
<td>Forming a relationship with respondents does not equal establishing causality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valid information.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data is suitable for statistical analysis.</td>
<td>Cannot provide adequate answers for all types of research questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They can provide secondary data for other researchers.</td>
<td>They involve significant commitment in money and time from both the researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and the respondents.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Babbie 2010; Creswell 2014; Zikmund 2003

In this study, a survey was used because of its suitability for collecting a wide range
of information in a short space of time. For example, in a survey, information about the
respondents' backgrounds, beliefs, attitudes, past and present behaviours and
opinions can be collected from a large number of respondents within a short space of
time. Similar studies that have applied a quantitative approach have mostly used the
surveys for data collection (see Bang & Ross 2009; Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Paille,
Grima & Dufour's 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002; Xerri 2013). By using a survey,
the researcher was able to collect all the required data about volunteers' perceptions
of their exchange relationships with the organisation within a specific period.
Questionnaire surveys are also less expensive than most other methods because of
the different options available for data collection (Wimmer & Dominick 2000). Survey
responses can be completed online, by telephone, face-to-face or by mail. Furthermore, surveys are used mainly in descriptive or analytical studies (Babbie 2007; Wimmer & Dominick 2000; Zikmund 2003) and inferences can be made about the population from the findings. Based on these advantages, and in line with previous research which has shown the credibility and reliability of surveys, this research used the survey method.

However, the disadvantages of surveys, such as the possibility of a poor response rate, as listed in Table 4.6 above, have not been ignored. Steps that have been suggested to increase response rates, and that have been adopted in this study, include:

- make the questions easy and short
- give a clear explanation of the purpose of the study, so that respondents can see its value and benefits
- give incentives to take part if possible
- give assurances of confidentiality and anonymity
- send out reminders
- include self-addressed, post-paid postage envelopes (Emory & copper 1991; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson 2013).

Other steps that were taken to maximise participation and to mitigate the other disadvantages of surveys are discussed in detail below.

4.10.1 Survey components

There are a range of survey techniques available to the researcher, and selecting a technique should be based on a number of factors. These factors include: the purpose of the research, the nature of the research (i.e. cross-sectional or longitudinal), the nature of the population and the sampling process (Desselle 2005; Malhotra et al. 2006).

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of social exchange relationships of volunteers with management and their supports on volunteers’ work outcomes in their organisations by testing a set of hypotheses. In order to achieve this, the researcher used a cross-sectional self-administered survey. The decision to apply this method
was based on its benefits. One of these is the ability to maintain respondent anonymity and another is the ability to prevent the possibility of the researcher influencing respondents’ answers (Dillman 2000). In addition, self-completed questionnaires are the most commonly used method of data collection in quantitative studies (Neuman 2011) because of their ability to measure attitudes and intentions (Mitchell & Jolley 1996). In addition, data can be collected within a short space of time from a large number of respondents, increasing the extent to which the findings can be generalised to the larger population. In order to make the survey questions interesting and easy, they were short and unambiguous with clear instructions. There was also a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study, emphasising its benefits and the anonymity of the respondents.

4.11 Questionnaire design and measures

Questionnaires are sets of structured questions designed to collect useful data from representative samples (Babbie 2010) and they are mostly used in survey research. The questions used in this study were adapted from previous studies. Despite the fact that the questions had been developed and tested in previous research, a pre-test of the questionnaire was carried out to determine its suitability for the present study.

The questionnaire for this study had four sections. Apart from Section A, all other sections contained validated and reliable questions drawn from previous research. Responses were analysed using summated scales. A summated scale consists of multiple related indicators (multiple items) that measure a single concept (Churchill 1979; Hair et al. 2006). The total or average scores of these indicators form a single ‘composite’ measure that is used in statistical analysis. Summated scales are widely used due to their advantages.

Firstly, summated scales provide a means of reducing measurement errors (Churchill, 1979; Ghauri & Gronhaug 2010; Tett & Meyer 1993), which may arise due to various factors such as faulty data entry or respondents providing inaccurate information (Hair et al. 2006). Secondly, multiple items are more reliable than single items for reflecting underlying predispositions (Gardner et al. 1998) due to the wide range of options available to respondents. Unlike single-item measures, multiple-item measures represent and relate more to the constructs by giving respondents a wide range of
options to choose from. As a result, they have a high confidence level because of their exploratory ability (Peat et al. 2002). They are also easier to code and can be analysed with different statistical packages (Burns & Bush 2006; Manning & Munro 2006). Furthermore, they are the most frequently used instruments in social exchange literature. For example, multiple-item measures have been used by Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), Brunetto et al. (2013), Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and Rousseau (2001). These studies have empirically demonstrated the validity and reliability of multiple-item scales.

Summated scales are not limited to any specific number of items – a minimum of five items is generally acceptable (Hair et al. 2006, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). All but one variable investigated in this study was represented by five or more items. Intention to stay was only represented by three items, but this approach had been theoretically supported in previous literature as an acceptable summated scale (see Meyer, Allen and Smith 1993; Irving, Coleman & Cooper 1997). With regard to the response format, a six-point Likert scale was used for respondents to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a variety of statements about: their motives for volunteering, the extent to which these motives had been fulfilled, POS, LMX, job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The use of a six-point Likert scale has received significant support from previous studies (Brunetto et al. 2013; Xerri & Brunetto 2013; Xerri 2013). A detailed description of the questions in Sections B, C and D is provided in below.

Sections B and C, were used to assess the volunteers’ motives for volunteering and the extent to which these motives were being fulfilled by the organisations. Clary et al.’s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was used to measure both volunteer motives and degree of fulfilment. Section B consisted of 30 questions divided into six sections, each with five questions. Values motives (altruism) were assessed with the first five questions (e.g. I feel compassion towards people in need) while the remaining 25 questions assessed understanding (e.g. I can explore my own strengths as a volunteer), social (My friends are also volunteers), enhancement (Volunteering increases my self-esteem), protective (By volunteering I feel less lonely) and career motives (Volunteering experience will look good on my resume) (egoistic motives). The high internal reliability and consistency of this instrument has been shown in
several studies. For example, Finkelstein (2008) found the Cronbach’s alpha for each of the motives as follows: Values (.76), Understanding (.79), Social (.80), Career (.86), Protective (.78) and Enhancement (.78).

Questions in Section C dealt with the extent to which the motives indicated above had been fulfilled. This was done using the Clary et al. (1998) Volunteer Function Inventory. The 12 items in Clary et al.’s inventory (with two items assessing each of the six types of motives) were modified to make the questionnaire easier and more understandable for the respondents. For example, one of the questions for the fulfilment of values was, ‘People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work at this organisation’ instead of, ‘I am genuinely concerned about the people who were helped’. As for enhancement, one of the questions was ‘From volunteering at this organisation, my self-esteem has been enhanced’ instead of ‘My self-esteem was enhanced’. In contrast to Section B, respondents were asked to indicate their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the extent to which their volunteering service was fulfilling their motives for volunteering. The Volunteer Function Inventory has been widely used to examine volunteers’ motives because of its good psychometric properties and consistent internal reliability (Allison, Okun & Dutridge 2002; Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2006; 2008; Okun, Barr & Herzog 1998).

Questions in Section D were used to collect information about POS, LMX, affective commitment, job satisfaction and intention to stay. Perceived organisational support was measured with the shorter version of the questionnaire developed by Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990). An example of the questions was: ‘The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work’. The shorter version is a unidimensional scale comprising eight questions. All questions are measured using a six-point Likert scale in which responses range from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6). This instrument was used because several studies have empirically shown that it has a high internal reliability. For example, Eisenberger et al. (2002), Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990), Wayne Shore and Liden (1997), Settoon, Bennett and Liden (1996) and Shore and Tetrick (1991) have all found the internal reliability of this questionnaire to be high and consistent. Moreover, past
studies on volunteers have also supported the use of this instrument due to its reliability (see Bang 2007; Farmer & Fedor 1997; 1999).

The unidimensional LMX-7 instrument developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) for measuring supervisor-subordinate relationships was adapted in this research. In comparison to other instruments, the unidimensional LMX-7 has a higher reliability value and better psychometric properties (Gerstner & Day 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). This has contributed to its widespread use. For example, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) found a Cronbach’s alpha of .90. The meta-analytic review of different studies of LMX by Gerstner and Day (1997) not only confirmed the reliability of the LMX-7 scale measures for a single (unidimensional) factor, but also found that it had consistently high internal reliability. They found an average Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of 0.89 for the LMX-7 measure. Sherony and Green (2002) found a high internal consistent value for LMX-7 (a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.93). Apart from this, the scale has also been supported in a study involving volunteers (see Hoye 2004; 2006). Like other studies, Hoye’s studies used the unidimensional LMX-7 instrument to examine the supervisor-subordinate relationship as perceived by volunteers. An example of the questions is: ‘The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work’. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement on a six-point Likert scale with the responses ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6).

To assess volunteers’ affective commitment, Allen and Meyer’s (1990) measure of employees’ emotional attachment to the organisation was used. This is a questionnaire using a six-item scale with responses ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6). One of the questions was: ‘I enjoy discussing my organisation with outside people’. Several studies have confirmed the consistency and reliability of the instrument (see Allen & Meyer 1990; Brunetto, Farr-Wharton & Shacklock 2010; Lester et al. 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001). Although the instrument was developed for use with paid employees, it has been equally effective in research involving volunteers. For example, a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.86 was found in a study of social worker volunteers by Chacon, Vecina and Davila (2006). Subsequent studies have also reported high internal consistency and reliability in volunteer research (Finkelstein 2008; Lo Presti 2013; McMurray et al. 2010).
Job satisfaction was measured with questions developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). The instrument consisted of four items and respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement. One of the questions was: ‘I frequently think of quitting this job’. It was modified to read: ‘I do not frequently think of quitting this job’. The questions were modified to capture volunteers' overall job satisfaction. The consistency and reliability of the instrument has been confirmed in studies of paid employees and volunteers. For example, Bang’s (2011) study of volunteers reported a satisfactory internal consistency with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.66 and Farmer and Fedor (1997) reported a satisfactory internal consistency with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.81.

Intention to stay was examined using the Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1996) measure, which consists of three items. The questions were reworded to reflect the extent to which each respondent was thinking of staying with their present organisation. For example, ‘I do not see myself working for this organisation one year from now’ was changed to ‘I see myself still volunteering for this organisation one year from now’. The use of three items to represent turnover intention has been effective in other research. For example, Egan, Yang and Bartlett (2004) used the three items developed by Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1996) and found acceptable internal consistency and reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.68. Elanain (2014) applied the three items developed by Cammann et al. (1979) and the Cronbach’s alpha was 0.91. Moreover, several studies involving volunteers have also used three items (see Boezeman & Ellemers 2007; Clary et al. 1998). Responses were measured on a Likert scale with responses ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6).

4.11.1 Pre-testing and questionnaire modification

According to Zikmund (1997, p.108) pre-testing “is a collective term for any small scale exploratory research technique that uses sampling but does not apply rigorous standards”. Useful information about the survey instrument such as ambiguous or biased questions, and the reliability and validity of the survey instrument, can be obtained by conducting a pre-test (Cooper & Schindler 2003; Creswell 2003; Saunder, Lewis & Thornhill 2003). The questionnaire can thereafter be modified based on this information (Ticehurst & Veal 2000). Pre-testing also helps to ensure content validity.
– that is, that the wording of the questions is understandable and that the items for each dimension measure the same construct.

The acceptable sample size for a pre-test analysis has not been clearly defined in the literature. For example, some scholars have suggested between 25 and 100 (Emory & Cooper 1991; Cooper & Schindler 2003), and Wilcox (1982) suggests that between 12 and 30 is an acceptable sample size for pre-testing. In this study, the first 30 surveys collected were pre-tested and the questionnaire was modified based on the information obtained from the results. Questions 50, 51, 55, 73, 75, 76 and 77 that were formerly indirect questions were revised and changed to direct questions because they posed some difficulties in the pre-test analysis. This is in line with Xerri’s (2013) finding that the use of negatively worded items has been found to be problematic in statistical analysis. Moreover, Babbie (2010) suggests that all negatively worded questions should be removed to avoid confusion and misinterpretation. Further discussion about the results of the pre-test are provided in Chapter 6.

4.11.2 Questionnaire administration and follow-up

As indicated previously, a self-administered survey was used in this study for data collection. This approach was preferred because the plan was for the researcher to be on site to distribute and collect the data. This decision was based on a volunteer coordinator’s advice citing the possibility that some of the volunteers did not have internet connections at home and might not be internet savvy enough to handle the complexity of an online survey. The number of volunteers who met the specifications of the sample frame was 680 in total. Therefore, the sample size for this research was 680 volunteers. Going by the information provided by the volunteer coordinators of the NPOs, the respondents selected were from NPOs faced with problems of insufficient volunteers. The five community NPOs used in this study were reviewing their policies and operations to improve their volunteer satisfaction and commitment, and to reduce turnover. The respondents in these organisations were volunteers as the organisations depended mainly on volunteers.

Before the distribution of questionnaires, the researcher held meetings with different NPOs’ volunteer coordinators to explain the research project and seek permission for
data collection. Meetings were organised by the volunteer coordinators for the researcher to meet with volunteers and explain to them the importance and objectives of the research project. Both the volunteer coordinators and volunteers were assured that the information collected would be kept confidential and findings would be reported anonymously.

Most questionnaires were handed out and collected by the researcher after these meetings. Those who were not able to complete theirs at the meetings were given the option to either bring them to the next meeting or send them by post using the stamped self-addressed envelopes provided. Postage-paid envelopes were used to make it easy for the participants to send the survey back to the researcher and still retain their anonymity. Also, some questionnaires were left with the volunteer coordinators to give to those volunteers who were absent. The advantage of using the volunteer coordinators in this way was that it ensured that a significant number of volunteers received the survey. To ensure that this study was reliable, the procedures used followed tested and validated methods. In addition, detailed explanations of the processes and procedures of the study were provided to make replication of the study possible.

The research process is illustrated in Figure 4.1 below. The steps that were followed are based on Bryman’s (2008) model for quantitative research processes. According to Bryman (2008) a deductive process begins with an in-depth review of the literature which enables the researcher to understand the theory or theories applicable to a specific domain. Based on this, the researcher formulates hypotheses, collects data from representative samples and analyses and discusses them based on the theory.

**Figure 4. 1: Quantitative research process (Bryman 2008)**

![Quantitative research process diagram](image)
4.11.3 Brief information about community NPOs in the context of their participation in this study

As indicated above (Section 4.11.2), data were collected from five community NPOs which will henceforth be referred to as organisations A, B, C, D and E. Ten community NPOs were approached by the researcher but only five agreed to participate in the research. Organisation A has five branches with approximately 300 regular volunteers. Organisation B has several branches but only two of the branches agreed to take part in the study. These two branches have approximately 280 volunteers. Organisation C has four branches with approximately 150 volunteers. Organisations D and E do not have any branches and they have approximately 85 and 60 volunteers respectively. As indicated in Section 3.3.1, volunteers can be found at almost all levels of responsibility within these NPOs. Prominent among the community services these NPOs render are settlement of refugees, advocacy to refugees, community development and engagement with communities and between communities, reskilling and employment services, and sourcing and delivery clothes to the needy. Two of the NPOs are involved in community respite for people with a disability, advocacy for people with a disability, transport services for people with a disability. All the community NPOs are located in Queensland and they provide services to the vulnerable and less privileged in their communities.

Four of the five community NPOs became very interested in the research after they were given further explanations about the possible theoretical and practical implications of the study to their organisations. Consequently, they expressed their desire to see the final results of the research. These community NPOs were selected because according to their volunteer coordinators, they were in dire need of volunteers and they confirmed that they were under increasing pressure to improve volunteers’ commitment to the organisation because they were experiencing high rates of volunteer turnover. Hence, it was important to examine the volunteers in these
community NPOs in order to determine the organisational and human factors that affected their job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay.

4.12 Descriptive statistics of each community NPO – demographic analysis
A total of 218 sets of data were collected, of which 213 were usable out of 680 surveys distributed. This means that 32.7 per cent of the potential respondents completed usable sets of data. The demographic data (such as, age, gender, and marital status) were analysed using descriptive statistics. The number of respondents from each of the organisations were as follows: A, 51 (24% of total usable responses), B, 34 (16%), C, 46 (21.6%), D, 43 (20.2%) and E 39 (18.3%). Similar to past studies about volunteers (see Barraket et al. 2013; Volunteering Australia 2011), the volunteers were mainly females. The total number of females was 140 (65.7%), while males were 73 (34.3%). The age distribution of the participants was also consistent with findings from the literature (see Hoye 2004; Volunteering Australia 2011). For example, an ACCOS (2009) survey of community NPOs in Queensland found that older people were participating more in voluntary services than younger people were. This was evident in the age analysis of this study as 102 (48%) were aged 43 or above, 77 (36%) were between 28 and 42 years of age and 34 (16%) were aged 27 or younger. The analysis of marital status indicates that most of the respondents were married – 133 (62.4%), while 32 (15%) were single, 20 (9.4%) were divorced, 19 (8.9%) were widowed and 9 (4.2 %) were in de facto relationships.

Regarding educational qualifications, participants whose highest educational qualification was a high school certificate comprised the largest group (103 or 48.4%), followed by those with a bachelor-level degree (77 or 36.3%), those with TAFE qualifications (18 or 8.5%) and those with postgraduate degrees (10 or 4.7%). In terms of occupation, professionals, artisans and business people comprised the largest group (94 or 44%), followed by students (54 or 25.4%), homemakers (33 or 15.5%) and others (32 or 15%). Lastly, in terms of hours spent volunteering, the percentage of those volunteering for three to four hours per week was 89 (41.8%), and was the largest group. Most of these respondents had volunteered for their particular organisation for more than five years. Details of responses from each community NPO and the demographic analysis are detailed in Table 4.7.
Table 4.7: Demographic results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community NPOs</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>23-27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>TAFE</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>48-52</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>53-57</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>Artisan</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>63-67</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>Business person</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>68-72</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devoiced</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>73-77</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Widowed</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Hours work per week</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Volunteer tenure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>De facto</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 and above</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;5 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213

4.12 Ethical considerations
In accordance with Southern Cross University guiding principles, any research project that involves human beings needs ethical clearance. The ethical clearance for this research was granted by the ethics review board of Southern Cross University and the ethical clearance reference number is ECN-14-036 (see appendix A). Apart from the university ethical clearance, there were still ethical issues to be resolved with the organisations and participants. According to Kvale (1996); Miller (2007), it is the researcher’s responsibility to seek the consent of the participants, and to make sure they understand and are well informed about the obligations associated with their agreement. As a result, letters of request were sent to the relevant authorities in the participating organisations seeking authorisation for their volunteers to participate. Each questionnaire given to the participants had a covering letter that introduced the researcher, the purposes of the research, and the benefits to both the organisation.
and participants. In addition, participants were informed that the data collected would be based on group analysis and would only be used for the purpose explained in the consent form. Participants were also informed that data collected would be confidential and anonymous, and that participation was entirely voluntary. Participants were also told that they were free to withdraw from participating at any time. These measures were to ensure that the research met all the ethical requirements, such as the mandatory policies and procedures of the researcher’s governing institution (Bryman, 2008).

4.13 Conclusion
The methodological process that was used in this research was explained in this chapter. This involved a discussion of several research paradigms (positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism), their different categories and their associated assumptions. A quantitative approach, which fits within the post-positivist paradigm, was discussed in terms of its suitability as an approach that can be used to critically examine the impact of independent variables such as POS and LMX upon various dependent variables such as affective commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The discussion of the quantitative approach as it relates to survey and statistical analysis, survey instruments and research processes was given. Also discussed were reliability and validity as both concepts are used to justify the rigour of a study. This was followed by an explanation of the ethical considerations as specified by SCU – in order to ensure that the question of research probity was addressed. In the next chapter, further discussion about the research methods used in the study will be given. The discussion will focus mainly on data preparation, editing and specific analysis that will be used.
Chapter Five: Data preparation and data analysis

5.1 Introduction
This chapter begins with a detailed description of the data preparation process. This includes the data editing, coding, and identification and correction of missing data. Following this is the explanation of common method bias, the reliability test and the data analysis techniques which included regression analysis as well as a justification for of the method used (regression analysis). In addition, the conventional process of using regression analysis, and its fundamental assumptions such as assessing normalities, homoscedasticity and linearity, is described. The last section explains the results of the hypothesis testing in the study, and the Sobel test, which serves as a validating test, is also introduced.

5.2 Data preparation for multivariate analysis
Raw data preparation and screening are done prior to data analysis. This is done by examining and converting raw data to make it suitable for statistical analysis, and to enhance the researcher’s decision-making ability (Ghauri & Gronhaug 2010; Hair et al. 2006; Zikmund 2003). Furthermore, the process of data preparation allows the researcher to obtain critical information about the characteristics of the data and ensures that the fundamental requirements (assumptions) for the specified multivariate analysis used are satisfied (Hair et al. 2010). Raw data preparation also involves data editing and coding, evaluating the impact of missing data, and detection of outliers (Ghauri & Gronhaug 2010; Hair et al. 2010; Zikmund 2003). A detailed explanation of the data preparation and screening undertaken in this research is given in the next section.

5.2.1 Data editing and coding
Data editing involves checking for completeness, consistency and omissions, and arranging data for coding and tabulation (Neuman 2006; Zikmund et al. 2013). In this study, the collected questionnaires were examined thoroughly for completeness and consistency. At the end of the editing process, the responses to five survey questions were found to be incomplete, and how these were dealt with is discussed in Section 5.2.2 (Identification and correction of missing data). The non-numerical questions were
assigned specific codes to enable statistical analysis to take place (Emory & Cooper 1991; Zikmund et al. 2013). The non-numerical questions codes are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Non-numeric survey questions codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Numbers</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Potential Responses</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Please indicate your age</td>
<td>Under 18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23-27</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43-47</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>48-52</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>53-57</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58-62</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>63-67</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>68-72</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>73-77</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78-82</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>De facto</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TAFE</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Artisan</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Business person</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>No of hours per week spent volunteering</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9-10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 and above</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>No of years of volunteering service</td>
<td>One year</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Three years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Four years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Five years and above</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213
5.2.2 Identification and correction of missing data

As indicated above, some of the returned questionnaires were not completely filled in, which resulted in missing data. Missing data refers to questions left unanswered by respondents, resulting in some variables not being available for analysis (Hair et al. 2006). There are two categories of missing data: ignorable missing data, and non-ignorable missing data (Byrne 2010; Marlin 2008). Ignorable missing data do not need remedial actions to be taken because the causes and impacts are known to the researcher prior to the study and are thus incorporated into the research design. On the other hand, non-ignorable missing data require remedial actions to be taken as they are not taken into consideration in the research design (Hair et al. 2006). Ignoring this type of missing data can result in biased conclusions and therefore the causes of the incompleteness have to be addressed in the analysis (Bradlow & Thomas 1998).

Non-ignorable missing data can be further broken down into two types: known and unknown processes. The former occurs as a result of procedural errors such as data entry errors, while the latter occurs due to participants' actions such as refusal to answer sensitive questions (Hair et al. 2006) about personal income or racial background or as a result of discomfort or embarrassment (Holman & Glas 2005). In this study, the missing data that occurred was due to participants' actions. This was because after the data editing and coding, two answers were found to be missing in responses for questions 55, 56, and 66, while three cases were missing responses in questions 31, 58 and 60. In other words, a total of five out of the 218 returned questionnaires were found to be incomplete or to have missing data. The data that were missing was classified as non-ignorable missing data, as the questions related to the critical variables being examined. However, the percentage (2.3%) of the missing data is considered low. As recommended by Hair et al. (2010), in a situation where the amount of missing data is small, any remedial action (such as deleting the cases with missing data) can be applied without determining the randomness of the missing data. Hence, the surveys (questionnaires) with missing data were deleted in this study. However, in order to ensure that there were no other missing data, the Missing Values Analysis (MVA) package available in the SPSS data analysis software was used to check for undetected missing data – and to see if any patterns existed. MVA is a special technique within the SPSS software that is designed to detect patterns of missing data so as to replace the missing values with appropriate values.
where necessary (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). The MVA revealed that there was no other missing data, and therefore, no further action on the missing data variable was required.

**5.2.3 Common method bias**

In quantitative research such as this, common method bias is most likely to occur because of the data collection method used. According to Podsakoff, et al. (2003, p. 879) common method bias is ‘the variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent’. Some of the sources of common method bias as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) are: complex or ambiguous questions and consistency motif (respondents’ tendencies to be consistent in their responses). All these lead to inaccurate responses which can either increase or decrease the latent variables from observed variables. Hence, common method bias can result in both Type I and Type II errors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff 2012). Type I errors involve accepting a false effect when it does not exist while Type II errors are failures to reject false effects (Hair et al. 2010).

One of the most frequently used techniques to detect common method bias is Harmon’s single factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff 2012). The test process involves loading all the variables that are being investigated into un-rotated exploratory factor analysis to establish if one factor accounts for most of the percentage variance between the measures. A common method bias exists if one factor from the un-rotated factor analysis explains more than fifty per cent of the total extracted variance from the measures (Field 2013). The results from the un-rotated factor analysis are presented in Table 5.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Extraction sums of squares loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.849</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 213

From the results in Table 5.2, it can be seen that one factor did not explain the majority of the variances between the measures because the degree of variance accounted for
by one factor is 23.49 per cent. As the un-rotated exploratory factor analysis did not show that a single factor accounts for most of the variances, the common method bias was not considered to be a problem.

5.2.4 Defining the subsets and item reduction (exploratory factor analysis)

Having taken steps to ensure that the findings were not affected by common method bias, the next step was to determine whether all the items measuring the different variables were suitable using factor analysis and to organise them into subsets or factors. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that identifies variables that highly or moderately correlate with each other (Burns 2000; Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Factor analysis is a statistical process that helps to identify factors that explain the underlying pattern of correlations within a set of the original observed variables (Hair et al. 2006). It helps to ensure that variables included in the model measure what they are intended to measure. Factor analysis is also used for data reduction as it helps to identify the number of factors that actually explains most of the variances in the observed variables.

Exploratory factor analysis is one of the common techniques used in factor analysis and it involves the use of either common factor analysis or principal component analysis (Hair et al. 2010). The former (common factor analysis) extracts factors based on the shared variance, while principal component analysis extracts factors based on the shared, unique and error of the total variance (Hair et al. 2010). Although the two techniques can give similar results, scholars such as Hair et al. (2010) and Stevens (2002) recommend principal component analysis as a better procedure due to problems associated with common factor analysis techniques in terms of how it estimates commonalities. As such, principal component analysis was used in this study.

Principal component analysis involves the use of varimax rotation to ascertain the number of factors that account for variance in latent (reflective measurement approach) variables (Harman 1976; Podsakoff et al. 2003). Varimax rotation helps to distribute the variables into simple and clear patterns that represent different factors, which makes them easier to read and interpret (Hair et al. 2006). Varimax rotation also shows the loading score for each variable on each factor extracted. The term loading
refers to the correlation between items and factors (Stevens 2002). To determine which variables should be included in the factor, scholars have suggested cut-off points of .32 and above. For example, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest a .32 factor loading score and Hair et al. (2010) recommends a cut-off point of .40 for studies with sample size of at least 200.

As indicated in Chapter 4, the survey instrument was pre-tested to determine its suitability for factor analysis. A factor analysis of the questions in this initial stage would enable the researcher to ascertain whether items are actually representing the intended factor. Most of the variables loading values in the pre-test were high and appropriate. Although there were a few exceptions, all the variables were deemed suitable to be used following the results of the pre-test. In addition, most of the factor loading shows that the research questions were appropriate for the variables being examined. However, the instrument factor loading was tested again after the data collection was completed. The 70 items in the questionnaires were entered into the system and the cut-off point for the factor loading was set at .45. This was in line with Hair et al.’s (2010) recommendation that in studies with sample sizes of 200 and above, factors with correlations greater than 0.40 should be considered significant. All the questions loaded appropriately except question 9 under POS, and as a consequence, that question was removed. The remaining 69 questions were re-entered into the system and the results revealed 17 latent variables with eigenvalues greater than one. These factors explained 78% of the variance, with the first factor accounting for 8.37% of the variance. The factor loadings are shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Factor loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values motive</td>
<td>I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td>.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel it is important to help others.</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can do something for a cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.</td>
<td>.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motive</td>
<td>I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.</td>
<td>.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volunteering allows me to learn things through direct, hands on experience.</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By volunteering, I learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can explore my own strengths as a volunteer.</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motive</td>
<td>My friends are also volunteers.</td>
<td>.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People I know share an interest in community service.</td>
<td>.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enhancement motive</strong></td>
<td>Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.</td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel important. Volunteering increases my self-esteem. Volunteering makes me feel needed. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.</td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Protective motive</strong></td>
<td>No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it. By volunteering I feel less lonely. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
<td>.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career motive</strong></td>
<td>Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.</td>
<td>.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - values motive</strong></td>
<td>People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work at this organisation By volunteering at this organisation, I am doing something for a cause I believe in.</td>
<td>.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - enhancement motive</strong></td>
<td>From volunteering at this organisation, my self-esteem has been enhanced. From volunteering at this organisation, I feel better about myself.</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - protective motive</strong></td>
<td>Volunteering at this organisation allows me to escape some of my own troubles. Volunteering at this organisation allows me to feel less lonely.</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - understanding motive</strong></td>
<td>I have been able to explore my own personal strengths through volunteering at this organisation. I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering at this organisation.</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - social motive</strong></td>
<td>People close to me know that I am volunteering at this organisation. My friends have found out that I do volunteer work for this organisation.</td>
<td>.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fulfilment - career motive</strong></td>
<td>By volunteering at this organisation, I have been able to make new contacts that might help my business or career. By volunteering at this organisation, I have been able to add important experience to my resume.</td>
<td>.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived organisational support (POS)</strong></td>
<td>The organisation always appreciates any extra effort from me. The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work. The organisation values my contribution as a volunteer. The organisation really cares about my wellbeing. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work. The organisation would not ignore any complaint from me. The organisation shows much concern for me.</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leader-member</strong></td>
<td>My supervisor is satisfied with my work. My supervisor understands my work problems and needs. My supervisor knows how good I am at my job.</td>
<td>.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exchange (LMX)</td>
<td>My supervisor is willing to use her/his power to help me solve work problems.</td>
<td>.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.</td>
<td>.778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My supervisor is willing to help me at work when I really need it.</td>
<td>.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Affective commitment | I enjoy discussing my organisation with outside people. | .704 |
| | I feel like “part of the family” at this organisation. | .698 |
| | This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | .782 |
| | I feel a strong sense of belonging to the organisation. | .744 |
| | I feel strong ties with the organisation. | .813 |
| | I would be very happy to spend the rest of my volunteering work with this organisation. | .775 |

| Job satisfaction | Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job. | .626 |
| | I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job. | .714 |
| | I do not frequently think of quitting this job. | .720 |
| | Most people are very satisfied with their job. | .766 |

| Intention to stay | I intend to keep on doing the job in this organisation, for the foreseeable future. | .596 |
| | I see myself still volunteering for this organisation one year from now. | .655 |
| | I do not intend to pursue an alternative volunteering job in the next two years. | .570 |

Note: N = 213

5.2.5 Reliability test results
Although the factor rotation showed that there are seventeen variables, it was equally important to test the reliability of these variables. The reliability of the variables was tested by calculating the Cronbach’s alpha (\( \alpha \)) of each set of variables. The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is one of the most commonly used tools to determine the homogeneity of each construct (variate) and a consistency score of 0.7 or above is considered acceptable (Byrne 2010; Hair et al. 2010; Pallant 2013). All the variates’ reliability scores were above the required 0.7. The Cronbach’s coefficient alphas of all the variates are shown in Table 5.4 below. Other processes used to ensure the internal consistency (homogeneity) of the measures are discussed in Section 5.7.1.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values1</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.1127</td>
<td>.88300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values2</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.1174</td>
<td>.81861</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values3</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.1737</td>
<td>.83149</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values4</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.1596</td>
<td>.80848</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values5</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.0000</td>
<td>.77093</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.7746</td>
<td>1.03974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.4789</td>
<td>1.03967</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.6948</td>
<td>1.07975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.7512</td>
<td>1.09418</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.4883</td>
<td>1.01224</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motives</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.9765</td>
<td>1.23411</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motives</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9718</td>
<td>1.11557</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.3944</td>
<td>1.17777</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motives</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.2594</td>
<td>1.96346</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motives</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>4.2207</td>
<td>1.13401</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3 Data analysis technique

The selection of an appropriate data analysis technique for a specific research problem depends on the research questions and conceptual foundations of the relationships of the variables intended to be examined (Hair et al. 2006). In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that the decision should be based on choosing the technique that provides the best logical fit of all the components in the research
design model. Based on this, two statistical methods – descriptive statistics and regression analysis (simple and multiple regression) – were considered appropriate to analyse the variables investigated.

Descriptive statistics such as mean, frequency distribution and standard deviation within the SPSS package were used to analyse the demographic data and other variables. These distributions help to describe, explain and summarise the basic patterns in the data in terms of the mean and the frequency of responses for each of the questions in the questionnaire. Regression analysis was used to examine the path model of this study because it provides a logical fit for all the components of the research design.

5.4 Overview of regression analysis
A regression analysis is a multivariate technique that is used to explain relationships between variables (Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Regression analysis is generally a linear model in which a line that represents a summary of values that best fit the data is used to predict the behaviour of one variable based on the behaviour of another. The technique consists of two main categories which are simple and multiple regression. Simple regression consists of a single independent (predictor) variable and a dependent (criterion) variable, while a model with one or more independent predictors and one dependent variable is referred to as multiple regression (Hair et al. 2010). A simple regression can be used to achieve one goal which is to predict the value of the dependent variable from a single predictor, and more complex goals can be achieved with multiple regression because more independent variables can be added to improve the prediction of the dependent variable.

Multiple regression can be further classified into three categories based on how the variables are entered into the regression equation. These are the forced entry, hierarchical and stepwise methods. The forced entry method involves the entering of all the independent variables into the regression equation; the hierarchical method involves entering the variables in an orderly manner; and in the stepwise method the order of entry is purely mathematical (Hair et al. 2010). In the forced entry and hierarchical methods, the researcher selects the order for entering of variables. The
order of entry in hierarchical method is based on their level of importance in previous research findings.

The main objectives of multiple regression are to predict: 1) the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables; 2) the best possible explanation for the overall predictive power of the independent variables; and 3) the characteristics and degree (direction and size) of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable (Neuman 2011; Hair et al. 2010). This adaptability and flexibility is one of the reasons it is the most commonly used technique, especially in business and market research (Hair et al. 2010; Mason & Perreault 1991). Besides its adaptability and flexibility, it is simple to use and it can accurately predict and explain the relationships between several variables simultaneously. According to Hair et al. (2010), both the predictive and explanatory power of multiple regression have contributed to its increasing usage.

In addition, multiple regression examines the regression coefficients for each independent variable, which helps the researcher to draw inferences, for example regarding the effects of these predictors on the dependent variables. As such, the use of multiple regression analysis makes it easier to explain the effect of each variable in the hypotheses (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Furthermore, multiple regression analysis is a suitable procedure for the testing of theories such as the one being tested in this study that is based on a theoretical relationship (Hair & Black 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007).

The objectives of both simple and multiple regression are in line with the objectives of this study, which is to show significant associations and explain the effect of POS, LMX (independent variables) and volunteers’ motive fulfilment (mediating variables) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay (dependent variables).

Hence, both simple and multiple regression techniques were used in this study in order for the researcher to be able to explore all the kinds of dependency relationships hypothesised by combining the best estimates of the independent variables to provide a linear relationship across a set of dependent variables (Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Consequently, the researcher was able to obtain the optimal prediction for the sum of all the variables as well as the predictive power of each separately. In
addition, the magnitude and statistical significance of the predicted effect of the independent and mediating variables can also be determined.

5.5 The conventional process of regression analysis
Before running a regression analysis, there are processes and assumptions that must be adhered to. These include determining an appropriate sample size for the analysis, selecting the dependent and independent variables, and testing for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. These processes are explained below in Section 5.5.1

5.5.1 Stage 1: Select objectives
The selection of objectives is the first step the researcher takes in his/her study. This includes identifying an appropriate research problem, specifying the statistical relationship and selecting the dependent and independent variables (Hair et al. 2010). As indicated in Section 1.3.1, the objectives of this study were to predict and explain the effect of volunteer POS, and LMX (independent variables) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay (dependent variables) by determining the influence of volunteer motive fulfilment (intervening variable) on the association between the independent and dependent variables in community NPOs. This was tested by examining the research questions through the hypotheses. In a study that involves dealing with data representing human behaviour, predictions have to be based on a statistical relationships and not functional relationships due to the influence of other unobservable components (Hair et al. 2010). A statistical relationship is estimated using the average value of the dependent variable and provides only an approximate prediction, whereas, a functional relationship calculates an exact value and represents a perfect prediction (Hair et al. 2010). The sampled data for this study represented human behaviour and as such, a perfect prediction was not possible. Hence, in this study the focus was only the statistical relationship between the variables that were examined.

5.5.2 Measurement model validity
Another critical assumption that needs to be satisfied in the first stage of the research is the selection of dependent and independent variables. Three factors that need to be considered in doing this are: 1) strong theory, 2) measurement error and 3)
specification error (Hair et al. 2010). All these help the researcher to assess the measurement model validity and they are discussed below.

5.5.2.1 Internal validity

As explained in Chapter 4 (Section 4.7), internal validity helps to establish the extent to which inferences can be made about the existence of a cause and effect relationship between two variables, and also ensure that the study’s design is free from internal errors (Davis 2005; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Neuman 2011). With regard to the first factor (strong theory), Hair et al. (2010) argue that the selection of dependent and independent variables should be based primarily on conceptual or theoretical grounds. Evidence of the theoretical relationship between the selected independent and dependent variables provides confidence that the research findings can be applied to the general population. The selection of the independent and dependent variables examined in this study was therefore based on their theoretical relationships, as described in Chapters Two and Three. The relationships between social exchange constructs in terms of management and their supports (POS and LMX) and workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay) have been well supported in the literature on paid employees. However, as indicated in Chapter Three, the aim of this research is not only to predict the relationships between these variables but also to develop a causal model that explains the process involved in the association between these predictors and the dependent variables being examined (i.e. how certain variables mediate these relationships). As such, job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay were selected as the dependent variables to be predicted by POS and LMX, with volunteer motive fulfilment acting as a mediator.

The second factor, which is the measurement error, is an indication of the extent to which the variable accurately and consistently measures the concept under study (Hair et al. 2010). The measurement error can only be minimised in studies such as this, where reflective measurements are used. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), when latent variables (reflective measurement approach) are used to measure observed variables, there is always the possibility the observed variables will not be completely explained because of some degree of measurement error. Minimising the measurement error is important because a high measurement error decreases the
accuracy of predictions. In order to minimise the occurrence of high measurement error, this study applied simple rules of thumb, which included the use of summated scales as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). It was explained previously in Section 4.11 that all the variables examined in this study were measured with multiple item scales. In addition, the use of exploratory factor analysis ensured that variables that did not represent what they were intended to measure were excluded from the final model.

The third factor is specification error, which has to be considered because of its potential effects on the final result. Specification error refers to “the inclusion of irrelevant variables or the omission of relevant variables from the set of independent variables” (Hair et al. 2010, p.163). Too many questions can lead to the inclusion of irrelevant variables, reducing the generalisability of the results to the population due to overfitting of the sample data (Hair & Black 1998). In other words, the results will be too specific to the sample used in the research. On the other hand, too few questions may result in leaving out some important variables. The exclusion of key variables impacts on the “estimated effects” of those included (Hair & Black 1998, p 3). To minimise the effect of specification error, all the independent variables included in this study have been supported theoretically and practically in the literature review. Other steps taken to ensure that the instruments selected actually reflect the intended constructs, and to also minimise both measurement and specification errors, are discussed in the section that follows (Section 5.5.2.2).

5.5.2.2 Construct validity
To assess the credibility of the measures used, it is important to ensure that the items used actually represent the theoretical construct they intend to measure (Schumacker & Lomax 2004). Construct validity includes content, nomological, convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al. 2010; Kline 2011). As indicated in Section 4.7, the content (face) validity was established by the use of pre-validated questions and also by pre-testing the survey instruments. Nomological validity, which requires that “the summated scale makes accurate predictions of other concepts in a theoretically-based model” (Hair et al. 1998, p. 118), has been established with the discussion in Chapter Two (theoretical relationships) and Chapter Three (conceptual model).
Convergent validity is used to determine the extent of correlation between two items measuring the same concept. It means that items measuring the same factor will have to correlate with each other, all loadings should be statistically significant and the average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the items should be more than .50 (Hair et al. 2010; Kline 2011). The AVE represents each variable’s average commonality value and it should be greater than the square of the correlation with any other variables (Gefen & Straub 2005; Vinzi et al. 2010). AVE was used because it takes into account measurement error when calculating the average variance of each item. The average variance values for the 17 latent variables of this study ranged from 0.55 to 0.89 all of which are above the minimum value recommended. These values provide additional support for the convergence of the items and also confirm that all the latent variables are distinct from each other (discriminant validity).

Convergent validity is used to determine the extent of correlation across two items measuring the same concept. It means that items measuring the same factor will have to correlate with each other, all loadings should be statistically significant and the average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the items should be more than .50 (Hair et al. 2010; Kline 2011). The AVE represents each variable’s average commonality value and it should be greater than the square correlation with any other variables (Gefen & Straub 2005; Vinzi et al. 2010). AVE was used because it takes into account measurement error when calculating the average variance of each item. A variance value of 0.50 or greater is acceptable because it shows that the latent variables explain at least 50% variance of their respective items (Gefen & Straub 2005; Hock & Ringle 2006). The average variance for the 17 latent variables of this study were above the minimum value recommended. The values range from 0.55 to 0.89, providing additional support for the convergence of the items and showing that all the latent variables are also distinct from each other (discriminant validity).
Table 5.5: Convergent validity of each variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values motive</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motive</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement motive</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motive</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective motive</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career motive</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career motive fulfilment</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to stay</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213

Discriminant validity, on the other hand, is used to ensure that the items of a specific factor are distinctively different from others (Cooper & Schindler 2003). To ensure that a set of items is distinctively different from others, the square of the value for the correlation between two variables should be less than the sum of the two variables AVE (Hair et al. 2010; Vinzi et al. 2010). Otherwise, there will be an issue with the discriminant validity if the value of the square of the correlation estimate of a pair of variables is greater than the combined variance extracted. From the calculation of both AVE and the square of the correlation estimates of each pair of constructs examined in this study, it was found that there was no problem with discriminant validity. A summary of the result is presented in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6: Discriminant validity test of pair of constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct pairs</th>
<th>Combined AVE</th>
<th>Square of correlation estimates</th>
<th>Discriminant validity satisfied?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POS → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Affective organisational Commitment</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Intention to stay</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Values fulfilment</td>
<td>0.690</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Social fulfilment</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS → Career fulfilment</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Affective commitment</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Intention to stay</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Values fulfilment</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Social fulfilment</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX → Career fulfilment</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213

5.5.3 Stage 2: Research design issues
Sample size is an important factor to consider when using regression analysis because it affects the statistical power of significance ($R^2$) and the generalisability of the result (Hair et al. 2010). The statistical power ($R^2$) refers to “how well a set of variables explains a dependent variable” (Neuman 2011, p. 411). Researchers are advised to choose an appropriate sample size because smaller samples (less than 30 or 50+5n participants) result in less statistical significance and larger samples (1000 or more participants) make the statistical significance test highly sensitive. Both Green's (1991) and Hair et al.’s (2010) rules of thumb for minimum acceptable sample size were considered to determine if the number of surveys collected met the minimum sample size requirements. Green (1991) recommends that the minimum sample size should be 104 + k (k is the number of predictors), if the purpose of the research is to test both the overall model fit and the contribution of individual predictors. Hair et al. (2010) recommends a ratio of 5:1 as an acceptable minimum sample size. Based on Green’s (1991) formula, the minimum sample size for this study would be 104 + 8 = 112. As indicated earlier, 213 survey responses were available for analysis. The number gives a ratio of 12 respondents to each variable, which exceeds the recommended minimum acceptable ratio of 5:1 (Hair et al. 2010; Manning & Munro
2007). The sample size was also tested for adequacy with the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Test (KMO). According to Hair et al. (2010), a sample is considered adequate when the KMO score is above 0.70. The sample size for this study was considered adequate as the KMO score was 0.836 which is above the benchmark and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was also highly significant (p<0.001). The KMO and Bartlett’s test results are shown in Table 5.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.836</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>12706.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>2346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213

5.5.4 Stage 3: Assumptions in multiple regression analysis

5.5.4.1 Assessment of normality
Data distribution needs to be checked for normality since it is one of the fundamental assumptions required for multiple regression analysis (Field 2013; Hair et al. 2006; 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Normality refers to the shape of data distribution that is in line with the standard benchmark (normal distribution) for statistical methods (Field 2013; Hair et al. 2010). In other words, normality is calculated using a continuous probability distribution showing all possible values of the variables on the horizontal axis as well as the possibility of their occurring on the vertical axis. Researchers are advised to check the extent to which the shape of each data distribution varies from the normal distribution in order to assess the impact of violating the normality assumption (Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). The severity of a variation can be detected by a visual check of the probability plot or the histogram of each variable. Apart from the probability plot or the histogram, statistical calculations of Kurtosis and skewness can be used as reliable techniques to check the normality of data distribution. Kurtosis represents the ‘peakedness’ or ‘flatness’ of data distribution, while the skewness refers to the balance (that is, whether distribution is centred or shifted to the left or right) of the shape when compared with the normal distribution (Field 2013; Hair et al. 2010). Both kurtosis and skewness can also be checked or calculated statistically as z-values with SPSS. If the calculated z-value is higher than
the specific critical value, then the distribution is regarded as non-normal. The most frequently used critical values are ±2.58 and ±1.96 which relate to 0.01 and 0.05 significance levels respectively (Hair et al. 2010). The skewness and kurtosis were examined and none of the values obtained were outside the acceptable range. Although most of the values were negative, they were within the range (skewness -0.02 to -1.4 and kurtosis -0.74 to 1.94). The skewness and kurtosis table is attached in Appendix D.

5.5.4.2 Linearity
Linearity is another implicit assumption of multiple regression analysis and it is used to describe the correlations between variables (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Linearity represents the extent to which the data are in a straight line when represented on a graph. Linearity shows the unit constant change of the independent and dependent variables. The most common way of assessing linearity is by examining the scatterplots of the variables to identify any non-linear patterns in the data (Hair et al. 2010). Examination of the individual variables scatterplots and the histograms in this study shows that all data appeared to be linear and normally distributed as there were no major deviations for any of the variables.

5.5.4.3 Homoscedasticity
Homoscedasticity is the assumption that dependent variables exhibit similar levels of variance (i.e. they are distributed evenly) across all ranges of independent variables (Hair et al. 2010; Kline 2011). Data are regarded as homoscedastic if variance of the error terms appears to be constant over a range of predictor variables. If the error terms appear in a modulating form, the data is regarded as heteroscedastic. Sources of heteroscedasticity include the types of variables and the skewness of one or two data distribution variables (Hair et al. 2010).

The box plot was selected as an appropriate tool for examining homoscedasticity because it depicts any variations within the individual groups (Field 2013; Hair et al. 2010). There was no indication of heteroscedasticity as there was not much variation in the data in any of the box plots examined in this study. In addition, the use of a wide range of answers increases the evenness of the distribution of the variables (Hair & Black 1999; Hair et al. 2006). The wide range of responses (on a six-point scale) used
in this study helped to increase homoscedasticity and the normal distribution of data indicates that the assumptions of homoscedasticity have been met.

5.5.4.4 Independence of the error terms

In multiple regression analysis, it is assumed that any predicted value is independent, meaning that it has no relationship with any other predictions and that it is not “sequenced by any variable” (Field 2013; Hair et al. 1998, p.175). Independence of the error terms occurs when unpredicted situations that may affect the analysis occur during the research process and are not included in the research model (Hair et al. 2010). Independence can be identified by the occurrence of a consistent pattern in the residuals when independent residuals are plotted against any other sequencing variable (Field 2013; Hair & Black 1999; Hair et al. 2010). For a longitudinal study, the occurrence of independence of the error terms can be corrected by indicating the effects of time differences in data collection, or by including indicator variables or using specially formulated regression models (Hair & Black 1999). In cross-sectional studies where data is collected once within a specified period, residual plots are recommended to identify such occurrences (Hair & Black 1998). In this study, this assumption was checked by plotting the residuals of the variables. All the residual plots indicated the conditions for independence of the error terms were met, as all the patterns were randomly distributed as recommended by Hair et al. (2010).

5.6 Identification and correction of outliers

An outlier is a single value that is distinctly different from other values in a scatterplot graph of observed variables (Hair et al. 2010). Such (univariate) values are noticeable because they do not fall within the normal range of responses (normal distribution) (Field 2013). This means the value is either very high or very low in comparison to other data values. A combination of two or more such values is referred to as a multivariate outlier (Hair et al. 2010; Zikmund et al. 2013). Outliers can occur as a result of mistakes in data entering or coding (procedural errors), or they may be due to the occurrence of extraordinary events during data collection which the researcher may or may not be able to explain (Hair et al. 2010). Generally, an outlier either increases or decreases the relationships between variables, causing both Type I and Type II errors (Hair et al. 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Type I and II errors affect
the extent to which the research findings can be generalised. Hence, it is recommended that the researcher should make an effort to detect and rectify outliers.

Checking for outliers involves testing for both univariate and multivariate outliers. Based on Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2007) recommendation, the z scores of the dependent variables in this study were examined to find out whether any of the variables were in excess of ±3.29 at \( p < .001 \) using a two-tailed test. The occurrence of such values is an indication of an outlier. All the z scores were within the acceptable range. In addition, both the initial normality tests, skewness and kurtosis scores were within the required range which indicated there were no outliers. Hence, no further action was required. As for multivariate outliers, researchers use the Mahalanobis distance statistic to detect them (Hair et al. 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). The Mahalanobis distance is a measure of the distance of each variable from the mean intersection (centroid) of all the variables and it is represented as the chi-square (\( \chi^2 \)) (Hair et al. 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). The calculation of the Mahalanobis distance in this study showed that there were no multivariate outliers as none of the values were above the critical value of \( \chi^2 = 21.955 \) at \( \alpha = .005 \).

5.7 Multicollinearity
Multicollinearity refers to a high correlation between the independent (predictor) variables. Multicollinearity affects both the explanation and estimation processes (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). This study used the correlation matrix which is the most common technique for identifying collinearity. The impact of collinearity was examined by calculating the tolerance value and the inverse – the variance inflation factor (VIF). These measures help to determine the degree to which a specific independent variable is explained by another independent variable. The presence of high correlations of .90 and above among the independent variables is an indication of collinearity (Hair et al. 2010). Both the correlation matrix and the VIF were used to test for collinearity in this study and the results show that none of the independent variables were highly correlated. The tolerance values were less than 1.00 and the lowest and highest VIF values were 1.15 and 2.05, which are below the cut-off value of 10 (Cohen et al. 2003). The results of the tolerance value and VIF are shown in Table 5.9 while the results of correlation matrix are shown in Table 5.9 Section 5.8.1.
Table 5.8: Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>-0.115</td>
<td>0.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>-0.212</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
<td>0.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>-0.057</td>
<td>0.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader-member exchange</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived organisational support</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.683</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213

5.8 Stage 4: Estimating the regression model
Having met all the requirements discussed above, the next step was to estimate the regression model. The estimation of the regression model in this study began with the correlation matrix, a brief explanation of the procedures and finally the results of the hypotheses that addressed Research Questions 1 and 2.

5.8.1 Correlation matrix
A correlation matrix was used to determine the direction and strength of the relationships between all variables, as well as to test Hypothesis 1 which was formulated to test whether each of the six motives would correlate positively to its fulfilment. Table 5.9 shows the correlation coefficients for each variable, the means and the standard deviations of all the variables examined in the present study.
Table 5.9: Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables

| Variables                      | M    | SD   | 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | 8   | 9   | 10  | 11  | 12  | 13  | 14  | 15  | 16  | 17  | 18  | 19  | 20  | 21  | 22  | 23  | 24  |
|-------------------------------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1. Gender                     | 1.343| .476 | .1  |    |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2. Age                        | 7.156| 3.329| .090| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3. Marital Status             | 2.249| .901 | .218| .112| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4. Education                  | 2.906| 1.073| -.169| .214| .160| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 5. Occupation                 | 3.286| 1.780| -.050| .172| .322| -.109| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 6. No of Hours per week       | 1.901| .908 | .076| .005| .169| -.121| .432| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 7. No of years                | 2.884| 1.172| .050| .042| .055| .031| .177| .089| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 8. Value                      | 5.113| .011 | .039| .009| .111| .074| .124| .126| .156| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 10. Career                    | 4.096| 1.114| .116| -.737| .168| -.299| -.221| -.006| -.142| -.130| .378| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 11. Enhancement               | 3.999| .929 | -.200| .043| .248| .257| -.044| .119| -.232| .104| .452| .032| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 12. Protective                | 3.977| 1.000| -.160| .024| .326| .203| .265| .191| .112| .209| .254| -.069| .004| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 13. Understanding             | 4.038| .918 | .011| -.045| .138| .129| .134| .173| .285| .323| .030| -.005| -.052| .095| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 14. Understanding fulfilment  | 4.200| 1.023| -.026| .080| .141| .220| -.077| .037| -.006| .202| .216| -.141| .156| .170| .170| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 15. Enhancement fulfilment    | 4.082| 1.101| -.180| -.009| .130| .180| -.034| .051| -.289| .039| -.001| .028| .360| .321| -.057| .300| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 16. Social fulfilment         | 3.932| 1.071| -.190| .158| .216| .353| .082| .117| -.001| .165| .216| -.213| .187| .177| .126| .321| .257| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 17. Career fulfilment         | 3.678| 1.159| .008| -.210| -.068| -.020| -.148| -.964| .181| .121| .047| .166| .146| .097| .046| .091| .170| .167| .1  |     |     |     |     |     |
| 18. Value fulfilment          | 4.458| 1.021| -.096| -.025| .044| .190| -.111| -.147| -.156| .196| .026| .027| .142| .189| .133| .328| .305| .250| .209| .1  |     |     |     |
| 20. LMX                       | 4.076| .926 | .109| .011| .094| .194| -.189| .056| -.178| .140| .173| -.050| .248| .186| .121| .419| .415| .412| .424| .304| .209| .1  |     |     |
| 24. Intentions to stay        | 4.002| 1.272| -.170| .052| .187| .232| -.019| .018| -.181| .197| .126| -.083| .194| .194| .133| .496| .461| .475| .294| .493| .269| .614| .656| .587| .554| .1  |

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

Note: N = 213
Despite the fact that the variables correlated with each other, there was no problem with multicollinearity and common method bias because none of the correlations with other variables that could have indicated the problem of multicollinearity or common method bias was above 0.90 (Pavlou, Liang & Xue 2006). The analysis of the results indicates that all the independent variables correlated positively and significantly with the outcomes or dependent variables at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels.

The values of the correlations between demographic variables and other variables were relatively very low. However, age was included in the regression analyses as a control variable because previous studies have indicated that age is a factor that influences individuals’ motives for volunteering (see Okun & Schultz 2003; Wilson 2000; Stukas et al. 2016).

From the correlation matrix (Table 5.9), POS was found to have higher correlations with job satisfaction \((r = .613)\), affective commitment \((r = .622)\) and intention to stay \((r = .655)\), than LMX had with job satisfaction \((r = .508)\), affective commitment \((r = .583)\) and intention to stay \((r = .614)\). These results are in line with previous findings. For example, POS had the highest correlation with affective commitment in a study of nurses by Xerri (2013). In terms of motive fulfilment, altruistic motive fulfilment is highly correlated with POS \((R = .539)\), LMX \((r = .422)\), job satisfaction \((r = .510)\), affective commitment \((r = .485)\) and intention to stay \((r = .493)\). These high correlations can be explained by the fact that the principal reason most of the volunteers gave their services in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia was to reach out to the most vulnerable and less privileged ones in the community. This is evident in Table 5.3, with items for the values motive having the highest mean scores (mean from, 5.00-5.17, SD from, 0.81-0.88). Several other studies of volunteers have also supported this finding (see Clary et al. 1998; Davis, Hall and Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2007).

In contrast, three egoistic motives (understanding, enhancement and social fulfilment) are more highly correlated with POS, LMX, affective commitment, job satisfaction and intention to stay than two egoistic motives (career and protective fulfilment). The mean scores and standard deviations of understanding motive fulfilment \((M = 4.20, SD = 1.02)\), enhancement motive fulfilment \((M = 4.08\ SD = 1.10)\) and social motive fulfilment \((M = 3.93, SD = 1.07)\) also indicate that these were strong reasons for volunteering in
most of the community NPOs investigated in this study. Thus, fulfilment of these motives had a greater impact on the volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay than career and protective motives. Other researchers have also found that the fulfilment of these motives has a greater impact on these outcomes. For example, Finkelstein (2008) found that the fulfilment of understanding and enhancement motives were the strongest predictors of time donated to volunteering. Ryan, Kaplan and Grese (2001) found that the social motive was an important predictor of volunteers’ commitment to an environmental stewardship programme.

Now that the relationships between motive fulfilment, independent and dependent variables have been established, the procedures for testing the hypotheses are examined in Section 5.8.2.

### 5.8.2 Procedures for hypothesis testing of workplace outcomes

A simple linear regression was used to test the validity of Hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 which proposed direct relationships between POS, LMX and job satisfaction, and affective commitment and intention to stay. To test Hypotheses 3, 5, 7, 9, 11 and 13, which address the possible indirect relationships, multiple regressions were used. To ensure that the mediation analysis process fulfilled the conditions put forward by Baron and Kenny (1986), a series of multiple regressions were explored for each of the hypotheses. The first condition, which was to test for the effect of the independent variables (POS and LMX) on the mediators, was met by regressing the mediators on each of the independent variables. The second condition, which was to test for the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables, was determined by regressing the dependent variables on the independent variables. The third condition, which was to test for the effect of the mediators on the dependent variables, was established by regressing each of the dependent variables on motive fulfilment. Lastly, the fourth condition, which was to test for mediators’ effect, was met by regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variables and the mediators. However, since the second condition would have been met with the analysis of the direct relationship between the independent and the dependent variables, only the other three steps were performed. Thus, three separate steps are shown in the tables under the mediation analysis.
5.8.3 Hypotheses testing
Hypotheses 1a–1f were tested using correlation coefficients. As shown in the Table 5.9, the results support the acceptance of Hypotheses 1a–1f because each of the motives correlates significantly with the extent to which it was fulfilled. The values (altruism) fulfilment motive was predicted by the values (altruism) motive \(r = .196, p < .01\); the enhancement fulfilment motive was predicted by the enhancement motive \(r = .350, p < .01\); and all others such as the social fulfilment motive \(r = .216, p < .01\) were predicted by their corresponding motives. These findings are consistent with previous results in the literature (see Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2008). Moreover, as can be seen from the correlation above (Table 5.9), the extent to which the motives were fulfilled has high scores of correlations with job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay than motives for volunteering. These findings are also consistent with Davis, Hall and Meyer's (2003) and Finkelstein's (2008) studies in which motive fulfilment was better predictors of volunteers' workplace outcomes than initial motive.

Hypothesis 2 states that: **Volunteers’ perceived organisational support is positively related to their job satisfaction.** The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between POS and job satisfaction was positive and significant \(R^2 = 38.2, F = 64.973, P < .0001\). POS accounts for 38.2 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction. This indicates that volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia who have positive perceptions of the support they receive from their organisations are more satisfied with their work. This is consistent with findings from two studies about paid employees (Paillé, Grima & Dufour 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002) and studies on volunteers (Farmer & Fedor 1999; Guntert & Wehner 2008; Lo Presti 2013).
Table 5.10: Regression analysis detailing the relationship between POS and volunteers’ job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>-.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.614**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.382**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>64.973**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 3 states that: *Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and job satisfaction.* The hypothesis was partially supported as the results from the mediated multiple regression analysis show a decrease in the effect of POS on job satisfaction (F = 26.999, R² = .480, p = .001). The initial beta (β) weight of POS on job satisfaction in the direct relationship dropped from .614 to .274 after the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model, as shown in Table 5.11 below. The analysis clearly shows that three out of the six motive fulfilment variables (i.e. fulfilment of values, understanding and enhancement motives) played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and job satisfaction. The fulfilment of career, social and protective motives did not play a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and job satisfaction. Table 5.11 shows the mediation results and the step-by-step regressions that were conducted to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis.
Table 5.11: Mediated multiple regression detailing the relationships between POS and job satisfaction through motive fulfilment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Description</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (POS on all motive fulfilment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.299**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.294**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.181*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.171*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.183**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>.557**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.557**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>36.869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 (All motive fulfilment on job satisfaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-.252</td>
<td>.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
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<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
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<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.447**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>33.637</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 (Job satisfaction on both POS and motive fulfilment)

| Constant | -.143 | .363 |
| Age      | -.026 | .017 | -.080 |
| POS      | .354  | .097 | .274** |
| Values fulfilment | .238 | .064 | .223** |
| Understanding fulfilment | .156 | .065 | .147* |
| Enhancement fulfilment | .149 | .057 | .150* |
| Social fulfilment | .108 | .058 | .106 |
| Career fulfilment | .077 | .052 | .081 |
| F | 26.999** | |
| R² | .480** | |

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 4 states that: *LMX is positively related to volunteers’ job satisfaction.*

The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction was positive and significant ($R^2 = 26.4$, $F = 37.589$, $P < .0001$). LMX accounts for 26.4 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction. The results suggest that a positive relationship between volunteers and supervisors increased the volunteers’ levels of job satisfaction. However, the effect of LMX on job satisfaction was not as high as that of POS.
Table 5.12: Regression analysis detailing the relationship between LMX and volunteers’ job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<td>.019</td>
<td>-.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.509**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| R²       | 26.4**   |
| F        | 37.589** |

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 5 states that: Volunteer motives will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and job satisfaction. The hypothesis was partially supported as the result from the mediated multiple regression analysis showed a decrease in the effect of LMX on job satisfaction (F = .462, R² = .462, p = .001). The beta (β) weight of LMX dropped from .509 to .164 after the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model. The analysis clearly shows that the fulfilment of the values, understanding, enhancement, social, and career motives played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ LMX and job satisfaction, while the fulfilment of career, social and protective motives did not play a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and job satisfaction. Table 5.13 shows the mediation results and the step-by-step regressions that was conducted to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis.
Hypothesis 6 states that: Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to their affective commitment. The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between POS and affective commitment was positive and significant (R² = .393, F = 67.854, p < .0001). POS accounts for 39.3 per cent of the variance in affective commitment. This result indicates that volunteers’ perceptions of positive organisational support contributed 39.3 per cent of the variance in affective commitment of volunteers in the community NOPs studied.
Table 5.14: Regression analysis detailing the relationship between POS and volunteers’ affective commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.393**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>67.854**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 7 states that: Volunteer motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and affective commitment. The hypothesis was partially supported as the results from the mediated multiple regression analysis show a decrease in the effect of POS on affective commitment (F = 32.898, R² = .490, p = .001). The beta (β) weight of POS dropped from .621 to .304 after the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model. The analysis clearly shows that the fulfilment of values, understanding and enhancement motives played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and affective commitment, while the fulfilment of career, social and protective motives did not play a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and affective commitment. The steps taken to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis are shown in Table 5.15.
Hypothesis 8 states that: *There is a positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment.* The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between LMX and affective commitment was positive and significant ($R^2 = .346$, $F = 55.515$, $P < .0001$). LMX accounts for 33.8 per cent of the variance in affective commitment.
Table 5.16: Regression analysis detailing the relationship between LMX and volunteers' affective commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.346**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>55.515**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 9 stated that: Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and affective commitment. The hypothesis was partially supported as the results from the mediated multiple regression analysis show a decrease in the effect of LMX on affective commitment (F = 34.466, R² = .501, p = .001). The beta (β) weight of LMX dropped from .583 to .296 when the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model. The analysis clearly shows that the fulfilment of the values, understanding and enhancement motives played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ LMX and affective commitment, while the fulfilment of career, social and protective motives did not play significant role in the association between community volunteers’ LMX and affective commitment. The steps taken to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis are shown in Table 5.17.
Table 5.17: Mediated multiple regression detailing the relationships between LMX and affective commitment through the mediators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (LMX on all motive fulfilment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>-.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.211**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.195**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.193**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.221**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.132*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.390**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>18.962**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (All motive fulfilment on affective commitment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.259</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.275**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.268*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.258*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.116*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>-.020</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>-.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.451**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>24.027**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (Affective commitment on both LMX and motive fulfilment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.307</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.296**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.217**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.210**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.204**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.501**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>34.466**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .01 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 10 states that: Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to intention to stay. The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between POS and intention to stay was positive and significant (R² = .430, F = 79.828, P < .0001). POS accounts for 43.0 per cent of the variance in intention to stay. The result suggests that volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia with positive perceptions of organisational support will not consider leaving their organisations.
Hypothesis 11 states that: *The association between POS and intention to stay will be mediated by volunteers’ motive fulfilment.* The hypothesis was partially supported as the results from the mediated multiple regression analysis show a decrease in the effect of POS on intention to stay (\( F = 35.622, R^2 = .549 \ p = .001 \)). The beta (\( \beta \)) weight of POS dropped from .654 to .285 when the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model. The analysis clearly shows that fulfilment of the values, understanding, enhancement and social motives played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and intention stay, while the fulfilment of career and protective motives did not play a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ POS and intention to stay. The steps taken to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis are shown in Table 5.19.
Table 5.19: Mediated multiple regression detailing the relationships between POS and intention to stay through motive fulfilment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (POS on all motive fulfilment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfilment</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.299**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfilment</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.294**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfilment</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.181*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfilment</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.171*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfilment</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.183**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfilment</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.557**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>36.869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 (All motive fulfilment on intention to stay)

| Constant | -1.938 | .443 | |
| Age | .013 | .019 | .035 |
| Values fulfilment | .317 | .067 | .255** |
| Understanding fulfilment | .294 | .068 | .236** |
| Enhancement fulfilment | .218 | .064 | .189* |
| Social fulfilment | .296 | .063 | .249** |
| Career fulfilment | .168 | .057 | .159* |
| Protective fulfilment | .123 | .061 | .104* |
| R² | .522** | | |
| F | 31.951** | | |

3 (Intention to stay on both POS and motive fulfilment)

| Constant | -1.665 | .394 | |
| Age | .010 | .019 | .027 |
| POS | .429 | .105 | .285 |
| Values fulfilment | .208 | .070 | .167** |
| Understanding fulfilment | .206 | .071 | .165* |
| Enhancement fulfilment | .187 | .063 | .162* |
| Social fulfilment | .235 | .062 | .198** |
| Career fulfilment | .105 | .056 | .096 |
| R² | .549** | | |
| F | 35.622** | | |

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .01 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 12 states that: **High-quality LMX is positively related to intention to stay.** The results provide support for the acceptance of this hypothesis because the relationship between LMX and intention to stay was positive and significant ($R^2 = .379$, $F = 64.199$, $P < .0001$). LMX accounts for 37.9 per cent of the variance in intention to stay. This finding indicates that good exchanges between the supervisors and volunteers influence their intention to stay in their organisation.
Table 5.20: Regression analysis detailing the relationship between LMX and volunteers' intention to stay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>.344</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.844</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.614**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² = .379**
F = 64.199**

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

Hypothesis 13 states that: Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and intention to stay. The hypothesis was partially supported as the results from the mediated multiple regression analysis show a decrease in the effect of LMX on intention to stay (F = 37.219, R² = .560, p = .001). The beta (β) weight of LMX dropped from .614 to .278 when the mediating variables were included in the multiple regression model. The analysis clearly shows fulfilment of five out of the six categories of motive fulfilment (i.e. fulfilment of the values, understanding, enhancement, social and career motives) played a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ LMX and intention to stay. The fulfilment of the protective motive did not play a significant role in the association between community volunteers’ LMX and intention to stay. The steps taken to ensure that the model met all the conditions of mediation analysis are shown in Table 5.21.
Table 5.21: Mediated multiple regression detailing the relationships between LMX and intention to stay through the mediators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (LMX on all motive fulfillment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>-.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfillment</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.211**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfillment</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.195**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfillment</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.193**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfillment</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.221**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfillment</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.132*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfillment</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.390**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>18.962**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (All motive fulfillment on intention to stay)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.938</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfillment</td>
<td>.317</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.255**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfillment</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.236**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfillment</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.189*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfillment</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.249**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfillment</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.159*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective fulfillment</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.104*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.522**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>31.951**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B scores</th>
<th>ES B scores</th>
<th>β scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 (Intention to stay on both LMX and motive fulfillment)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.810</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.278**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values fulfillment</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.193**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding fulfillment</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.196**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement fulfillment</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.162*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social fulfillment</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.185*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career fulfillment</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.111*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>37.219</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .01 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

5.9 The Sobel test
To test whether the change made by each of the mediators was significant, a Sobel test, which is a formal testing of the indirect effect of a third variable, was run. The Sobel test directly addresses the question of whether or not the total effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is significantly reduced when a mediating variable is added to the model (Preacher & Hayes 2004). This is done by calculating the product coefficients of the independent and dependent variables. Apart from the fact that the test will directly address the question of mediation by meeting Baron and Kenny’s (1986) criteria stated above, the use of a product test coefficients strategy (using the Sobel test) has greater statistical power than the multiple
regression test and any other method of calculating mediation (MacKinnon et al. 2002). In addition, the use of the Sobel test helps to minimise ‘Type I’ and ‘Type II’ errors which could occur in Baron and Kenny’s multiple regressions (MacKinnon et al. 2002; Preacher & Hayes 2004). However, the disadvantage of the Sobel test is that it is based on two conditions that are not easy to meet: the assumption that the sample is large enough and the assumption that the product is normally distributed (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007). The fulfilment of these conditions is considered to be difficult to achieve because what is “large enough” is not defined (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007). However, the sample size of this study meets the minimum ratio required and the data also meets the normality test as explained in Section 5.7.3.1. The results of the Sobel test show that each motive fulfilment acts as a significant mediating variable, and these results are presented in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22: Summary of Sobel test of mediation variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships</th>
<th>Sobel test of mediator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Altruistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS and Job satisfaction</td>
<td>3.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX and Job satisfaction</td>
<td>3.08**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS and Affective commitment</td>
<td>4.07**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX and Affective commitment</td>
<td>3.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS and intention to stay</td>
<td>3.66**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX and intention to stay</td>
<td>2.97**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 213, ** Correlation is significant < .001 level. * Correlation is significant < .05 level.

5.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, data preparation processes (data coding, data entry and cleaning, missing data analysis, detection of outliers) were discussed and the way in which the final questions that were used in the data analysis were formulated through factor analysis was also explained. The reliability of each set of variables used was discussed. The method chosen to address the research questions (regression analysis) was explained as well as the justification for selecting this method. The stages and basic assumptions of regression analysis, and how the assumptions were met, were also discussed. The last sections provided the results from the correlation
analysis, as well as the different analyses of the hypotheses that address the two research questions. In the next chapter, there will be further discussion of the findings.
Chapter Six: Discussion of the findings

6.1 Introduction
The motive for undertaking this study was to obtain a deeper understanding of how best to manage volunteers, as a review of several studies revealed shortages of volunteers due to high-dropout rates. Social exchange theory was used as a lens to examine how management and their supports (POS and LMX) and individual factors such as motive fulfilment influence volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay with their organisations. Volunteers are unlike members of the paid workforce whose motives are influenced by monetary compensation. Thus, the consideration of our findings in this chapter is based on how NPO managers can reward volunteers with resources that fulfil their motives in order to achieve the three workplace outcomes investigated in this study. In other words, the discussion that follows will consider what it means to reward volunteers within the context of the identified workplace outcomes in order to have a sustainable volunteer workforce. In addition, the findings will be discussed in terms of pattern matching to show the similarities and differences between this study’s result and the results from previous studies.

6.2 Discussion of the findings
In this section, the findings reported in Chapter Five are discussed under two main headings that reflect broad categorisations made of the findings. The findings as they apply to the impact of the independent and mediating variables on each of the workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay) will be explained under these broad headings. The different elements constituting altruistic and egoistic motives were analysed separately in terms of how the fulfilment of each these different motives influences the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three workplace outcomes.

6.2.1 The direct impact of management and their supports on the three volunteer workplace outcomes
In this section, the direct impacts of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three identified workplace outcomes will be discussed. Previous studies suggest that both POS and LMX affect job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay (see Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006; Jiménez & Fuertes 2005). As
such, it was expected that they (POS and LMX) would significantly predict these three workplace outcomes in the context of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. However, in the literature, these two independent variables have not been thoroughly examined in terms of their influence on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs.

With regard to POS, the findings of this study support the findings of prior studies and contribute new information regarding the connection between POS and volunteers’ job satisfaction in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Farmer and Fedor (1999) indicated that organisational support was related to high levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Lo Presti’s (2013) qualitative study of volunteers found job satisfaction was positively associated with the level of organisational support received. The results from this study support and confirm Farmer and Fedor’s (1999) and Lo Presti’s (2013) findings that POS has a direct, significant and positive relationship with volunteer job satisfaction. The results from this study show that the job satisfaction of the volunteers in the community NPOs investigated was positively affected by perceived management support ($\beta = .614$). However, the impact of POS on job satisfaction has not previously been thoroughly investigated in the context of volunteering, particularly in regard to volunteers in community NPOs. There are some studies on volunteers’ levels of satisfaction in the literature, their connection with management factors such as POS has not been examined in significant detail. Therefore, the findings of this study contribute new knowledge and provide a better understanding of the importance of volunteers’ experiences of how they are treated by others in their organisations, and their experiences of the recognition and rewards they receive from their organisations for their contributions. This information is important for both theory development and for practical applications, and will be discussed in Sections 7.5 and 7.6 respectively.

The findings of this study also add to existing knowledge about the relationship between POS and affective commitment. Addae, Parboteeah and Davis (2006) found perceptions of management support (being respected and valued) strengthen employees’ emotional ties with the organisation. The findings of this study are consistent with past findings (see Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006; Eisenberger et al. 2002; Maertz et al. 2007) that POS predicts affective commitment. The results from this study show that the affective commitment of volunteers in the community NPOs
investigated was positively affected by perceived management support ($\beta = .621$). The present study’s finding with respect to the relationship between POS and affective commitment is not only consistent with previous results but extends existing knowledge about the influence of POS on volunteers’ affective commitment in the third sector, specifically in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The influence of POS on volunteers’ affective commitment has not received much attention in past studies.

Previous studies have indicated that employees use the extent to which organisations respect and value their contributions to make judgements about whether the organisation has fulfilled its obligations to them (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro 1990). Perceptions of being respected and valued strengthen employees’ emotional ties with their organisations (Addae, Parboteeah & Davis 2006). However, this is more important in the case of volunteers in community NPOs because such perceptions serve as a relational currency which volunteers receive in exchange for their contributions to their organisations.

Furthermore, the existing literature has consistently shown that POS significantly predicts intention to leave or stay in an organisation. Allen, Shore and Griffeth (2003) and Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that the daily experiences (related to perceptions of being valued and cared for) of paid employees have a significant influence on their attitudes, such as intention to stay. The results of this study show that POS is directly related to volunteers’ intentions to stay ($\beta = .654$, $p < 0001$). The findings support and confirm the findings of previous studies of volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemer 2007, 2008). Penner (2002) found that the extent to which volunteers derive satisfaction from an organisation’s attributes, practices and management programmes influences their intention to leave or stay in that organisation.

Apart from the fact that the results of this study support previous findings, it also contributes new knowledge to the existing literature. From the analysis of this study, perceived support from the organisation explains the highest variance (43%) in intention to stay. This shows its importance in determining how long a volunteer will stay with an organisation. Thus, by exploring the impact of POS on volunteers’ intentions to stay, this study has shown that management of community NPOs can
increase their retention rates or reduces dropout rates by ensuring that there are policies that enhance volunteers’ daily experiences and beliefs that the organisation cares for their wellbeing and values their contributions. This is an important factor that has implications for practice (see further discussion in Section 7.6).

In addition to the discussion of the impact of POS on the three identified workplace outcomes in this study, the impacts of LMX on the three outcomes support the findings of previous studies about the importance of LMX in determining volunteers’ job satisfaction in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Bang (2011) indicates that LMX influences volunteers’ job satisfaction in sport NPOs. Furthermore, Gerstner and Day (1997), Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne (1997) and Liao, Hu and Chung (2009) conclude that a consistent and positive association exists between LMX and job satisfaction. In the findings of this study, LMX had a direct and significant relationship to the job satisfaction of volunteers in the community NPOs examined ($\beta = .509$). Thus, this study’s findings support the existing knowledge indicating that high-quality relationships between volunteers and their supervisors are important.

The results also support previous studies that have found a significant and positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment. Maertz et al. (2007) found that the quality of the relationship between a supervisor and an employee influences the employee’s commitment in the public service. Past studies on nurses have found significant relationships between LMX and nurses’ affective commitment (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto 2007; Nelson 2012). In line with these studies that have indicated that there is a positive relationship between high-quality LMX and affective commitment, the present study also finds a direct relationship between LMX and affective commitment ($\beta = .583$). This indicates that a good exchange relationship between supervisors and volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia increases trust in, and commitment to, the supervisor and the organisation. Although there are studies that have explored the direct influence of LMX on the affective commitment of paid employees (see Brunetto et al. 2013; Dulebohn et al. 2012) on volunteers in sport (see Bang 2007; Shiva & Suar 2010), none of these studies has examined the impact of LMX on volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The present study contributes new knowledge by providing a better
understanding of the impact of lower level management (LMX) relationships on volunteers’ affective commitment in community NPOs. This information is important for both theory development and for practical applications, especially in relation to other variables considered in this study. These applications will be discussed in Sections 7.5 and 7.6 respectively.

The findings of the present study are consistent with Ansari et al.’s (2007) findings which have shown that LMX negatively influences turnover intention. They are also consistent with Elanain’s (2014) findings in the non-western context of the United Arab Emirates that the quality of LMX perceptions has a significant impact on intention to leave. The hypothesis used in this study to test the impact of LMX on intention to stay was supported. The findings showed that LMX has a direct and positive effect on intention to stay (β = .614). Therefore, the findings from this study directly support previous studies’ findings on the impact of LMX on volunteers’ intentions, and they also contribute new knowledge by explaining the direct positive impact of LMX on intention to stay of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

6.2.2 The influence of volunteer motive fulfilment in the association between management and their supports and the workplace outcomes

The direct effects of POS and LMX on the three identified workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay) have been addressed above (Section 6.2.1). In this section, the indirect impacts of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three identified workplace outcomes will be discussed. It is evident in the literature that community NPOs in particular and other types of NPOs in general are finding it difficult to retain volunteers, and that effective management functions can lead to appropriate workplace outcomes, which can mitigate high dropout rates. Past studies show that positive volunteering experiences that fulfil volunteers’ motives results in job satisfaction, emotional ties and increased intention to stay (see Bang 2007; Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2007). However, there have been limited empirical findings about how managements’ actions impact on volunteers’ workplace outcomes in community NPOs through motive fulfilment. Therefore, the findings of this study contribute new knowledge to the literature, as stated below.
The findings of this study support previous results that suggest that when volunteers’ motives are fulfilled, they become more involved in ensuring that their organisation achieves its goals and they intend to stay longer. However, except for few studies such as Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003), the role of values (altruism) fulfilment as a possible factor through which other organisational factors can increase volunteers’ workplace outcomes has been ignored. Chelladurai (2006) reports that values (altruistic) motives are significantly associated with the length of service of volunteers. On the other hand, Omoto and Snyder (1995) found positive relationships between self-centred (egoistic) motives and length of service. The findings of this study are somewhat consistent with previous findings, as the fulfilment of both values (altruism) and some egoistic motives (understanding, enhancement, social and career) significantly predicted the workplace outcomes of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The results from this study also contribute new knowledge to the literature by showing the indirect effects of POS on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay through the fulfilment of values (altruistic) motives.

This study found that the fulfilment of the values motive partially mediated the impact of POS on job satisfaction ($\beta = .223$), affective commitment ($\beta = .187$) and intention to stay ($\beta = .167$). This indirect effect of POS on these workplace outcomes of volunteers in the community NPOs examined suggests that supportive organisational policies and procedures are ones that allow volunteers to express their altruistic concerns for the less privileged. In addition, volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay will increase if the organisation’s environment supports positive volunteering experiences, not only in terms of enabling volunteers to reach out to people in need, but also as a result of the organisation’s focus on helping people. Such actions form part of the socio-emotional needs of altruistically motivated individuals, the fulfilment of which will enhance volunteers’ perceptions of organisational support which in turn will affect their job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay because they serve as valuable rewards.

Also, the findings of this study are consistent with Boezeman and Ellemers’ (2008; 2009) findings that perceptions of reciprocity enhanced volunteers’ beliefs that the organisation cared for them and valued their contributions, which in turn impacted on their job satisfaction and intention to remain in the organisation. Hence, the findings of
this study provide a better understanding of how management can improve and develop a high quality relationship with volunteers. This study shows that the impacts of perceived care from the organisation on all the workplace outcomes were partially affected by the provision of supports that facilitated the fulfilment of understanding, enhancement and social motives. The association between POS and job satisfaction through the fulfilment of understanding ($\beta = .147$) and enhancement motives ($\beta = .150$), and affective commitment through fulfilment of understanding ($\beta = .177$) and enhancement motives ($\beta = .203$) indicate the importance of individual motives in developing a positive organisational relationship. In the same vein, the association between POS and intention to stay was partially mediated by the fulfilment of understanding ($\beta = .165$), enhancement ($\beta = .162$) and social ($\beta = .198$) motives. Therefore, the management of community NPOs will be able to improve the job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay of volunteers if they ensure that the support and rewards they provide promote the fulfilment of these three important motives.

Furthermore, the results from this study contribute to the third proposition of Homans (1961) that the exchange of valuable resources results in high reciprocity. In other words, for the volunteers in the community NPOs investigated, reciprocity depends on the fulfilment of these important motives. This suggests that providing clear processes and procedures for volunteers’ job activities, and supporting the personal growth of volunteers in areas such as knowledge and skill improvement, will increase their perceptions of being supported. These supports from the organisation are important rewards because they fulfil the volunteers’ functional motives which in turn cause them to feel obligated to reciprocate with positive workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). Volunteers who find that their volunteering jobs are satisfying their need for more knowledge and self-esteem are likely to consider their jobs rewarding because of the reciprocal relationships between them and the organisation. Therefore, the findings of this study contribute new information to the existing knowledge about the importance of these motives in developing a high quality management relationship that will motivate volunteers to stay. This information is important for theory development, which will be discussed in Section 7.5, and for practical applications, which will be discussed in Section 7.6.
As indicated above, in addition to the findings about the intervening variables that influence the impact of POS on job satisfaction and affective commitment, one more component of egoistic motive fulfilment, which is fulfilment of the social motive, contributed to the effect of POS on intention to stay. The fulfilment of the social motive contributed a higher variance ($\beta = .198$) than the fulfilment of the values motive ($\beta = .167$), the enhancement motive ($\beta = .162$) and the understanding motive ($\beta = .165$) in the association between POS and intention to stay. This indicates that in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia, an organisational environment that enhances social interaction and relationships will increase volunteers’ desire or intention to stay.

The significance of the fulfilment of the social motive as a mediator of the influence of POS on intention to stay in this study demonstrates the importance of volunteers’ desires for opportunities to be with friends and to engage in volunteering activities that are viewed favourably by significant others (Akintola 2011; Clary et al. 1998). This finding highlights the need to report on individual volunteers’ activities through different media such as local community newspapers, as this will not only increase or enhance the *feel good factor* experienced by the volunteer, but will also allow their significant others in the community to know of their volunteering activities. A step such as this will enable a good fit between volunteers’ expectations, experiences and volunteering activities, and it will result in increased intentions to stay, resulting in reduced turnover in NPOs (Gazley 2012).

The results from this study also add new information about the indirect impacts of supervisor exchange relationships on volunteers’ workplace outcomes. Apart from the effect of POS, previous studies have also established the indirect impacts of high-quality LMX on workplace outcomes. Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) found indirect relationships between high quality LMX and job satisfaction, and between high quality LMX and organisational commitment, through psychological empowerment. However, not much is known about the roles of motive fulfilment in the impact of LMX on the three workplace outcomes examined in this study. Therefore, the findings of this study contribute new knowledge to the literature in terms of providing a deeper understanding of how supervisor-subordinate relationships affect volunteers’ job
satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay particularly in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

The results from this study also contribute new information by examining the association between LMX and the three workplace outcomes through altruistic motive fulfilment. This has rarely been explored in previous volunteering research. This study found that the fulfilment of the values motive (altruism) partially influences the effect of LMX on the three outcomes as follows: job satisfaction (\(\beta = .374\)), affective commitment (\(\beta = .217\)) and intention to stay (\(\beta = .206\)). These findings indicate that the ability of high quality interpersonal relationship between supervisors and volunteers to predict positive workplace outcomes is influenced by the fulfilment of the values motive. Volunteers' job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay increase when they see the expression of other-oriented or altruistic tendencies towards the NPOs' beneficiaries by their supervisors.

Furthermore, the fulfilment of the understanding motive partially mediated the effect of LMX on volunteer job satisfaction (\(\beta = .234\)), affective commitment (\(\beta = .210\)) and intention to stay (\(\beta = .194\)). The influence of the fulfilment of understanding motive on the relationship between supervisors and volunteers suggests that when supervisors enable the fulfilment of the understanding motive among volunteers by providing them with opportunities for new learning experiences and opportunities to exercise skills and abilities, this increases volunteers' positive attitudes and behaviours. High-quality relationships between volunteers and their supervisors will enable supervisors to be familiar with volunteers' abilities. This will enable supervisors to provide the necessary training as required by volunteers.

The same applies to the fulfilment of the enhancement motive. The findings show that fulfilment of the enhancement motive partially mediated the effect of LMX on volunteer job satisfaction (\(\beta = .186\)), affective commitment (\(\beta = .204\)) and intention to stay (\(\beta = .168\)). Indeed, the findings indicate that in their relationships with supervisors or managers, volunteers expect a relationship that builds their self-esteem and confidence, and as evidenced in this study, this will result in job satisfaction and intention to stay. Moreover, volunteers in the NPOs will affectively be committed to their organisations when the relationships between them and their supervisors lead to
the fulfilment of such needs and goals (self-esteem and confidence) (Shak 2005; Tse, Ashkanasy & Dasborough 2012). Poor self-esteem and low self-confidence are in part due to feelings of being incapable and of not having the requisite information to deal with situations, but if a supervisor makes the volunteering experience one which promotes competency, autonomy and an easy flow of information, this will boost volunteers’ self-esteem and self-confidence which are important requirements for the fulfilment of the enhancement motive.

Considering this in terms of the reciprocal exchange of benefits and rewards in workplace relationships, supervisors in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia should provide activities and support for tasks which will provide opportunities for volunteers to enhance their skills, self-development and self-confidence in their work and their lives. In addition, supervisors should also provide ongoing and constructive feedback on volunteers’ performance because this may help the volunteers to feel that they are important to the success of the organisation. A supervisor’s feedback, and their overall relationship with volunteers, should demonstrate that they are viewed as key members of the organisation who possess the talents, skills and abilities needed to achieve the goals of their organisation, and this will enhance their self-esteem and wellbeing. Providing such valuable and important rewards increases volunteers’ intentions to reciprocate (Homans 1969).

Furthermore, the fulfilment of social and career motives were equally important factors in the impact of LMX, but only on job satisfaction and intention to stay. The effect of LMX on job satisfaction was partially mediated by the fulfilment of the social motive ($\beta = .234$) and career motive ($\beta = .234$). The effect of LMX on intention to stay was partially mediated by social ($\beta = .204$) and career motive fulfilment ($\beta = .204$). This suggests that for a volunteer, high-quality LMX depends on the supervisor’s ability to structure and organise activities that promote social interaction and networking. Social motive fulfilment was relevant to the volunteers examined in this study because it enhanced their feelings of belonging to a group and their feelings of connectedness or relatedness.

The egoistic (social) motive has consistently emerged as a reason for volunteering because volunteering activities are used as opportunities to form social relationships
within groups of volunteers in the NPOs. A volunteer in a group that satisfies his/her social motive requirements will be committed and involved in the group. Hence, the more important a group is to an individual, the less attractive they will find alternative groups (Nord 1969). This shows that supervisors should build a positive community of volunteers in which there is unfettered social interaction and comradeship. This encourages volunteers to remain in their current NPOs instead of seeking alternative NPOs to fulfil their social motive.

In the present study, social motive fulfilment mediated the impact of LMX on both job satisfaction and intention to stay, but did not mediate the impact of LMX on affective commitment. It may be the case that volunteers whose social aspirations have been met will eventually develop emotional ties with their organisations. These findings are partly in agreement with those of Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2002) who found that social integration in the volunteer organisation enhances a volunteer’s intention to remain. The findings about the indirect effect of LMX on intention to stay have provided another reason to focus on aspects of organisational relationships. Specifically, motivational variables that address the fulfilment of a volunteer’s social motive need to be emphasised in the relationships between volunteers and their lower level management (supervisors) in order to enhance their job satisfaction (see Boezeman & Ellemers 2009; Finkelstein 2007). Previous studies have reported high levels of job satisfaction when the volunteering experience provides opportunities to communicate with other volunteers, opportunities to develop personal networks through meeting new people and making friends, and opportunities to obtain career benefits (Boezeman & Ellemers 2009; Pauline 2011). However, studies have not examined the impact of these opportunities on the indirect effect of LMX on workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction. The fulfilment of the social motive and of the career motive play a significant role in the indirect effect of LMX on job satisfaction, but not on the effect of POS on job satisfaction because organisations’ policies and procedures are implemented by supervisors. In terms of fulfilment of the social motive, the requirements for its fulfilment occur at the supervisor’s level, where social relationships actually take place. In addition, the indirect effect of career motive fulfilment on the impact of LMX indicates that the impact of LMX on volunteers’ job satisfaction and intention to stay will be high if the supervisor understands their career prospects and
assigns work that improves those prospects. Thus, the findings of this study contribute new knowledge about the association between LMX and job satisfaction through the fulfilment of social and career motives.

Several studies have indicated the relevance of both intrinsic and extrinsic needs satisfaction in predicting job satisfaction, especially for volunteers (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002; Wong, Chui & Kwok 2011), but relatively little is known about the effect of each need fulfilment on predicting work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction (Boezeman & Ellemers 2009). In light of this, the present study has contributed to the literature in terms of the examination of LMX as an antecedent of volunteer job satisfaction, and in terms of our understanding of the role that motive fulfilment plays in LMX’s influence on volunteer job satisfaction.

Previous literature has also shown that there is an indirect link between LMX and affective commitment (see Loi, Mao & Ngo 2009; Golden & Vega 2008) but the intervening variables examined in those studies are different from the ones in the present study. The only exception in the previous literature that partly supports this study’s findings is the study of Hepperlen (2002) which found a partially-mediated relationship between LMX and affective wellbeing through self-esteem, which is one of the elements of the egoistic motive of enhancement. Hence, the findings of this study contribute new knowledge about the mediating effects of the fulfilment of each of these motives on the relationship between LMX and affective commitment of volunteers in community NPOs.

Furthermore, the findings indicate that the fulfilment of these motives provides valuable rewards which predict the effect of LMX on volunteer decisions to remain in an organisation. While the findings from other studies have suggested that the impact of LMX on intentions to remain may be mediated by other variables (see Dunegan, Uhl-Bien, & Duchon 2002; Schyns, Torka, & Gössling 2007), there is still a paucity of empirical research regarding how LMX influences volunteers’ decision-making processes through motive fulfilment. With its focus on motive fulfilment, this study contributes new knowledge about another dimension of the indirect effect of LMX on intention to stay.
6.2.2.1 Key highlights of the mediating variables that were significant

In this section, some salient findings that were not discussed in Section 6.2.2 are discussed. As they are very important to the findings, they are highlighted in this section.

As indicated in the introduction to this chapter, there is still a void in the literature regarding studies that have examined the mediating role of motive fulfilment in determining volunteers’ workplace outcomes in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. The small number of studies that have dealt with motive fulfilment include a study by Davis, Hall and Meyer (2003) who found that motive fulfilment partially mediates the relationship between volunteers’ motives and satisfaction; and Finkelstein (2008) who found that motive fulfilment was predicted by its initial motive. Also, Kwok, Chui and Wong (2013) reported that need satisfaction mediates the association between intrinsic motivation and life satisfaction. The variables examined in these studies (Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Finkelstein 2008; Kwok, Chui & Wong 2013) are different from the ones examined in the present study. The present study shows that the fulfilment of motives can act as intervening variables between the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The findings of this study are different to those of previous studies because the studies reported above tested the combined the effects of the fulfilment of altruistic and egoistic motives, but this study examined the effects of the fulfilment of each of six motives (values, enhancement, social, career, understanding and protective) separately. As such, there is a need to provide more discussion regarding the possible reasons why the fulfilment of some motives was significant as a mediator.

The fulfilment of enhancement and understanding motives were conjointly significant across all the independent and dependent variables as mediators. The similarity between the underlying characteristics of the enhancement motive (which is the need for personal growth and self-esteem) and the underlying characteristics of the understanding motive (which is the need for learning opportunities, for acquiring new knowledge and skills, and for opportunities to use one’s skills) could be a reason why the fulfilment of these two motives appears to predict the same variables. This is
because the elements that constitute the two motives are not markedly different. The fulfilment of the understanding motive promotes empowerment. It is fulfilled through training or through being given opportunities to use acquired skills. A volunteer whose volunteering experience satisfies his/her understanding motive has not only been empowered, but has also been enriched in terms of his/her personal growth and self-esteem. In addition, these two motives are important to all volunteers regardless of their demographic differences. Another possible reason why fulfilment of the understanding and enhancement motives is significant in the relationship between management and affective commitment is that affective commitment to the organisation increases when socio-emotional needs such as esteem, approval and affiliation are met (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001; Maertz et al. 2007; Su, Baird & Blair 2009). The socio-emotional needs referred to by Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001), Maertz et al. (2007) and Su, Baird and Blair (2009) are very similar to the elements constituting both understanding and enhancement motive fulfilment.

In this study, the fulfilment of understanding, enhancement and altruistic motives had a stronger mediating effect on the influence of management and their supports on all the workplace outcomes than social and career motives did. However, the fulfilment of values motive had a stronger mediating effect than others. One possible reason is the fact that the fulfilment of values motive is regarded as a precursor to egoistic motives in that a volunteer has to have an other-oriented or selfless tendency before they will volunteer and benefit from the additional opportunities that can be gained from volunteering.

Furthermore, the egoistic motives of understanding, enhancement and social fulfilment are closely related to what Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to as autonomy, competence and relatedness, which they regard as individuals’ most important needs. They argue that any social environment (for instance, the social environment in an organisation) that facilitates the satisfaction of these needs will increase the likelihood of positive outcomes. If a volunteer has a sense of autonomy in a community NPO, this will promote his/her self-esteem because some measure of independence is attached to what he/she does as a volunteer. As such, autonomy can be likened to the fulfilment of the egoistic motive of enhancement. Competence and relatedness can be likened to the egoistic motives of understanding and social fulfilment because
the understanding motive is about the satisfaction of having gained more skills and knowledge to improve one’s competency, while relatedness allows volunteers to network and interact with others, and in so doing gain social capital. Hence, the fulfilment of these three egoistic motives as a set is important in the relationship between management and their supports and the three workplace outcomes because they are rewards that the volunteers of community NPOs regarded as beneficial.

The findings of this study support the long-held consensus that both altruistic and egoistic motives exist (Piliavin & Charng 1990), and that their fulfilment influences volunteer workplace outcomes in different ways. For instance, the fulfilment of career and social motives did not mediate the impact of POS and LMX on affective commitment but it did mediate the impact of LMX on satisfaction. Hence, the findings of this study help to clarify Briggs, Peterson and Gregory’s (2010) assertion that the relative importance of the fulfilment of altruistic and egoistic motives in predicting pro-social attitudes, and by extension volunteer work outcomes, is unclear. The claim by Briggs, Peterson and Gregory (2010) that this issue remains unresolved underlines the importance this study, as it helps to highlight the importance of the fulfilment of altruistic (values) motives and egoistic motives (understanding, enhancement, social and career). These findings are important for the planning of volunteer recruitment and retention, especially in the volunteer management in community NPOs. This will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

6.2.2.2 Discussion of fulfilment of some egoistic motives with insignificant impacts on the workplace outcomes in the mediation analysis

As evidenced in the analysis, the fulfilment of some egoistic motives did not act as a significant mediator, especially in the relationship between POS and the three workplace outcomes in this study. Protective motive fulfilment was not significant across all the workplace outcomes, career motive fulfilment was not significant in the association between POS and affective commitment, and social motive fulfilment was only significant for one of the work outcomes, which was intention to stay.

One of the possible reasons for the above findings is that volunteers’ perceptions of motive fulfilment rely on a complex set of personal cognitive processes and experiences. These perceptions shape their decision-making processes and
behaviours. Thus, factors such as individual differences, organisational culture and context might have affected the results. For example, Mannino, Snyder and Omoto (2011) stress that while volunteers’ actions are due to their relatively altruistic or other-oriented motives, the possibility exists that during the course of their work, they meet other local community members and as a result they may become more interested in expanding their social networks. Mannino, Snyder and Omoto’s (2011) assertion is an example of how volunteers’ motives may evolve from the initial motive to other motives due to the context that presents itself in the organisation. This should also be considered in light of the fact that the fulfilment of both altruistic and egoistic motives only had a significant partial mediating influence on some of the relationships examined. They (the fulfilment of altruistic and egoistic) did not eliminate the impact of the predictors completely (full mediation). Partial mediation is an indication that other factors may be influencing the relationships – and this may also explain why some of the egoistic motives were not significant as mediators in this study.

Another possible reason for the lack of an indirect effect of POS on job satisfaction and affective commitment through the social motive fulfilment could be that volunteers do not associate their social relationships with perceived organisational support. They usually assess the quality of their social relationships based on how well they are able to relate with their peers and make new friends, and not on how this has been made possible by their organisations. For example, Pauline’s (2011) study of volunteers from the 2009 Turning Stone Resort Championship found that volunteers’ relationships with other volunteers were the most important predictors of satisfaction. Similarly, Elstad (1996) found that a sample of student volunteers at the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympics reported high levels of satisfaction, with the most positive aspect being the opportunity to develop personal networks through meeting new people and making friends. This shows that their definitions of social relationships did not involve focusing on how their organisation had made social relationships possible; they simply reported on how well they related with other volunteers and the extent to which volunteering expanded their social capital.

Furthermore, the fulfilment of career, protective and social motives were not significant mediating variables on the influence of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on affective commitment. One possible factor that could have contributed to the
non-significant effect of the fulfilment of social and career motives might have been the demographic characteristics of this study’s participants. Most of the volunteers who took part in this study had paid jobs and were aged 45 years and above. Consistent with Phillips and Phillips’ (2011) finding that most volunteers are paid employees in either the private or public sector, volunteers may volunteer only to fulfil only those motives that are not being met in their paid work. This may be the reason for the insignificant results with respect to career, protective and social motive fulfilment as mediators of management and their supports on workplace outcomes (affective commitment). In addition, Okun and Schultz (2003) found that as age increases, volunteers’ motivations regarding career benefits decrease and the importance of social networking, which is a feature of social capital, increases. Thus, it is not surprising that the fulfilment of career motives did not have a significant impact on the association between management and affective commitment, as career benefits may not be important for most of the older volunteers. Hence, the fulfilment of the career motive might not have been of much importance to most of the volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia examined in this study. However, unlike Okun and Schultz’s (2003) findings, the desire for social interaction did not seem to have much effect on the influence of management and their supports on the volunteers’ affective commitment. This might be due to demographic characteristics specific to the organisations examined. Therefore, this is something that future studies need to explore further.

Moreover, the effect of egoistic motives on the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction was different to their effect on the relationship between LMX and affective commitment. With exception of fulfilment of the protective motive, the fulfilment of both career and social motives mediated the effect of the volunteer–supervisor relationship on volunteers’ job satisfaction but did not affect the impact of the volunteer–supervisor relationship on affective commitment. In other words, the volunteers were satisfied with their volunteer jobs but they were not emotionally attached to the organisation they worked for. This is an indication that those who volunteer to improve their career prospects may be committed to getting a paid job, and as such they may not stay in the organisation long enough to develop affective commitment. This view is consistent with previous researchers who posit that it takes some time for individuals to develop affective commitment to an organisation (Chacon, Vecina & Davila 2007; Chelladurai
2006). This could be a reason for the non-significant influence of career motive fulfilment on the relationship between supervisors and volunteers in the community NPOs examined in this study.

However, with regard to fulfilment of protective motive, one would have expected that it would mediate the influence of management and their supports on work outcomes, given that most of the community NPOs involved in this study provided services to people on low incomes, refugees and other disadvantaged groups. According to Clary et al. (1998) and Phillips and Phillips (2011), in the case of volunteerism the egoistic ‘protective’ motive serves to reduce guilt over feelings of being more fortunate than many others. Therefore, there is a need for future studies to test both the direct and indirect relationships of the fulfilment of the egoistic ‘protective’ motive with the three work outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay) through both management and lower management.

Omoto and Snyder’s (2002) assertion that individuals volunteer in order to fulfil one or more motives also helps to advance the argument that the fulfilment of some of the motives was not significantly related to the three workplace outcomes as mediators. Based on Omoto and Snyder’s (2002) argument, it is logical to conclude that the volunteers who took part in this study had more than one motive they wanted fulfilled, and whether or not these motives were fulfilled was dictated by circumstances in the organisation. Fulfilment of the protective motive which is a self-centred motive, might not have been significant in this study because it was the motive that volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland sought to meet but could not because of organisational factors, which in the case of this study were POS- and LMX-related. The assertions by Brudney (1999) and Omoto and Snyder (2002) also help to explain why the fulfilment of these motives did not significantly influence the effect of management (POS and LMX) on volunteers’ workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). These researchers provided an in-depth explanation which indicated that even though volunteers might have joined an NPO for the purpose of fulfilling the career motive, this might have changed over time. Hence, the fulfilment of this motive may have become less importance.
Finally, other possible reasons why the fulfilment of some the motives was not significant may be attributed to the limitations of the measurements used in this study. The measures for both POS and LMX were designed for paid employees and it is possible that some factors relevant to volunteers may not have been fully captured in the two measurement scales. This is discussed further in Section 7.7 (Limitations of the study).

6.3 Conclusion
In this chapter, the findings analysed in Chapter Five have been discussed. The findings for both the direct and indirect impacts of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three workplace outcomes investigated were discussed. The discussion of the findings focused on addressing the gaps that were identified and the contributions this study has made to the existing literature. Several studies with findings that were consistent and relevant to the findings analysed here were cited to support the findings of this study. The discussion highlighted the positive relationships between management and their supports (POS and LMX) and volunteer job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Motive fulfilment for volunteers was investigated as a mediator of the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three work outcomes, and the findings that emerged were discussed in this study. Also discussed extensively were the likely reasons why some forms of motive fulfilment were significant mediators of the influence of POS and LMX on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay, and others were not.
Chapter Seven: Contributions, practical implications, limitations and recommendations

7.1 Introduction
In this chapter, a summary of the previous chapters will be provided. The findings of the study which were presented in Chapter Five are discussed in regard to how they address the research aims and questions stated in Chapter One, Subsection 1.3.1. In addition, a brief discussion of the research questions and hypotheses, followed by a tabulated summary of the hypotheses’ testing outcomes will be given. The chapter also discusses the contributions of this study to the literature, and the practical implications of the findings for volunteer management in community NPOs. The limitations of the study that may affect the generalisability of the findings are stated. Given the limitations identified, some recommendations for future studies will be stated and discussed in detail. The chapter ends with the conclusion.

7.2 Summary of the previous chapters
In Chapter One, the background details of NPOs, particularly community NPOs, and the importance of volunteers to their organisational goals, were discussed. This was followed by a presentation of the line of enquiry, the study’s overall aim and its justification. The review of the literature revealed the lack of a thorough understanding of why community NPOs currently have high dropout rates for volunteers and problems in attracting new volunteers. This indicates there is a need for effective management to promote desirable workplace outcomes, not only to attract quality volunteers, but also to reduce the high dropout rate for volunteers. An understanding of the importance of providing desirable workplace outcomes in order to foster sustainable volunteer management resulted in the identification of three workplace outcomes: job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. These outcomes are important because they are positive attitudes and behaviours that not only mitigates the high volunteer dropout rate, but also indicative of effectively managed volunteers in NPOs. From the literature reviewed, the influence of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay have not been thoroughly examined (Cuskelly & Auld 2000; Lulewicz 1995; Peach & Murrell 1995). Hence, the present study was designed to examine the impact of management on volunteers’ job
satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay by using SET as a theoretical lens.

In order to address this gap, the first research question was developed, which was:

**Research Question 1: What is the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on workplace outcomes such as the job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay of volunteers in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia?**

Following the review of the literature, it was evident that the underlying dynamics of the relationships between management and volunteers have not been well explained. A detailed explanation was still lacking in the literature regarding the relationship between individual motive fulfilment and reciprocal social interactions, which have implications for workplace relationships, especially in the context of volunteering. This was considered critical as one of the objectives of this study is to contribute to our understanding of how the value assumption (third proposition) of Homans (1961) can be applied in the context of volunteer relationships with community NPOs’ management in Queensland, Australia. The value assumption as explained in this study basically speaks to the non-contractual relationship of volunteers. It emphasises the importance of positive reciprocal relationships, which, as explained, can be strengthened by the perception of benefit (value) of the intangible items volunteers receive in their dealings with community NPOs management. In other words, the degree to which reciprocal interactions are viewed positively depends on the subjective psychological value an individual assigns to what he/she receives. In this regard, the literature has been silent, particularly about the fact that individual factors such as motive fulfilment serve as important psychological values for volunteers in their relationship with management, This led to the consideration of volunteers’ motive fulfilment as an intervening factor in the association between management and their supports (POS and LMX) on the three workplace outcomes for volunteers, particularly those in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Moreover, there is a need for an in-depth understanding of the three volunteer workplace outcomes examined in this study, because there has been no clear explanation about how management and their supports impact on these workplace outcomes through motive fulfilment. The
identification of this gap in the literature led to the development of the second research question, which is:

**Research Question 2:** What impact does volunteers’ motive fulfilment have on the relationships between management and their supports (POS and LMX) on workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia?

In Chapter Two, an in-depth review of the literature was conducted to establish the theoretical framework. The use of social exchange theory to examine the three workplace outcomes was based on findings from several studies about its importance in public and private sector workplaces. These studies (see Brunetto et al. 2012; Cole, Schaninger & Harris 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005; Schaefer 2009) posit that social exchange creates positive workplace relationships that promote loyalty, trust and emotional attachment (affective commitment). In addition, job satisfaction and lower staff turnover rates are among the characteristics identified in such relationships in previous studies. Hence, social exchange theory was used as an analytical tool to explain the impact of workplace relationships on volunteers working in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

In Chapter Three, to address the research questions presented in Chapter One, two common relationships that volunteers are involved in (i.e., with the organisation – POS and with their immediate supervisors – LMX) were used to investigate the impact of workplace relationships on the three workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). The conceptual model developed for this study was based on these workplace outcomes because previous studies (involving both paid employees and volunteers) have demonstrated the importance of these outcomes in organisational relationships (see Bang 2011; Farmer & Fedor 1997; 1999; McMurray et al. 2010; Shiva & Suar 2010). As volunteering serves the fulfilment of different motives (Clary et al. 1998) motive fulfilment was discussed in this chapter, and was also included in the conceptual model. Thereafter, hypotheses were developed to address the first research question regarding the connection between management
and their supports on volunteers’ workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay).

Based on previous studies, it was evident that volunteers will seek out the activities that are most likely to fulfil their strongly held motives, and that the fulfilment of such motives has a more positive influence on workplace outcomes than any other factor including initial motives (Finkelstein 2008; Clary et al. 1998). Several studies have also posited that volunteers’ workplace outcomes depend on the extent to which their needs are being fulfilled (Clary et al. 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002). In light of this, volunteer motive fulfilment was investigated in this study as a mediating variable in the association between workplace relationships and workplace outcomes. Hypotheses were formulated to address the second research question.

Chapter Four reviewed the methodology and the research methods used to collect data. This review included a discussion about the selection of an appropriate research paradigm (post-positivism) and a quantitative research method. Post-positivism’s aims and processes, and a justification for the use of a quantitative design were then presented, with an emphasis on their provision of a clear path for the statistical analysis of the data to test the hypotheses. The survey instruments were explained, and a detailed description of the data collection process was provided. In addition, ethical consideration and the approval of the ethics application for this research were discussed in Chapter Four.

In Chapter Five, a clear explanation of the reasoning behind the decision to use a quantitative research design to address the research hypotheses was given. This was followed by a description of data preparation which included editing and coding non-metric data for analysis. Following this was an explanation of exploratory factor analysis, which was used to determine whether the instruments used to collect data were appropriate. The explanation of exploratory factor analysis also included an explanation of how irrelevant questions from the survey instrument could be eliminated. The reliability testing of the research questions and the use of multiple regression for the data analysis were also explained. In addition, the descriptive statistics of the data collected and the results from the regression analysis of the hypotheses were presented in Chapter Five. Chapter Six provided a detailed
discussion of the results in terms of how they address the research questions and aims.

7.3 Conclusions regarding the research questions and hypotheses

As indicated previously, in order to address the two research questions and the overall aim of the study, hypotheses were formulated to respond to the gaps identified in the literature about factors affecting volunteers’ workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay).

Research Question 1 examined the direct impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay, while Research Question 2 examined the indirect impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on these outcomes through volunteer motive fulfilment. The purpose of the second research question was to provide a clearer understanding of the nature of the exchanges involved, and of what could be responsible for management's influence on the identified workplace outcomes. A summary of the outcomes of the hypothesis testing is presented in Table 7.1

Table 7.1: Summary of the hypotheses testing outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a. The values motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the values motive.</td>
<td>Supported. This means that the fulfilment of the values motive is predicted by the same initial motive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b. The understanding motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the understanding motive.</td>
<td>Supported. This means that the fulfilment of understanding motive is predicted by the same initial motive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1c. The enhancement motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the enhancement motive</td>
<td>Supported. This means that the fulfilment of enhancement motive is predicted by the same initial motive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1d. The career motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the career motive</td>
<td>Supported. This means that the fulfilment of career motive is predicted by the same initial motive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The social motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the social motive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1f.</td>
<td>The protective motive will be significantly correlated to the fulfilment of the protective motive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to their job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>LMX will be positively related to volunteers’ job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Volunteers’ POS will be positively related to their affective commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Volunteer motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between POS and affective commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>LMX will be positively related to volunteers’ affective commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and affective commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>10.</strong> Volunteers’ perceived organisational support will be positively related to intention to stay.</td>
<td>Supported, indicating that perceived support from the organisation predicts volunteers’ intention to stay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11.</strong> The association between POS and intention to stay will be mediated by volunteers’ motive fulfilment.</td>
<td>Partially supported (with the fulfilment of values, understanding, enhancement and social motives significant, while the fulfilment of career, and protective motives were not significant).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12.</strong> High-quality LMX will be positively related to volunteers’ intention to stay.</td>
<td>Supported, indicating that supervisor-subordinate relationship predicts volunteers’ intention to stay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13.</strong> Volunteers’ motive fulfilment will mediate the relationship between high-quality LMX and intention to stay.</td>
<td>Partially supported (with the fulfilment of values, understanding, enhancement, career and social motives significant, while the fulfilment of protective motive was not significant).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 7.4 Contribution to the literature

This study contributes to the literature in the following ways: The study focuses on the impact of management and their supports on the three identified volunteer workplace outcomes through motive fulfilment. This has rarely been explored in previous volunteering research. By focusing on these individual factors the study provides a clearer picture of the ways volunteers can be motivated to remain in their organisations.

This study has also helped to fill some gaps the researcher identified in the literature. Many scholars such as Clarke (2010) and Van Quaquebeke and Eckloff (2010) have called for more research into the role of leadership in NPOs and volunteerism. Some scholars have argued that little is known about the causal mechanisms that might help to explain the relationship between organisational factors and positive work outcomes for volunteers (Jenkinson et al. 2013). Several studies have advanced knowledge about some of the organisational and individual factors affecting volunteers, and this has made a fundamental difference to our understanding of volunteers across all categories of NPOs. The present study extends this earlier research by proposing and testing a model that examines the effect of management and their supports on
volunteer job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOS in Queensland, Australia.

The results of the empirical analysis of variables in this study add new knowledge to the existing literature in the following ways. As indicated before, only a small number of studies has examined the impact of management and their supports on volunteers’ workplace outcomes. The findings in this study are consistent with other studies (Bang 2007; Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003) that have shown positive volunteering experiences that fulfil volunteers’ motives predict high levels of job satisfaction, emotional ties with the organisation and increased intention to stay. However, this study contributes to the literature by examining reciprocal pathways or processes, and this provides new knowledge on how to improve volunteers’ work experiences which have been emphasised as an important determinant of volunteers’ attitudes and behaviours. This was a gap which the present study has addressed, as not much was known about the association between these constructs (POS and LMX) and volunteerism. This empirical study has provided a clearer understanding of the impacts of management and their supports on volunteers’ workplace outcomes.

In terms of job satisfaction, the findings of this study contribute to the literature by examining the effects of management and their supports. Although several studies of paid employees have shown that POS engenders job satisfaction (see Paillé, Grima & Dufour’s 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002), the impact of POS in the context of volunteers remains relatively unexplored. The examination of POS is important in the consideration of volunteers because POS serves not only as a means by which organisations reward volunteers’ contributions but also as an indicator of the organisation’s willingness to provide aid and resources that enhance job satisfaction. The literature has also confirmed that LMX relationships have a direct impact on paid employees’ job satisfaction (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto 2007; Erdogan & Enders 2007; Gerstner & Day 1997; Mardanov, Sterrett & Baker 2007; Stringer 2006), but not much was known about this association in the context of volunteers. The use of volunteers as participants in this study contributes to the existing literature because it extends the understanding of high-quality supervisor-volunteer relationships in a volunteer context. Thus, the findings of this study have shown that the provision of a positive work environment with good policies and procedures, and high-quality supervisor
relationships, affects volunteers’ job satisfaction in NPOs, specifically community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

The model used in this study contributes significantly to the understanding of factors that enhance volunteers’ affective commitment in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Given the importance of affective commitment, understanding the factors that influence it is very important for the success of all organisations, especially NPOs. Affective commitment can predict a wide range of work attitudes and behaviours such as low turnover rates, high job performance, and good organisational citizenship behaviour (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran 2005; DeCotiis & Summers 1987; Farrell & Stamm 1998; Porter et al. 1974). Hence, by examining the factors which help to develop affective commitment, the findings of this study contribute to the literature by showing that support from the organisation and high-quality relationships with supervisors increase volunteers’ affective commitment.

In addition, the study contributes to the literature by shedding light on the importance of the effect lower management on volunteers’ intentions to stay. Intention to stay has been associated with low rates of absenteeism and turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000) and this reduces NPOs’ expenditure on the recruitment and training of new volunteers. By learning from the findings of this study, organisations will be able to decrease high turnover rates and their negative impacts by improving workplace relationships. Given that the impacts of high turnover rates are felt more by NPOs because they depend mostly on volunteers, management can increase intentions to stay by providing a supportive work environment that increases volunteers’ beliefs that their organisation cares for them and values their contributions. Also, the present research highlights the need to promote high-quality relationships between volunteers and their supervisors to ensure that volunteers’ intentions to continue working are encouraged. High-quality relationships between supervisors and subordinates are possible incentives that community NPOs can use to entice volunteers to stay longer with the organisation. Given that several studies have linked supervisor-subordinate relationships with intention to stay, this study makes a contribution by providing further evidence of the direct influence of management and their supports on volunteer intentions to stay.
A further contribution to the literature is the provision of useful information regarding the psychological processes at work in volunteers’ workplace relationships. As indicated in Chapter Three, several studies of paid employees have found positive and significant relationships between management and their supports on the one hand, and job satisfaction, affective commitment and turnover intention on the other. There is a paucity of studies which focus on volunteers, and none has previously given a clear explanation of the process involved, as previous findings have mainly been descriptive and correlational. As such, there have been several suggestions in the literature for further research to explain the process. For example, the examination of mediating factors was suggested by Lee, Alexander and Kim (2013), and Bang (2007) as a means of obtaining a clearer understanding of how organisational factors influence volunteers’ workplace outcomes. The findings of this study have addressed this gap in the literature. The investigation of the causal relationships between these variables explains exactly how workplace relationship can be improved in the context of volunteerism in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

In organisations with paid workforces, salaries and benefits are two of the primary rewards for employees. These rewards are not available to volunteers in NPOs because they do not engage in volunteering activities for monetary reward and they seek rewards of another kind. As such, it has not been made clear in the literature what the focus should be when examining the reciprocal exchanges between supervisors and volunteers. This study has been able to highlight a possible focus by considering several types of motives. In line with Homans (1961), this study finds that the fulfilment of a set of motives that mediate the relationship between management and their supports and the three work outcomes can be used to encourage volunteers to feel committed to their organisations. This is an important contribution to the literature because the findings have shown that volunteers will continue to reciprocate as long as the organisation and supervisors keep on providing resources that help them satisfy the motives that are important to them.

In sum, this study contributes to ongoing research about the need to understand the organisational factors that influence volunteer work outcomes in NPOs. This is an area that has not been examined thoroughly. As formal volunteering takes place in organisations, it is most likely that the determinants of volunteer satisfaction, affective
commitment and intention to stay will be found in the organisations in which people volunteer. This study has provided insights into the organisational factors and how they lead to increased job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay among volunteers working in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.

Furthermore, the nature of the volunteer workforce is such that they are not obliged to cooperate with the organisation and its representatives (Farmer & Fedor 2001; Pearce, 1993), so it is important that they are led and managed in a way that ensures optimum results are obtained from their contributions. The present research has highlighted the role of LMX in this regard in terms of the need to ensure high-quality relationships to achieve positive work outcomes. The NPO and volunteer literature provides very little research-based information for understanding of how supervisor–subordinate relationships are constructed. Moreover, there is a lack of knowledge concerning the behaviours that supervisors need to exhibit in order to motivate their subordinates to have positive work attitudes and behaviours. In this context, this study has explained how two core organisational relationships can be managed with respect to volunteers to achieve the three fundamental workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay).

7.5 Contribution of the study to theory
The use of social exchange theory as an analytical tool in this study revolves around Homans’ (1961) third proposition. This proposition deals with factors relating to fairness and the values that people attribute to the resources exchanged. According to Homans, people’s perceptions about whether these exchanges are fair will determine whether the relationship will be sustainable or transient. The findings of this study have been analysed and discussed in terms of how Homans’ propositions, especially the third proposition, can be used to strengthen organisational relationships and to develop positive and lasting relationships between volunteers and their supervisors in the community NPOs examined. The study emphasises the benefits of reciprocal relationships and what is required to sustain them.

The findings of this study have demonstrated that volunteers’ involvement and length of service are, to a large extent, determined by the support provided by the organisation, and by the volunteers’ relationships with supervisors and managers.
Based on the analysis in this study, it is clear that volunteers’ social exchange relationships with the organisation and with supervisors affect their job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The findings confirm suggestions in the literature that when volunteers perceive that they are getting appropriate levels of support, appreciation and care from both the organisations and their supervisors (Bang 2007; Boezeman & Ellemers 2008), they will reciprocate with high productivity (Lo Presti 2013), long tenure (Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003; Omoto & Snyder 1995) and more effort in achieving the organisations’ goals. Thus, the findings draw attention to the importance of SET, specifically to its constructs (POS and LMX) in developing positive workplace experiences among volunteers. Hence, SET is central to the consideration of organisational relationships in the context of volunteering in the NPOs.

As mentioned previously, few studies have used SET as a lens to examine volunteers’ workplace relationships. Bang (2007), and Famer and Fedor (1999) suggest that a perceived lack of reciprocity between volunteers and the organisation, and between volunteers and supervisors, may result in volunteers feeling they are being unfairly treated. Such negative perceptions that develop from unfulfilled expectations may result in reduced volunteer performance, reduced job satisfaction, decreased trust, disengagement, high turnover, reduced commitment, and a decreased willingness to engage in extra-role behaviour (Lester et al. 2002; Knights & Kennedy 2005; Robinson & Rousseau 1994; Turnley, Daniel & Feldman 2000). As such, this study has provided more insights into the usefulness of SET as a framework for examining volunteer behaviour in order to reduce what might be perceived as unfair or unbalanced exchanges.

In addition, the results provide further support for the view that motive fulfilment is a significant mediator in the exchange process. Research examining the mediating effects of volunteers’ motive fulfilment is important because it provides a better understanding about the resources that could be used to facilitate the desired workplace outcomes. Past studies have examined the mediating role of motive fulfilment in volunteer involvement and persistence (Davis, Hall & Meyer 2003) but they have not examined how volunteers’ motive fulfilment mediates the influence of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on volunteer workplace outcomes.
such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. Hence, the empirical analysis of motive fulfilment in this study is regarded as a seminal contribution to the understanding of the social exchange process.

By analysing the effect of some types of motive fulfilment as intervening variables, this study offers a unique perspective on the link between volunteers’ motive fulfilment and the value assumptions of SET as explained by Homans (1961) and others (Blau 1964; Gouldner 1960). The analysis of motive fulfilment as a mediator supports the value propositions of Homans (1961) and others (Blau 1964; Gouldner 1960) as they state that the value of the resources that are given to the recipients will determine whether they will want to reciprocate or the nature of the reciprocation that follows. In line with Homans’ (1961) value assumption, the relationship between management and their supports and three work outcomes will be enhanced by the provision of valuable resources to fulfil the motives that were found to be significant to volunteers in this study. The fulfilment of volunteers’ motives will encourage them to reciprocate in a manner that they believe is proportionate. In other words, for the volunteers in the community NPOs examined in this study, the fulfilment of the motives that are significant to them is equivalent to receiving valuable resources from the organisation. This is an important contribution to the application of SET in that the norms of reciprocity in the case of volunteers mean that the fulfilment of those motives will sustain their volunteering activities. The findings of this study have shown that positive social exchanges between the organisation and its volunteers result in positive experiences for volunteers. The findings have also shown that what makes the exchanges effective or valuable enough for volunteers to consider them worthy of reciprocation is the fulfilment of the motives that were found to be significant in this study. In this regard Homans’ (1961) third proposition provides useful information about SET in terms of its application in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia with volunteer workforces.

The fulfilment of values (altruism) motive mediated the impact of POS and LMX on all the three workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). It is argued in the literature that the effect of values motive should not be explained in terms of reciprocity because those motivated by altruism do not expect some form of reward. According to Manatschal and Freitag (2014) this misconception
is born out of a narrow view of altruism as a selfless act without any expectation of rewards. This view implies that satisfaction cannot and should not be based on reciprocity which involves some form of reward or expectation. Clohesy (2000) argues that the fact that all participants (including volunteers) in the NPOs are there for other-oriented purposes does not mean that they do not have expectations of, or derive satisfaction from, their experiences. According to Clohesy (2000) volunteers derive satisfaction from the success of their work in the NPOs, even though this is not their fundamental reason for helping. Satisfaction in this instance has to do with a feeling that one has helped others, or with an external concern for others’ happiness (Frisch & Gerard 1981; Treuren 2009). In other words, the satisfaction that volunteers derive from their work can be regarded as an intrinsic reward.

Moreover, volunteers’ satisfaction can also be regarded as a derivative of the actions of the organisation towards those in need, or those to whom the volunteers’ services are directed. Given the findings about the fulfilment of values motive (altruism), it is plausible to argue that the volunteers in this study would want the NPOs’ primary focus to be on helping others. Such a focus would be regarded as a valuable reward by an altruistically motivated volunteer, prompting them to reciprocate with behaviour directed at advancing the good of the organisation or strengthening the relationship between themselves and their supervisors. This is the essence of SET, which this study has made more explicable by emphasising that volunteers will feel obliged to reciprocate in the form of ongoing relationships with the NPOs due to the satisfaction they derive from the services of the NPOs that are in line with their altruistic motives. Thus, the findings of this study provide further confirmation of the importance of reciprocity in enhancing volunteers’ positive work experiences, and the findings confirm that support from NPOs may be in the form of enabling volunteers to reach out socially to others in the community.

Furthermore, the development of a unique conceptual model which includes independent, dependent and mediating variables that have not been considered in previous studies has provided contributions at two main levels. First, it has enabled the identification of the antecedents of volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay in community NPOs in Queensland, Australia.
Second, it shows the factors that can affect the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables like no other studies have considered.

7.6 Practical implications of the study
This study has several practical implications for management interested in increasing their volunteers’ job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The results from this study will provide useful information that can be used to improve policies and strategies that promote antecedents and strategies that encourage the three work outcomes identified in this study.

As indicated previously, a supportive work environment fosters volunteers’ positive workplace experiences and supportive organisational policies – and supervisors play key roles in ensuring a positive workplace environment. As such, the mediation framework provides useful information that helps the supervisors of community NPOs to develop and promote programmes that focus on helping volunteers to meet their needs. In the context of this study, this means fulfilling the motives that mediate the influence of management and their supports on the three work outcomes. The fulfilment of these salient motives in relation to the volunteers will increase volunteers’ positive work experiences and increase their intention to stay. This would help the organisations to save resources through reduced expenditure on training new volunteers, and through a reduced need for recruitment as volunteers who are satisfied with their volunteering experiences are more likely to help in recruiting others to join the organisation (Boezeman & Ellemers 2008).

What is clear from this study is that there are no fixed guidelines for managing volunteers in community NPOs. Rather, management needs to take volunteers’ motives into consideration when designing its models of volunteer management in order to be able to deal with the intractable problem of volunteer turnover. As indicated by the findings of the study, the managers have to create a healthy work environment and recognise the antecedents of the three work outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). This requires good organisational policies that provide managers with the latitude to manage the resources at their disposal. These findings will sensitise the NPOs towards the role of volunteer motive fulfilment and the abiding concerns of the volunteers they seek to recruit.
While focusing on egoistic motive fulfilment may sound appealing to organisations developing volunteer recruitment strategies, the findings of this study indicate that community NPOs should use such an approach with caution. In this study, fulfilment of the values (altruism) motive was a significant mediator of the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on all three work outcomes. In a nutshell, given what this study has revealed, volunteer recruitment should emphasise value-oriented motives, while finding a way to also stress other benefits such as the fulfilment of enhancement, understanding, social and career motives. In fact, an emphasis on altruism would help reduce recruitment and management costs because those recruited would be more willing to volunteer based on their altruism, even though the organisation may use their volunteer experiences to boost volunteers’ fulfilment of their egoistic understanding, enhancement and social motives. Where possible, NPOs should recruit and invest in value-motivated volunteers, as value-based motivations amplify the positive experiences associated with their volunteering experiences.

On a practical level, this study demonstrates that high-quality relationships between supervisors and volunteers are fundamental to sustainable volunteer–organisation exchanges. Organisational social exchange is associated with several positive workplace outcomes including retention, job satisfaction and affective commitment. In view of the above, community NPOs in Queensland, Australia should train their supervisors to cultivate trusting relationships with their volunteer workforce, and to pay attention to volunteers’ motives and their fulfilment. This will increase robust social exchange relationships between volunteers and their organisations.
Table 7.2: Summary of key practical implications for community NPO supervisors

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Supervisors should encourage an environment where volunteers can interact and share information regarding their skills and experiences, for example by organising social events. This will promote social cohesion among volunteers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Supervisors should ensure volunteers are properly oriented and are made to feel comfortable right from the beginning as this will make them feel valued and needed. This is important because one of the problems is that most volunteers don’t stay long enough to understand the organisation’s policies and procedures or get to know the supervisors well enough to form a relationship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Behavioural intention has been shown to be a good predictor of future behaviour (Armitage &amp; Connor 2001; Hellman, Hoppes, &amp; Ellison 2006). Therefore, supervisors should focus on identifying what influences volunteers’ intentions, and on providing resources that will promote positive workplace outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Supervisors should ensure that activities and responsibilities given to volunteers match with the fulfilment of their individual motives in order to increase job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Volunteers’ roles and activities should be clearly defined by the supervisor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The organisation’s policies, procedures and goals, and their roles in achieving the goals, should be communicated properly to all the volunteers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.7 Limitations of the study
This study has contributed useful information to the existing literature but it does not mean the findings are without limitations. Hence, it is important to highlight that the results should be treated with some caution.

Firstly, the use of a cross-sectional design for data collection, and the analysis of the data with multiple regression tools, introduce some limitations. Although multiple regression analysis is suitable for determining causality, a structural equation model is often recommended as being more appropriate for testing a complex model with a number of causal relationships simultaneously (Byrne 2010; Kline 2011). However, the use of multiple regression analysis did not pose any problems in this study because the conditions for avoiding common method bias, and all the conditions for undertaking a multiple regression, were met.
A cross-sectional design was used in this research due to time constraints. This is also a limitation because, according to Bowen and Wiersema (1999), data collected at one particular time may not be suitable for the effective examination of causal relationships. Thus, instead of using a cross-sectional design, a longitudinal approach would be preferable as it is an approach that can provide an in-depth examination of the causal relationships involved because it allows data to be collected more than once. Despite this possible limitation, the study offers interesting and important findings that can be generalised to other categories of NPOs such as sport and recreational NPOs and religious NPOs.

In addition, the use of questionnaires has also been criticised. Critics of quantitative approaches argue that the measurement processes they entail are not true reflections of respondents’ views. For example, Bryman (2008, p. 159) argues that using a quantitative approach limits responses to the suggested answers, and that the concept being measured is ‘assumed rather than real’. Shye (2010) states that questionnaires provide participants with questions about their motives for volunteering. This, Shye (2010) argues, increases the occurrence of desirability bias. However, the use of a questionnaire in this study provided uniform data in terms of the responses from the participants (Babbie 2010) and as such the findings from the sample can be generalised to the population (Bowen & Wiersema 1999). A mixed methods approach would help to overcome the shortcomings of a questionnaire because the researcher would be able to seek more clarification from respondents regarding their answers to the questions. Thus, the use of a questionnaire in this study created a limitation to the generalisability of the findings.

Another limitation of this study is the possible inadequacy of the instrument used to measure POS and LMX in the context of volunteers in NPOs. The instruments used to investigate the two constructs of workplace relationships were developed for paid employees. Because paid employees are different from volunteers in their terms and conditions of employment, the instruments may not have captured relevant factors that are important to volunteers. Generally, this study examined the impact of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on volunteers’ workplace outcomes. It is possible that this approach may not have captured all the issues relevant to volunteers in community NPOs. Hence, future studies should focus on specific antecedents of
management and their supports (POS and LMX) such as procedural and interactional justice in order to provide further explanations of how these factors impact on volunteers’ workplace outcomes. The instruments for measuring these factors have clearer links to protective and social motive instruments. Moreover, although the focus of this study was on the effect of organisational factors on volunteers’ workplace outcomes, it did not include the effects of teams (co-volunteers) on these outcomes. The impact of co-worker relationships has been identified as a factor that may affect workplace outcomes (Xerri 2013).

This study utilised a sample of respondents volunteering in one type of volunteer organisation (community NPOs). Although the participants were drawn from diverse backgrounds, there is a need to exercise caution when extrapolating the findings to other categories of NPOs such as sport/recreational NPOs and emergency services NPOs. It is likely that the calibre of volunteers and the requirements for being a volunteer in these categories of NPOs may be different from the community NPOs. These differences may affect the generalisability of the findings of this study.

As is the case in any study dealing with motive fulfilment variables, the survey undertaken in this study depended both on the respondents’ ability to correctly identify their motives (which is often difficult) and on their responding honestly to questions (and their honesty may have been compromised by social desirability bias). This was a difficulty I noticed during the pilot stage of the study. Although I responded to the problem by re-drafting the questionnaire and having one-on-one and group discussions with the volunteers about this, there is the possibility that some volunteers were not able to correctly understand their motives, and there is a possibility that some volunteers did not respond to the questions honestly. For example, while the distinction between the two egoistic motives of understanding and career is clearly understood by scholars of organisational behaviour, the distinction may be confusing to the participants in this study as both deal with career and job issues. It is issues such as these that limit the generalisability of the findings of a study of this nature.

7.8 Recommendations for further studies
Scholars have argued that quantitative approaches are objective. However, as the results of this study have demonstrated, quantitative approaches do not give the
researcher room to explore ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions. For example, egoistic (protective) motive fulfilment was not found to be a significant mediator in this study. If this study had adopted a qualitative approach, it would have been possible to probe deeper, or to get an explanation as to why this was not the case. Possibly, the researcher could have gone back to seek more clarification that would have provided reasons for why this motive was not significant. This is not a statement against the objectivity of quantitative approaches, but it would be better for a study of this nature to use a mixed methods approach that would allow quantitative and qualitative approaches to complement each other.

This study examined the impact of two workplace relationship constructs (POS and LMX) on workplace outcomes (job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay). It went further to investigate the mediating role of motive fulfilment on the influence of POS and LMX on the three work outcomes. This study’s findings should be validated with additional studies conducted within multiple categories of NPOs. Such studies would provide a wider reach, encompassing NPOs with different organisational characteristics, and they would make it possible to see how respondents across different categories of NPOs respond to the issues addressed in the questionnaire. This would help, not only in dealing with the question of how specific rewards impact job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to stay across different categories of NPOs, but also in making valid generalisations and identifying exceptions.

This study only examined volunteers’ affective commitment. As explained in Chapter Three, organisational commitment is multidimensional in that, besides affective commitment, it comprises continuance and normative commitment which were not examined in this study. These two other categories have been identified as separate outcomes that are affected by different factors. As such, future studies should look at the influence of management and their supports (POS and LMX) on these two categories of organisational commitment (normative and continuance commitment). An investigation of all these categories of commitment may help to provide findings about organisational commitment in community NPOs, revealing the relative strength of the SET constructs.
This study examined volunteers’ intentions to stay and did not verify if this actually led to retention some months or years later. Despite intention to stay having been identified as a strong predictor of actual retention behaviour, this needs to be verified because volunteers who indicate initially that they do not intend to leave may change their minds after some months. The present study could not test this because of time constraints. A longitudinal approach would provide more precise information regarding whether intention to stay actually leads to retention. Thus, future research should focus on determining the percentage of those who actually stayed by measuring the percentages of volunteers who continue their involvement after some time has elapsed.

7.9 Conclusion
In this chapter, the discussion of the study’s contributions to knowledge focused on the gaps identified in the literature and how the study has extended earlier research on POS and LMX. Following this, there was discussion of the study’s contribution to theory, particularly SET as a mechanism to foster organisational relationships and desirable workplace outcomes. This discussion stressed the connection between social exchange relationships in the workplace and volunteer job satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to stay. The discussion of the implications of the findings, emphasised the central role of motive fulfilment in the exchange process in the context of volunteering in the community NPOs in Queensland, Australia. Lastly, the limitations and recommendations for further studies were discussed. The discussion of the limitations and recommendations for further studies addressed some weaknesses noticed in the research that may make the findings less generalisable to other categories of NPOs. Hence, suggestions were provided for areas that should be investigated further.
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Appendix A: Ethics approval

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HREC)
HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS SUB-COMMITTEE (HRESC)

NOTIFICATION

To: Professor Yvonne Brunetto/Queen Usadolo
    Southern Cross Business School
    yvonne.brunetto@scu.edu.au;q.usadolo.10@student.scu.edu.au

From: Secretary, Human Research Ethics Committee
      Division of Research, R. Block

Date: 7 March 2014

Project name: The impact of social exchange on outcomes for volunteers in nonprofit organisations serving immigrants and refugees in Australia

Approval Number ECN-14-036

The Southern Cross University Human Research Ethics Committee has established, in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research – Section 5/Processes of Research Governance and Ethical Review, a procedure for expedited review and ratification by a delegated authority of the HREC.

Thank you for the expedited ethics application dated the 17th February 2014 and for your responses, dated 4th March 2014, to queries from the sub-committee. The responses are satisfactory and your research protocol has been approved by the HRESC, Gold Coast campus.

All ethics approvals are subject to mandatory conditions of approval. These must be noted by researchers as there is compliance and monitoring advice included in these conditions.

Mrs Louise Charter
HREC Administration
T: (02) 6620 3965

Professor Bill Boyd
Chair, HREC
E. william.boyd@scu.edu.au

238
E: ethics.lismore@scu.edu.au
Appendix B: Letter of invitation to participants

Survey letter

Dear participants,

We humbly request 10-15 minutes of your time to complete this exciting and important survey, aimed at collecting information about the effects of workplace experiences on job satisfaction, commitment and intention to leave among volunteers. These are important issues for managers of not for-profit organisations in view of the impacts of current shortage of volunteers and low levels of retention are having on their ability to function effectively.

By taking a few minutes to complete this survey, you will be providing information that would enhance our knowledge and also for your organisation to understand and act in organisational matters that are relevant to you. Without the knowledge gathered through research on workplace experiences, organisational management may not be able to decide appropriately in terms of policy or practice to address issues about volunteers' workplace outcomes.

There is no risk associated with this research as responses will be completely confidential and anonymous. The questionnaire does not require you to provide names or any information by which you or the organisation could be identified. In addition, participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the survey at any time.

A pre-paid envelope is provided with each survey, so all questionnaires can be returned directly to Southern Cross University or dropped with any of your supervisors or coordinators.

Thank you in advance for your time and support in this research project, which, for the first time will make information available to organisations like yours about how they can effectively manage their volunteers. Please, if you have any concerns, do not hesitate to contact your volunteer coordinator, who will follow up with myself (Queen) to assist with any questions or concerns. Alternatively, you can reach me on my mobile phone 0412407506. I can also be reached on q.usadolo.10@student.scu.edu.au.

Kind regards,

Queen Usadolo
Appendix C: Survey instrument

Section A: Demographic Information

Please tick the box to signify your answer.

1. What is your gender?  Female  Male


3. What is your marital status? Single  Married  Divorced  Widowed  de facto

4. What is the highest level of education completed? Primary School  High School  TAFE  Graduate degree  undergraduate degree

5. Occupation?  Student  Artisan  Professional  Business person  Homemaker  Others

6. How many hours do you typically volunteer in a week?  1-2 hours  3-4 hours  5-6 hours  7-8 hours  9-10 hours  11 and above

7. How many years have you been working in the organisation as a volunteer? One year  Two years  Three years  Four years  Five years and above

Section B

This section is used to tap the possible reason for volunteering. We would like to know the degree to which you agree or disagree to the statement below. There is no right or wrong answer, please tick any from SD=Strongly Disagree, DA=Disagree, SE=Slightly Disagree, SL=Slightly Agree, AG=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree.

8. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

9. I feel compassion toward people in need.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

10. I feel it is important to help others.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

11. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

12. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

13. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

15. Volunteering allows me to learn things through direct, hands on experience.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

16. By volunteering, I learn how to deal with a variety of people.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA

17. I can explore my own strengths as a volunteer.  SD  DA  SE  SL  AG  SA
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My friends are also volunteers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>People I know share an interest in community service.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>People I'm close to want me to volunteer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel important.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Volunteering increases my self-esteem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel needed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Volunteering is a way to make new friends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>By volunteering I feel less lonely.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section C**

This section seeks to examine the degree to which the reason/s for volunteering have been or being fulfilled. Please indicate your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction on each of the statements below. There is not right or wrong answer. Please tick any from **CD=Completely Dissatisfied, MD=Mostly Dissatisfied, SD=Somewhat Dissatisfied, SS=Somewhat Satisfied, MS=Mostly Satisfied, CS=Completely Satisfied.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work at this organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By volunteering at this organisation, I am doing something for a cause I believe in.

From volunteering at this organisation, my self-esteem has been enhanced.

From volunteering at this organisation, I feel better about myself.

Volunteering at this organisation allows me to escape some of my own troubles.

Volunteering at this organisation allows me to feel less lonely.

I have been able to explore my own personal strengths through volunteering at this organisation.

I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering at this organisation.

People close to me know that I am volunteering at this organisation.

My friends have found out that I do volunteer work for this organisation.

By volunteering at this organisation, I have been able to make new contacts that might help my business or career.

By volunteering at this organisation, I have been able to add important experience to my resume.

Section D

These statements are used to evaluate your feelings regarding the organisation where you are currently volunteering. Please tick any from **SD=Strongly Disagree, DA=Disagree, SE=Slightly Disagree, SL=Slightly Agree, AG=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree.**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>The organisation shows much concern for me.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>This organisation is willing to help me if I need special favour.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>My supervisor is satisfied with my work.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>My supervisor understands my work problems and needs.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>My supervisor knows how good I am at my job.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>My supervisor is willing to use her/his power to help me solve work problems.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>My supervisor is willing to help me at work when I really need it.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>I enjoy discussing my organisation with outside people.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>I feel like “part of the family” at this organisation.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>I feel a strong sense of belonging to the organisation.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>I feel strong ties with the organisation.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my volunteering work with this organisation.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>I don’t think of quitting this job.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>Most people are very satisfied with their job.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>I intend to keep on doing the job in this organisation, for the foreseeable future.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>I see myself still volunteering for this organisation one year from now.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>I do not intend to pursue an alternative volunteering job in the next two years.</td>
<td>SD DA SE SL AG SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thanks for your participation.
Appendix D: Skewness and Kurtosis Table

Alt1
Alt2
Alt3
Alt4
Alt5
ego1
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ego17
ego18
ego19
ego20
ego21
ego22
ego23
ego24
ego25
alt_fullfillm
ent1
alt_fullfillm
ent2
ego_fulfil1
ego_fulfil2
ego_fulfil3
ego_fulfil4
ego_fulfil5
ego_fulfil6
ego_fulfil7
ego_fulfil8
ego_fulfil9
ego_fulfil1
0
Pos1
Pos2
Pos3
Pos4
Pos5
Pos6
Pos7
Pos8
LMX1
LMX2
LMX3
LMX4
LMX5
LMX6
LMX7
Af_com1

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213
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213
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