2023

Examination of Volunteer Motivations in a Civilian Auxiliary of a Military Branch

Diane T. Lambert

Examination of Volunteer Motivations in a
Civilian Auxiliary of a Military Branch

by
Diane T. Lambert

An Applied Dissertation Submitted to the
Abraham S. Fischler College of Education
and School of Criminal Justice in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education

Nova Southeastern University
2023

Approval Page

This applied dissertation was submitted by Diane T. Lambert under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Abraham S. Fischler College of Education and School of Criminal Justice and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education at Nova Southeastern University.

Gina Peyton, EdD
Committee Chair

Anne Joslin, PhD
Committee Member

Kimberly Durham, PsyD
Dean

Statement of Original Work

I declare the following:

I have read the Code of Student Conduct and Academic Responsibility as described in the *Student Handbook* of Nova Southeastern University. This applied dissertation represents my original work, except where I have acknowledged the ideas, words, or material of other authors.

Where another author's ideas have been presented in this applied dissertation, I have acknowledged the author's ideas by citing them in the required style.

Where another author's words have been presented in this applied dissertation, I have acknowledged the author's words by using appropriate quotation devices and citations in the required style.

I have obtained permission from the author or publisher—in accordance with the required guidelines—to include any copyrighted material (e.g., tables, figures, survey instruments, large portions of text) in this applied dissertation manuscript.

Diane T. Lambert
Name

August 1, 2023
Date

Acknowledgments

Pursuing this doctoral degree has been a very challenging, growth-filled, and humbling endeavor. I could not have completed this degree without faith and the enthusiasm and support of a great many people along the way.

I must thank the Civil Air Patrol leadership of my home state for approving my research project and the many members who used their personal time to participate in the survey. I must also offer my gratitude to the many members with whom I have served over the last 18 years for sharing their time, instruction, mentoring, and friendship. You have shown through your example that your personal attention does encourage a member to become a long-term volunteer.

I could not have completed my degree without the academically demanding yet encouraging professors I have had along the way. The most important professor has been Dr. Gina Peyton who has been my dissertation chair. Thank you for continuing to believe that I could complete my degree and being proactive in my behalf. You offered reassurance and support throughout the academic and personal struggles I faced and motivated me to keep moving forward. I will never forget your help and kindness.

I must thank my family and friends for many words of curiosity, cheer, and inspiration. Thank you, Theresa and Bob, for your unconditional love and thoughtfulness!

Mom, thank you for your patience and for knowing just the right times to boost my morale, make me laugh, and motivate me to drive forward with confidence to the end of this degree. You have always been more than my greatest source of optimism and support. You have been my role model, my companion through many challenging times, and my best friend. I love you--To the moon and back!

Abstract

Examination of Volunteer Motivations in a Civilian Auxiliary of a Military Branch. Diane T. Lambert, 2023: Applied Dissertation, Nova Southeastern University, Abraham S. Fischler College of Education and School of Criminal Justice. Keywords: functional analysis, volunteers, public service, motivation

This applied dissertation was developed to expand the understanding of the motivations of long-term volunteers in a civilian auxiliary of a military branch. The organization examined was the official auxiliary of the United States Air Force known as the Civil Air Patrol (CAP). The organization found that it was retaining only about two thirds of its members beyond their first year. The study was conducted to gain insight into the motivations of volunteers, their satisfaction levels, and length of service with the hope that such understanding may help improve recruiting and retention efforts.

A survey employing functional analysis to assess volunteer motivations and satisfaction levels was conducted. This study utilized the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to collect data on six areas of motivation: values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective. Responses to the VFI were used to examine four research questions regarding which volunteer motivations were strongest for members, how motivations differed based on age category, current levels of volunteer satisfaction, and the differences in satisfaction levels based on volunteer lengths of service. Prior research suggested that this is the first time the VFI was used with the unique organization of the CAP.

The VFI and a supplemental demographic questionnaire were administered to 102 adult respondents from a CAP wing in a small northeastern state in the United States. The strongest motivation overall for members involved values. All age groups (i.e., 18-21, 31-35, 51-67, and over 68) reported values as the strongest motivation except 22- to 30-year-olds, who reported understanding as its strongest motivation. Less than one third reported being satisfied with their volunteer service. Satisfaction levels did vary based upon length of service. Those members having 20 or more years of service had the highest satisfaction rate, and those with less than 11 years reported the lowest rate of satisfaction.

Findings suggested that the satisfaction of volunteer motivations may correlate with length of service. The implication is the VFI can offer insight to organizations and help them better appreciate the unique needs of their volunteers. Improved understanding should not only help the CAP, but any volunteer group that strives to improve the recruiting and retention efforts of both new and long-term volunteers.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

There are thousands of volunteer organizations in the United States struggling to find improved ways of recruiting and retaining long-term volunteers. The U.S. Department of Labor (2009) confirmed that a serious challenge exists in securing either long- or short-term volunteers when it noted that only about one fourth of Americans volunteer their time. The organization that was examined in this study was the Civil Air Patrol (CAP), which is the official civilian auxiliary of the United States Air Force (USAF). This civilian auxiliary of a military branch has found that as many as one third of its new members were not being retained beyond the first year of membership (CAP, 2014). Understanding what motivates individuals to join this civilian auxiliary of a military branch can aid in the effectiveness of the organization's recruiting and retention efforts.

Addressing the recruitment and retention of volunteers requires an understanding of why individuals join organizations and why they may stay. Studies have shown the value in taking a functional approach to gain insight into volunteer motivations (Finkelstein, 2007; Finkelstein, 2008a, 2008b; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Greenslade & White, 2005; Houle et al., 2005; Morrow-Howell et al., 2009; Yoshioka et al., 2007). The functional approach has proposed that volunteers seek to satisfy personal needs or motives when donating time and energy. The indication is that volunteers who felt their motives were being met were more likely to be satisfied with the overall volunteer experience.

The Research Problem

The problem under investigation was that nearly 30% of CAP volunteers were leaving by the end of their first year. A better understanding of what motivates volunteers to join and remain in CAP may help improve recruiting and retention efforts. From 2007 to 2008, 26.4% of the American population volunteered time for an organization, and approximately 60% of those who volunteered did so for religious, education, or youth-oriented agencies (U.S. Department of Labor, 2009). Down 7.6% from September 2001 to September 2002, there was a possible trend towards fewer American volunteers from which to recruit (Boraas, 2003). Organizations must be deliberate in their efforts if they are to effectively attract new volunteers and keep those they already have. Functional analysis of volunteerism has indicated that individuals volunteer in order to meet personal needs (Finkelstein, 2008b). By understanding and targeting volunteer motivations, organizations can enhance their recruitment and retention endeavors (Allison et al., 2002).

Background and Justification

Most organizations spend a considerable amount of time, effort, and money recruiting and training volunteers. It is important for these resources to be used as much as possible in support of an agency's primary service mission. The CAP, a civilian auxiliary of the USAF, is an example of one agency dedicated to community service that is striving to maintain its long-term volunteer base. CAP was founded in 1941, and the United States Congress declared CAP the permanent auxiliary of the USAF on May 26, 1948, through Public Law 557 (CAP, 2013).

Of the nearly 60,000 CAP members who volunteer, approximately 34,000 are

adult members who serve in nearly 1,500 squadrons throughout the 50 United States, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia (CAP, 2013). Members are considered professional volunteers who receive extensive specialized training, wear uniforms, follow a military-style organizational structure, and observe customs and courtesies based upon those of the USAF. CAP activities address three primary mission areas that include emergency services (i.e., air and land search and rescue, homeland security, aerial photography, disaster relief), cadet programs (i.e., leadership, aerospace, fitness, and character development programming), and aerospace education (i.e., classes, orientation flights, and instructional materials for internal and external constituents). CAP resources include one of the world's largest fleets of single-engine aircraft (more than 530), over 950 emergency service vehicles, and the largest privately held radio network in the world with 2,000 fixed stations (CAP, 2013).

CAP utilizes a great deal of energy and expense to train the volunteers responsible for its personnel and physical resources (CAP, 2014). As a result, the organization must be deliberate in recruiting and retaining members. CAP has strived for more than 80 years to replenish and maintain its nationwide volunteer membership on an annual basis. In October 2013, CAP estimated that 34,000 adults volunteered nationwide within one of its three main service missions of emergency services, aerospace education, and cadet programs. However, CAP also determined that approximately 20-30% of new members were not renewing their membership following their first year (CAP, 2014). In past and recent years, CAP asked open-ended questions on applications about why incoming members were joining and asked outgoing members through informal exit questionnaires about why they were leaving (CAP, 2014).

A lot of effort and expense is poured into the recruiting effort. If an equal amount were spent on retention, our numbers would be increasing rather than decreasing. The reasons that attracted new members are vastly different from the reasons they will stay or leave the organization (CAP, 2014). Ongoing scientific surveys of member motivations, in addition to entrance and exit questionnaires, could contribute to member retention and increased longevity of service. Research has suggested a strong correlation between volunteer longevity and the satisfaction of volunteer motivational needs (Clary et al., 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Finkelstein, 2008a, 2008b; Finkelstein et al., 2005).

Deficiencies in the Evidence

CAP shares many of the same pursuits (e.g., youth activities, education, search and rescue, and homeland security) as organizations such as the Boy and Girl Scouts, emergency response units (e.g., volunteer fire or ambulance crews), and the American Red Cross. In much the same way as volunteer firefighters and paramedics, CAP members are considered professional volunteers who have specialized training and follow specific regulations. Though other organizations may share some common attributes or activities with it, CAP remains unique in many ways that demonstrate deficiencies in the literature upon which CAP may draw for data relevant about its volunteer organization. First, research did not identify another individual organization that engaged in all three of the main missions (i.e., emergency services, aerospace education, cadet programs) done by CAP. Second, as the only volunteer branch of the Air Force, CAP is distinctive since no other organization can make the same claim (CAP, 2013). Finally, as the official auxiliary of the USAF, CAP's volunteers are part of an organization founded on the military structure, values, and customs of the USAF.

Research literature on long-term volunteer motivations has been explored with volunteers in youth, social welfare (e.g., hospice, healthcare, and family services), and, minimally, firefighting settings (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008a; Harrison, 1995; Puffer & Meindl, 1992; Thompson & Bono, 1993). A great deal of research has focused on organizations with predominantly social-service oriented missions. However, these studies produced information about volunteer motivations to which this study's CAP results will be compared. No study was identified that has explored volunteer motivations in a civilian auxiliary of a military branch or in an organization with similar multiple missions. CAP is a unique organization to investigate because these attributes are present.

Audience

The main audience of this study includes any group that relies upon volunteers and especially those that rely upon the services of long-term volunteers. Organizers of volunteer programs are constantly looking for ways to increase membership numbers while retaining their experienced volunteers. They can do this more efficiently by better understanding what motivates individuals to volunteer their time and energy. Information about volunteer motivations is relevant to any volunteer organization regardless of its mission, however small or large, and whether local or national in scope. Volunteers will be the ultimate beneficiaries from this study because agencies could measure and address their motivations more intentionally.

Setting of the Study

This study was conducted with adult members who volunteer with the CAP, which is the civilian auxiliary of the USAF. The survey participants came from a 299-member unit at the state level of the nationwide CAP organization. The state is small

in size and located in the northeastern United States. Convenience sampling was conducted via email invitation to the online survey respondents completed.

Researcher's Role

The study was conducted by an adult member of the CAP who had served in various roles over 18 years as a volunteer with the organization. This researcher had experience serving as an officer responsible for the professional development of new and continuing volunteers. Recruiting and retention of members had been an ongoing area of interest, and this study was conducted to gain some insight into what motivates members. To avoid any conflict of interest or undue influence, member emails were uploaded to the survey software, and results were collected such that members remained anonymous throughout the study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine what motivates individuals to offer sustained volunteer service for a civilian auxiliary of a military branch. Specifically, the relationship between volunteer motivations and length of service was explored with adult volunteers in the CAP.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this applied dissertation, the following terms are defined.

Civil Air Patrol (CAP)

This term refers to an organization, founded in 1941, which is the official civilian auxiliary of the USAF. There are roughly 34,000 adult members who volunteer throughout the United States (CAP, 2013).

Length of Service

An individual's length of service was conceptually defined as the total number of years an individual has been a member of the volunteer organization. Length of service was operationally defined by the individual's self-reported total number of years as a member of a civilian auxiliary of a military branch.

Motive

Motive has been conceptually defined as an inner drive or impulse that causes one to act. Operationally, motive has been defined by scores on each of six motives, referred to as functions (i.e., values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement) as measured by the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), developed by Clary et al. (1998).

Volunteerism

This term refers to "voluntary, sustained, and ongoing helpfulness" (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517). It is planned helping behavior (i.e., long-term) as opposed to spontaneous assistance by a volunteer (McEwin & Jacobsen-D'Arcy, 1992).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Volunteers are a critical component of organizations that engage in community service. Volunteers are relied upon to further an organization's mission and carry out the service activities each provides (Eisner, 2008; Freis, 2006). It takes a great deal of time and expense to recruit and train volunteers to be productive (Eisner, 2008). As a result, organizations benefit when they are able to develop experienced volunteers who can offer service over sustained periods of time. One way for organizations to improve retention levels is to understand the many motivations that drive people to volunteer (Allison et al., 2002; Finkelstein, 2008b). Following is a review of motivational theories that relate to volunteerism, functional analysis of volunteerism, variations in volunteer motivations and satisfaction, organizational benefits of volunteerism, importance of sustained volunteerism, volunteer motivation and long-term helping behavior, and overall benefits of volunteering for individuals. Additionally, the research questions that were examined in this study are listed.

Motivational Theories and Volunteerism

There are many theories that offer insight about the motives behind why individuals volunteer. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, social exchange theory, the theory of planned behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and functional analysis theory each clarify some of the needs people attempt to satisfy through their volunteer experiences.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In 1943, psychologist Abraham Maslow proposed that individuals act in order to satisfy a hierarchical order of needs. In a pyramid construct, he proposed that there are

five levels of basic needs towards which everyone strives. Progressing from the lowest level to the highest were his proposed needs: physiological (e.g., shelter, food, water, sleep), safety (e.g., security and stability of self and loved ones), social (e.g., companionship, love, belonging), esteem (e.g., respect from self and others, recognition, achievement), and self-actualization (e.g., creativity, chances to grow, fulfillment; Maslow, 2000). While a person may be driven to pursue goals from multiple levels, a key aspect of the theory is that a person does not feel as comfortable focusing on a higher level until he or she feels satisfied in the preceding lower levels of need (Maslow, 1943, 1954). The most dominating need for an individual will be the driving motivation behind how he or she acts, selects activities, and organizes priorities (Maslow, 2000).

Maslow's need theory can be applied to any organization concerned about recruiting and retaining volunteers. The theory reminds leaders that an organizational environment must be created that allows individuals the chance to pursue the highest need levels to which they feel motivated (Maslow, 2000). Perone et al. (2005) noted that the highest Maslow need level of self-actualization is the one in which people are motivated to pursue their highest personal potentials, along with undertakings leading to peace and justice for others. Self-actualization motivations align extremely well with the goals of most volunteer organizations which focus on service in altruistic activities (Theurer & Wister, 2010). Organizations that concentrate on creating an environment in which members feel that self-actualization is a priority can increase the likelihood of satisfying and, therefore, retaining their volunteers (Theurer & Wister, 2010). Maslow's need theory serves to remind organizations that need satisfaction plays a role in why and how volunteers choose to serve.

Social Exchange Theory

In his landmark work about social exchange theory, sociologist George Homans (1958) suggested that the social interactions surrounding motivations and need satisfaction could be subjected to a cost-benefit analysis. The idea was put forward that motive fulfillment and the desire to satisfy needs are only starting points for why people pursue activities (Ayobami et al., 2012). For an individual to continue a pursuit, he or she must receive reinforcement and find that the social exchange with the organization and/or its members results in more rewards than costs (Collett, 2010). As long as the person perceives that actions result in favorable exchanges (e.g., friendships, recognition, usage of talents) they will continue the rewarded behaviors (Homans, 1958).

Social exchange theory is valuable for organizations to understand in relation to satisfying and retaining volunteers. Slaughter and Home (2004) noted that while volunteers seek to provide service to an organization they also feel that they should be fulfilled and recognized in what they do. The authors confirmed that volunteers are motivated by internal needs, but also require external supports from an organization to pursue need satisfaction. The implication is that organizations are called upon to personalize the volunteer experience for each individual. As Homans (1958) offered, "persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them" (p. 606). As volunteers give of themselves in service, their organizations must offer rewards that are relevant and equal in exchange (Collett, 2010; Homans, 1958). Organizations need to take the time to determine what each volunteer finds motivating and rewarding to retain each over a long term (People in Aid, 2007).

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior was proposed by psychologist Icek Ajzen (1985) to describe how attitudes about behaviors inform behavioral intentions. According to the theory, behavioral attitudes are based on what the perceived result will be for self and from others for pursuing a given behavior and, also, whether the person feels control over the pursuit of that behavior (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009). If a person believes a behavior will result in a beneficial outcome then he or she will rationalize that it is worth pursuing (Harding et al., 2007). Harding et al. (2007) further concluded that behavioral intentions are perpetuated when they lead a person to favorable personal outcomes, are reinforced socially, or when there is some level of control over how the behavior is practiced.

Volunteer organizations can benefit from understanding the theory of planned behavior. The theory has stressed that individuals need to be rewarded for and have control over their actions (Harding et al., 2007). Wang et al. (2011) emphasized that creating an organizational environment that is considerate of the need for volunteer controls and rewards is critical. The authors noted "the environment can be physical, social, cultural, economical, political in nature and situational in nature, which can facilitate or inhibit behavior" (Wang et al., 2011, p. 178). Regardless, the environment and the volunteers must be complementary and mutually beneficial to one another which requires recruiting and retention efforts that are deliberate. As Kim et al. (2009) proposed, the successful environment balances the fit between both the organization and volunteer. An organization that offers an environment stressing individual empowerment would likely benefit from a greater intent to serve on the part of each volunteer (Kim et al., 2009). Through the encouragement of positive self-concept and self-efficacy,

organizations can create the kind of environmental context essential for developing

enhanced volunteer attitudes about expected behaviors (Lamm et al., 2012).

Organizations that can incorporate these elements for their volunteers may have a greater

likelihood of attracting new people and retaining those who are experienced.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior describes a commitment to an organization

beyond what is required or rewarded (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). The individual feels

such a close connection to a workplace that he or she exceeds normal job duties and is

motivated to offer extra effort. The person surpasses expectations by choice which

benefits the organization in a positive way (Davila & Finkelstein, 2010). Tanaka (2013)

noted that citizenship behavior typically includes "unallocated work" (p. 6) and "extra-

role behavior" (p. 6), which is significant for what it often role models for others,

including operational excellence, attentiveness to detail, team work, discipline, internal

and external customer service, and respect. When the collective results of such

individuals are considered, one realizes that organizational citizenship behavior can make

a tremendous difference (Tanaka, 2013).

Organizational citizenship behavior is an important concept for what it can reveal

about volunteers in an organization. Citizenship behavior is an indication that a member

desires to go beyond what is formally assigned to him or her to offer extra time and effort

(Davila & Finkelstein, 2010). An individual progresses from viewing an organization

from a cognitive, goal-satisfying perspective to an organizational identification that is

affective in nature (Vondey, 2010). In this way, citizenship behavior reflects the

development of a strong connection between person and organization. Lee et al. (2013)

suggested that citizenship behavior is a direct response to an environment perceived as possessing characteristics such as trust, justice, and support. These environments have also strongly correlated with the need fulfillment and long-term job satisfaction that many volunteers seek (Davila & Finkelstein, 2010; Lee et al., 2013). Organizations benefit from citizenship behavior as it results in positive contributions such as interpersonal helping, initiative, and promotion of the organization to outsiders (Vondey, 2010). These are elements of service that any volunteer organization could find advantageous.

Functionalist Perspective

In the social sciences, the functionalist perspective has been used as a lens to increase the understanding of social behaviors (Van Zomeren & Spears, 2009). Psychologist John Dewey was among the first to propose that identifying a behavior is merely a start, because in clarifying its purpose one truly understands the behavior (Kretschmer et al., 2010). Dewey emphasized that a behavior serves a function for a given person (Green, 2009). From this functionalist perspective, people engage in social activities to satisfy personal needs and goals. The individual behaves intentionally, though the person may be motivated "either implicitly or explicitly, either consciously or nonconsciously" (Van Zomeren & Spears, 2009, p. 662). To better understand social behavior, one must consider that each person has different needs which may be driven by intellectual, social, physical, psychological or other motivations (Green, 2009; Jiranek et al., 2013; Van Zomeren & Spears, 2009). Through the application of functional analysis to social behaviors, one gains valuable insight about which motivations appear to correspond with behavioral choices (Van Zomeren & Spears, 2009).

The functionalist perspective can facilitate a more complete understanding about

why people engage in volunteer activities. Functionalism is an approach that is considerate of the many motives behind why people volunteer (Cornelis et al., 2013). It does not put forth one reason for volunteering; instead, it emphasizes that people are deliberate in the choices each makes (Kretschmer et al., 2010). As intentional beings, people engage in activities that satisfy needs that are as varied as there are people. The functionalist perspective facilitates the due consideration of these needs whether they are based in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, social exchange theory, planned behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, or another theory (Jiranek et al., 2013).

Functional Analysis of Volunteerism

Volunteer Functions Inventory

Description. Functional analysis theory has proposed that, when individuals pursue activities, they do so in order to satisfy needs and motivations (Finkelstein et al., 2005; Houle et al., 2005). In their landmark study, Clary et al. (1998) not only suggested that functional analysis could be used to analyze volunteerism, but also introduced the VFI as a means by which volunteer motivations could be examined. Clary et al. proposed six categories of motives (i.e., functions) for why individuals volunteered: (a) values (i.e., to help others out of compassion), (b) understanding (i.e., to learn from new experiences or share what one has already learned), (c) social (i.e., to make friends or to conform to social expectations), (d) career (i.e., to gain or maintain vocational skills), (e) protective (i.e., to address personal issues or reduce negative self-image), and (f) enhancement (i.e., to enhance personal development or enhance self-esteem).

Purpose. The VFI allows researchers to measure these six volunteer motivations as well as the degree to which a volunteer is likely to continue volunteering. In this way,

the VFI has been used as a predictive tool for determining which volunteers may likely

continue their service (Greenslade & White, 2005). At the least, the VFI provides an

organization with a view of long-term volunteerism from the perspective of the functions

it serves for the volunteer (Clary et al., 1998).

Survey Methodology and the VFI

The VFI was constructed by Clary et al. (1998) as a quantitative survey

instrument utilizing a questionnaire format. Therefore, one must examine the advantages

and limitations of utilizing survey research methodology such as the VFI.

Advantages. As a survey instrument, the VFI shares the many advantages

common with this research methodology. Advantages include the speed with which data

can be collected, the convenience offered for gathering data, and the quality and accuracy

of data collection. Surveys can gather data about respondent attitudes, behaviors, and

views in a short amount of time (Chew & Eysenbach, 2010). The VFI, for example,

allows a respondent to simply enter a number next to each statement to represent his or

her answer. This decreases the amount of time the respondent must spend answering the

survey items and aids the researcher in analyzing data more quickly, as well. By using the

internet to distribute surveys, researchers can further increase the speed at which data is

collected (Chew & Eysenbach, 2010). Survey methodology allows research to be

conducted and analyzed rapidly enough for volunteer organizations to enact practical,

data-driven institutional changes in a timely manner.

Survey methodology is a convenient means for data collection. Once a survey,

such as the VFI, has been created and its reliability and validity established, it is typically

easy to administer (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). A survey may be distributed via

the internet to reach a large number of respondents in a short amount of time (Wright, 2005). Many questions can be asked at one time, allowing the researcher to explore more breadth or depth around a research question (Burns et al., 2008). Questionnaire surveys, unlike interviews or panels, offer anonymity for respondents which is critical to eliciting honest feedback about personal beliefs or opinions (Bennett et al., 2011; Chew & Eysenbach, 2010; Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). Issues related to the proximity of respondents and researchers are also reduced as remote administration allows respondents to complete a survey regardless of time or location (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). Removal of such barriers often contributes to a higher response rate and increased representation of the population being sampled (Wright, 2005). This efficiency in gathering data makes survey research a cost-effective option for researchers (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010).

Survey research using questionnaires provides quality and accuracy in data measurement (Bennett et al., 2011; Burns et al., 2008). The preparation of quality surveys, such as the VFI, begins with rigorous pretesting to determine the validity and reliability of the instrument and its questions (Allison et al., 2002; Bennett et al., 2011; Clary et al., 1998; Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). This psychometric testing improves the accuracy and consistency of the survey and increases the likelihood that results will be generalizable to the population being studied (Bennett et al., 2011). Additionally, a researcher can reduce errors associated with investigator interpretation by using a quantitative survey design. Commonly utilized approaches such as closed-ended questions or Likert-type scales standardize the questions provided to each respondent and the answers each can provide (Draugalis et al., 2010). These formats help to reduce

investigator or observer subjectivity errors that may be found with dialogue

methodologies (e.g., panel surveys, focus groups, personal interviews) that require the

interpretation of open-ended questions (Burns et al., 2008). Finally, quantitative surveys

can be used in conjunction with computerized survey tools (e.g., Survey Monkey) to

reduce data collection errors. Such software can screen respondent emails for duplicate

submissions and automatically upload data for statistical analysis to reduce data entry

errors (Wright, 2005).

　　　　Limitations to Overcome. A researcher should recognize that the VFI possesses

the same types of limitations that challenge other quantitative survey questionnaires.

These surveys often used closed-ended questions and respondents tend to be at a distance

from researchers. Many questionnaire survey instruments, such as the VFI, use closed-

ended response formats which limit information gained from respondents

(Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). Closed-ended questions are designed to limit answer

options from respondents to those that have been preselected by researchers (Bennett et

al., 2011). This structure is advantageous for the researcher because data can be analyzed

quickly and errors limited (Burns et al., 2008). However, the respondent does not have

the opportunity to clarify answers when open ended responses are not utilized which may

affect response rates (Burns et al., 2008). Closed-ended questions are typically subjected

to pretesting to enhance the reliability and validity of questions. However, creating such

consistency limits the spontaneity of answers (Bennett et al., 2011; Burns et al., 2008;

Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010).

　　　　Survey research is often administered remotely to respondents. Popular survey

distribution methods, such as postal mail and internet delivery, allow a researcher to

reach a large number of respondents, regardless of location, in a relatively short amount of time. However, surveys completed at a distance are done so in the absence of the researcher. This can be problematic for several reasons. First, the survey could actually be completed by a person for whom the survey was not intended (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010; Wright, 2005). Careful selection of email and physical addresses, survey cover letters, and questions at the beginning of the survey to can help eliminate improper participants (Burns et al., 2008; Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). Second, a respondent might misinterpret or skip questions when unable to get clarification from a researcher about a survey item (Burns et al., 2008; Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). However, Burns et al. (2008) noted that this issue can be limited when surveys (e.g., the VFI) undergo careful pretesting of questions with a pilot group.

Finally, potential respondents might not complete a survey because inaccurate physical or email addresses were used or the survey might be interpreted as junk mail and therefore disregarded (Draugalis et al., 2010; Wright, 2005). Advanced notification about the survey or multiple distributions could help respondents separate the survey from junk mail. Also, with the assistance of survey software, researchers can also test for and resend surveys to any inaccurate email addresses that have been identified (Burns et al., 2008). If uncontrolled, these issues contribute to sampling errors or reduced response rates that may result in a sample that does not accurately reflect the population being measured (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010; Wright, 2005).

Cross-Sectional Research Approach

As with many surveys, the VFI is utilized as a cross-sectional tool. The advantages of the cross-sectional research approach include a reduction of time and cost

expenditures. The primary limitation to the approach, however, is the limited ability to derive causal relationships from the research results.

Advantages. Cross-sectional research is advantageous because its typically short duration often reduces the time and the costs (i.e., monetary, labor, materials) involved in conducting a study (Levin, 2006; Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010; Rindfleisch et al., 2008; Wright, 2005). A cross-sectional survey collects data at a single point in time from a population sample. As a result, there is a reduction in time and expense than would be required for a longitudinal study that necessitates follow-up survey administration with respondents (Levin, 2006; Rindfleisch et al., 2008). Additionally, respondents are more likely to participate in cross-sectional surveys because there is shorter time commitment than with a long-term study (Mathiyazhagen & Nandan, 2010). Data collection and analysis are done once so organizations can have information to act upon relatively quickly compared to a longitudinal survey approach. As Chew and Eysenbach (2010) noted, "Rapid-turnaround surveys best capture changes in attitudes and behavior influenced by specific events and produce the most relevant information for agency intervention" (p. 2). Organizations can spend less time doing research and more time applying what has been learned.

Primary Limitation. Cross-sectional research methodology does not allow the determination of causal relationships (Chew & Eysenbach, 2010; Finkelstein, 2008b; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). A survey that is distributed only once cannot reveal trends in data in the same way as a longitudinal study (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Rindfleisch et al., 2008). For example, when the VFI is used with respondents only at one point in time, it cannot determine the types of environmental, personal, or social

influences acting upon volunteer motivations and satisfaction levels (Finkelstein, 2008b).

A researcher must recognize this limitation around data and consider how respondents

may change their beliefs or characteristics over time (Wright, 2005). Institutional leaders

should exercise caution about whether cross-sectional or longitudinal research will

provide the most useful data to best inform organizational changes (Chew & Eysenbach,

2010; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Wright, 2005).

Variations in Volunteer Motivations and Satisfaction

Studies have examined whether some motivations are more relevant than others

when there are variations in the volunteer sample. Researchers have suggested that the

motivations of older adults may vary from those of younger or middle-aged adults (Burns

et al., 2005; Kaskie et al., 2008; Morrow-Howell, 2007; Morrow-Howell et al., 2009;

Yoshioka et al., 2007). Finkelstein (2008b) noted that age may be a factor in whether

career motives affect volunteer longevity and those older volunteers seemed to have

lower career motives than younger volunteers. The same study also indicated that social

motivation had a strong positive association with volunteer longevity.

Researchers offered that the importance of some motives may change as the

individual is influenced by the activities of the volunteer organization (Clary et al., 1998;

Finkelstein, 2008a). It was suggested that time itself could be a factor in what motivated

each volunteer and how satisfied he or she felt with the volunteer experience. Greenslade

and White (2005) agreed that an increased understanding of how to interpret individual

variations in volunteer motives and satisfaction is valuable to understanding the

interaction between volunteers and organizations. Finkelstein (2007) concurred by noting

the importance of evaluating motives early with new volunteers and reevaluating motives

throughout an individual's service. In these ways the likelihood increases that volunteer and organizational needs may be satisfactorily matched.

Organizational Benefits of Volunteerism

Monetary Savings

Many community service organizations could not exist without the support of volunteer members (Burns et al., 2005). One substantial organizational advantage of utilizing volunteers is the monetary savings that results from not having to pay salaries or benefits to such individuals (Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999). For 2010 alone, the financial value approximated for 62.7 million American volunteers who gave 8.1 billion hours was calculated at $173 billion (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2011). During the 2005 Hurricane Katrina disaster, for example, more than 93,000 volunteers rendered greater than 3.5 million hours of relief service while working alongside paid professionals from organizations such as AmeriCorps, the American Red Cross, and the Federal Emergency Management Agency (Eisner, 2008). Eisner (2008) suggested that the volunteers saved government and community agencies millions of dollars in emergency response costs.

Force Multiplication

Hurricane Katrina's disaster response exemplified how volunteers can act as force multipliers for an organization (Eisner, 2008; Wells et al., 2008). AmeriCorps volunteers, for example, are trained to supplement the paid full- or part-time staff members in the civic, education, and social service agencies in which they serve (Eisner, 2008). Once trained, however, AmeriCorps volunteers are typically charged with recruiting and training a base of local volunteers who will be empowered to foster the given agency's

goals within the community (Eisner, 2008). For volunteers to translate their efforts exponentially, their talents must be managed by organizations such that each person can recruit, train, or lead other volunteers in their communities (Allen, 2006; Eisner, 2008; Kenny et al., 2008; Wells et al., 2008).

Talent and Resource Acquisition

Organizations are the benefactors of the many talents and resources each volunteer brings to an organization. Volunteers are often identified by the tangible talents they provide through skills such as carpentry, technology, or medical skills. However, volunteers also offer valuable gifts such as time, enthusiasm, new ideas, experiences, effort, and eagerness to learn and serve (Freis, 2006). Additionally, it has been noted that volunteers help organizations to enhance their social capital by providing community connections (Hudson, 2007). Each person who volunteers brings a network of relationships (e.g., colleagues, family, religious) that can be translated into political, fundraising, or recruiting resources (Ryan et al., 2005). Finally, it has been suggested that volunteers can be an important resource for feedback, ideas, and observations outside of those tendered by employees or other constituents (Bang & Ross, 2009). Organizations must learn about every volunteer to effectively gain from the talents and resources each has to offer (Bang & Ross, 2009).

Importance of Sustained Volunteerism

Volunteer behavior can be described as either spontaneous or sustained (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein et al., 2005). Spontaneous helping is an impromptu decision by an individual to help another during a brief and unplanned event (e.g., offering aid to a car accident victim). Sustained helping, on the contrary, involves ongoing and planned

assistance by a volunteer. Before committing time and energy, the sustained helper must consider why and how he or she seeks to volunteer. It is the sustained helping form of volunteerism which will be examined in this study. For many kinds of organizations, sustained volunteerism is essential for continuity of services or reduced expenditures of resources on recruiting and training activities.

Volunteer Motivation and Long-Term Helping Behavior

Bremer and Graeff (2006) noted that volunteer motivations are an important consideration for organizations that seek not only to attract, but also to retain help. Individuals reporting high levels of motive satisfaction have often indicated a greater likelihood of continuing as volunteers over the long-term (Clary et al., 1998). Increased organizational understanding of volunteer motives has been associated with improved recruiting and retention efforts. Researchers have found a positive correlation between the satisfaction of volunteer motivations and the desire by the individual to continue volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Finkelstein, 2008a, 2008b; Finkelstein et al., 2005).

One researcher noted that volunteers deem themselves as being in a psychological contract with an organization, whereby mutual needs must be satisfied (Starnes, 2007). Starnes' study revealed that a sense of job satisfaction was felt when volunteers believed their psychological needs were being addressed by organizational opportunities. Individuals were found more likely to offer sustained service when the organization was able to provide opportunities that fulfilled the motivational needs of the volunteer (Clary et al., 1998; Starnes, 2007).

Overall Benefits of Volunteering for Individuals

Opportunity to Explore Self-Concept

Some individuals find that volunteering acts as a mechanism for developing their identities. People may utilize volunteering as a means for exploring how differing roles may or may not align with self-concepts (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). While role explorations can be varied, examples might include introverted people taking on extroverted tasks (e.g., public speaking or recruiting), followers taking on leadership positions (e.g., event organizers or group leaders), or office workers engaging in physical activities (e.g., camping with youth or building houses). For these volunteers, service activities are used to try new things, discover personal boundaries, or reaffirm comfort zones (Theurer & Wister, 2010).

Development of Organizational Identity

As volunteers engage in the mission, social context, and activities of a group, they often form a group identity (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). A volunteer becomes socialized in the customs and expectations of the organization and gradually develops a certain role within the group (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). The personal identity around the role can grow strongly enough that the organizational association becomes a part of who the person is to self and to others (Davila & Finkelstein, 2010). Volunteers contribute greatly to a group through the roles each plays; yet, for many individuals, it is the sense of community that arises from volunteers working together towards common goals that contributes most to organizational identity (Ryan et al., 2005).

Physical and Psychological Well-Being

Volunteering has been positively associated with enhanced physical and

psychological health. Piliavin and Siegl (2007) reached this conclusion after their analysis of the 30 years of longitudinal volunteer data provided by the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study. They found that volunteering and the associated elements of "physical activity, social engagement, and community participation" (Piliavin & Siegl, 2007, p. 460) were correlated positively with good physical and psychological health. Piliavin and Siegl further noted that the opportunity to help others provided through volunteerism appeared to promote physical and mental well-being to a stronger degree than pursuits having social interaction or self-enhancement as their sole purposes. The suggestion was that service-oriented activities could have a greater impact on physical and mental health than activities of any other type.

Two organizations have long understood how community service improves the well-being of volunteers. Civic Ventures, which encourages volunteerism among retired people, has believed strongly that volunteers gain as much from their service activities as those who receive the fruit of their efforts. Civic Ventures has suggested that people who engage in productive and meaningful service improve their overall health levels through the social engagement and physical activity volunteerism provides (Achenbaum, 2007). The Corporation for National and Community Service, which provides nearly two million opportunities for volunteers in the Senior Corps, Learn and Serve America, and AmeriCorps programs, has also promoted the health benefits of volunteer service. As a result of its 2007 research, the Corporation for National and Community Service determined that volunteers report feeling greater self-esteem, an added purpose to their lives, reduced feelings of isolation, improved levels of life satisfaction, and enhanced social connections as a result of their activities. Compared to nonvolunteers, volunteers

were also found to experience lower levels of depression and stress and, for those over age 60, higher levels of functional physical ability and lower mortality rates (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007). Volunteering appears to strongly correlate with improvements in mental and physical health.

Research Questions

The following four research questions were established to guide this applied dissertation:

1. Which volunteer motivations are strongest for members of a civilian auxiliary of a military branch?

2. How do motivations differ based on the age category of volunteers?

3. What is the current level of volunteer satisfaction in a civilian auxiliary of a military branch?

4. What is the difference in satisfaction level based on volunteer length of service?

Chapter 3: Methodology

The VFI, designed by Clary et al. (1998), was used to gather data about long-term volunteer motivations and satisfaction within the CAP. Quantitative methods to analyze the inventory results were utilized. The survey was cross-sectional in design and involved a convenience sample of approximately 299 adult members of the CAP. An examination of past literature indicated support for the use of this research design and the VFI instrument (Clary et al., 1998; Cornelis et al., 2013; Davila & Finkelstein, 2010; Finkelstein, 2008a, 2008b; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Greenslade & White, 2005; Houle et al., 2005; Jiranek et al., 2013; Yoshioka et al., 2007).

Participants

The target population included adults aged 18 and older who participated in volunteer service for a civilian auxiliary of a military branch known as the CAP. The sample derived from a roughly 299 adult member state-level unit of a national civilian auxiliary of a military branch. The unit was located in a small state in the northeastern United States. Convenience sampling was utilized to take advantage of every unit member who was willing to contribute to the study. Individuals were invited to participate via email request.

Instruments

The VFI (Clary et al., 1998) is the instrument that was utilized to inquire about volunteer motivations and satisfaction. The inventory was used to assess several categories of motives that many volunteers seek to satisfy through their service activities. The VFI was supplemented by several demographic questions (see Appendix) to better understand the population sample. Supplemental demographic questions asked

respondents to disclose personal demographic information that aided in answering Research Questions 2 and 4. The demographic data were also used to better understand the characteristics of those completing the survey. Questions included gender (i.e., male or female), age category in years (i.e., age 18-21, 22-30, 31-50, 51-67, or 68 years and over), length of service for the CAP in years (i.e., 0-2, 3-10, 11-20, or over 20 years), racial/ethnic background (i.e., White, Asian, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino/Latina, American Indian or Alaska Native, Other or Mixed, or prefer not to answer), paid working status (i.e., employed full-time or part-time, not employed, or retired), whether he or she volunteered for another organization, and with which of the three main CAP missions each person most identified (i.e., emergency services, aerospace education, or cadet programs). Respondents were also asked whether they had prior military service (i.e., no military service or military training; no military service but has experienced military training; or yes to active duty, reserve, or National Guard military service).

The VFI, developed by Clary et al. (1998), was the survey that was used to collect data from respondents about volunteer motivations and satisfaction. The 48-item survey was divided into four sections:

1. Thirty items (i.e., VFI Items 1-30; five items per motive subscale) comprised the six subscales that measure the reasons for volunteering (i.e., motives a volunteer has for volunteering including: values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective). Examples for each motive subscale included: "I feel compassion toward people in need" (values); "I can explore my own strengths" (understanding); "Volunteering makes me feel important" (enhancement); "Volunteering allows me to

explore different career options" (career); "My friends volunteer" (social); and "By volunteering, I feel less lonely" (protective).

2. Twelve items (i.e., VFI Items 31-42; two items per motive subscale) that measured volunteering outcomes (i.e., the extent to which each motive was fulfilled by volunteering).

3. Five items (i.e., VFI Items 43-47) measured the satisfaction with the overall volunteer experience.

4. One item (i.e., VFI Item 48) inquired about the likelihood of volunteering in the future.

The VFI has been shown to have construct and criterion validity (Allison et al., 2002). Clary et al. (1998) determined strong internal consistency reliability for each motive scale as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each: (a) values (.80), (b) understanding (.81), (c) enhancement (.84), (d) career (.89), (e) social (.83), and (f) protective (.81). By averaging all of the within-person motive scores for the whole sample, $r = .712$, $t(57) = 7.55$, $p < .001$, researchers determined there was good predictive validity for motive scores (Clary et al., 1998).

The survey utilized two types of answer formats. A 7-point Likert-type response scale was used for the motives and fulfillment subscales. For the motives subscales, alternatives ranged from 1 (*not at all important or accurate for you*) to 7 (*extremely important or accurate for you*). Higher scores would indicate a greater importance level for a motive. For the fulfillment subscales and questions about overall volunteer satisfaction, alternatives ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Higher scores would indicate a greater satisfaction level of a motive. Demographic questions and

the final VFI question, which inquired about one's likelihood of continuing volunteer service, utilized closed-ended questions with preset response options.

Procedures

Design

The research questions were answered through a quantitative method of collecting and analyzing sample data. A descriptive approach utilized a cross-sectional survey design. The following general steps were used for carrying out the research study. Administrative permissions were obtained from the VFI authors to use the VFI, by the civilian auxiliary of a military branch (i.e., CAP) to survey its members, and by the Nova Southeastern University Institutional Review Board to carry out the dissertation research. The demographic questions and VFI questions had coded responses and that were converted into electronic format in preparation for the survey to be conducted via email distribution. Email addresses from the password-protected database used by the civilian auxiliary of a military branch were obtained.

The survey items, demographic questions, participation letter, and email addresses were uploaded into Survey Monkey, a password-protected tool for conducting surveys online. Known familiarly as Survey Monkey, the site provided extensive data security features including user authentication for database access, Secure Sockets Layer and Transport Layer Security as survey data was sent from respondent to Survey Monkey database, data encryption, network and storage security, and automatic database backups (Survey Monkey, 2013).

Survey Monkey facilitated the dispersion of the survey by the researcher and the anonymous receipt of surveys from respondents. Before the survey was distributed for

completion, a participant solicitation email was sent to the population members. This email acted as an advanced notice to prospective respondents and provided basic information on the purpose of the survey, approving authority, when it was to be disseminated and by whom. The survey was distributed with a 1-week completion deadline for respondents. A reminder email was sent at the end of weeks one and two to capture any remaining possible respondents who had not completed the survey and attempted to increase the response rate. This strategy allowed respondents a total of three weeks to complete the survey. Thank-you emails were sent to each person in the sample as each survey was completed. Survey Monkey automatically gathered the anonymous results of each survey upon completion, and results could then be migrated to a password-protected spreadsheet to calculate sample statistics.

Research Question 1 addressed which volunteer motivations were strongest for members of a civilian auxiliary of a military branch. This was answered by calculating the VFI section on reasons for volunteering (i.e., Items 1-30). These scores revealed the volunteer motivations for each subject. Research Question 2 addressed how motivations differed based on the age category of volunteers. The demographic section asked each survey respondent to identify age category (i.e., 18-30, 31-50, 51-67, and 68 and over). The mean and range were calculated for participants in each age category for the VFI scores pertaining to reasons for volunteering (i.e., the volunteer motivations calculated from VFI Items 1-30) obtained in Research Question 1 above. This revealed which motivations were strongest in each age category of respondents.

Research Question 3 addressed the current level of volunteer satisfaction in a civilian auxiliary of a military branch. This was answered by calculating each

participant's VFI scores for volunteering outcomes (i.e., VFI Items 31-42), which indicated the extent to which each volunteer motivation had been satisfied by service in CAP. This question was more broadly answered by calculating VFI Items 43-47 of the VFI, which revealed each volunteer's overall satisfaction with current volunteer experience in CAP. By calculating the mean of these latter scores for all participants, an indication was provided about the satisfaction of the volunteers in CAP. Research Question 4 addressed the presence of a correlation between the satisfaction level of volunteer motivations and volunteer length of service. This was answered by comparing each participant's overall satisfaction with volunteer service, as calculated in Research Question 3 (i.e., VFI Items 43-47), with each volunteer's length of service (i.e., 0-2, 3-10, 11-20, and over 20 years) as reported in the demographic section of the survey.

Data Analysis

Spreadsheet software was utilized to analyze the quantitative data that were collected. Descriptive statistics were computed including frequencies, means, ranges, and standard deviations. Correlation coefficients were calculated to examine relationships between sets of data.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The study examined the attributes, motivations, and satisfaction levels among long-term volunteers in a civilian auxiliary of a military branch known as the CAP. The VFI, supplemented by a demographic questionnaire, was used to gather data. In addition to descriptive statistics about the sample, four research questions examined which volunteer motivations were strongest, whether motivations differed based upon age category, the current level of volunteer satisfaction, and the difference in satisfaction level based on the length of service of volunteers.

Demographic Characteristics

The sample of 102 survey respondents was comprised primarily of White ($n = 87$, 85.29%) males ($n = 76$, 74.51%) from the age category of 51-67 years ($n = 50$, 49.02). The age categories of 31-50 ($n = 20$, 19.61%) and over 68 years ($n = 19$, 18.63%) followed. Respondents were mainly employed full time or part time ($n = 71$, 69.61%). Nearly half of the individuals reported never having experienced military service or training in the past ($n = 49$, 48.04%), while more than a third ($n = 38$, 37.25%) had prior military service. Table 1 exhibits the frequencies of these personal demographic items.

The largest group of CAP volunteers had been volunteering for 3-10 years ($n = 45$, 44.12%). Those volunteering for other organizations ($n = 50$, 49.02%) and not volunteering outside CAP ($n = 48$, 47.06%) were nearly even. The CAP mission with which respondents most identified was emergency services ($n = 56$, 54.90%) followed by cadet programs ($n = 31$, 30.39%). Lastly, most respondents in this study ($n = 88$, 86.27%) indicated that they would likely be volunteering in the CAP a year after completing the

survey. Table 2 shows the frequency of these volunteering demographic items.

Table 1

Frequency Table for Personal Demographic Variables

_____

Variable	No.	%

_____

Gender		
Male	76	74.51
Female	22	21.57
Missing	4	3.92
Age		
18-21 years of age	6	5.88
22-30 years of age	3	2.94
31-50 years of age	20	19.61
51-67 years of age	50	49.02
Over 68 years of age	19	18.63
Missing	4	3.92
Race		
Hispanic or Latino/Latina	1	0.98
Other or Mixed	2	1.96
White/Caucasian	87	85.29
Prefer not to answer	7	6.86
Missing	5	4.90
Employment		
Employed full-time or part-time	71	69.61
Not employed	5	4.90
Retired	22	21.57
Missing	4	3.92
Prior military experience		
No. I have never served in the military or experienced military training.	49	48.04
No. However, I have prior military exposure through basic training and a military academy.	10	9.80
Yes. I served in the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard in an active duty, reserve, or National Guard capacity.	38	37.25
Missing	5	4.90

_____

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100% ($N = 102$).

Data Analysis

Research Question 1

     This first question inquired about which volunteer motivations were strongest

overall for members of CAP who completed the survey. The means and standard deviations for each motivation were calculated. The values motivation was strongest (M = 27.33, SD = 6.56) followed by understanding (M = 23.39, SD = 7.57). The weakest motivations reported were career (M = 11.70, SD = 7.43) and protective (M = 11.70, SD = 6.86). Table 3 displays the means and standard deviations for each volunteer motivation.

Table 2

Frequency Table for Volunteering Demographic Variables

Variable	No.	%
Volunteering length with the civil air patrol		
0-2 years	22	21.57
3-10 years	45	44.12
11-20 years	22	21.57
Over 20 years	9	8.82
Missing	4	3.92
Volunteering at other organizations		
No	48	47.06
Yes	50	49.02
Missing	4	3.92
Mission identification		
Aerospace education	8	7.84
Cadet programs	31	30.39
Emergency services	56	54.90
Missing	7	6.86
Volunteering likelihood 1 year from study		
Not volunteering at all	2	1.96
Volunteering at another organization	7	6.86
Volunteering at this organization	88	86.27
Missing	5	4.90

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100% (N = 102).

Research Question 2

The second research question asked how motivations differed based on the age categories of volunteers. The means and standard deviations for each motivation were

calculated within each age group. The youngest age category of 18-21 years scored highest for each motivation. The scores included values ($M = 28.50$, $SD = 5.65$), understanding ($M = 27.50$, $SD = 6.25$), career ($M = 26.33$, $SD = 4.80$), social ($M = 23.33$, $SD = 6.19$), enhancement ($M = 22.63$, $SD = 5.96$), and protective ($M = 17.50$, $SD = 3.83$).

Table 3

Summary Statistics Table for Volunteer Motivations

Variable	No.	Mean	SD
Career	102	11.70	7.43
Social	101	15.93	7.19
Values	100	27.33	6.56
Understanding	101	23.39	7.57
Enhancement	101	18.77	8.20
Protective	101	11.70	6.86

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100% ($N = 102$).

The highest volunteer motivations were computed for the other age groups. The age category of 22-30 years was motivated by understanding ($M = 21.00$, $SD = 14.73$) followed by the motivation of values. The age groups of 31-50 years ($M = 26.16$, $SD = 7.50$), 51-67 years ($M = 27.98$, $SD = 5.52$), and over 68 years ($M = 27.32$, $SD = 7.10$) scored highest in the motivation of values followed by the motivation of understanding. Table 4 offers a presentation of the full summary statistics, including the means and standard deviations, of each volunteer motivation by the age categories.

Research Question 3

The third research question sought to understand the current level of volunteer satisfaction among CAP members. The overall mean was calculated for volunteer satisfaction, and the outcome was 27.88 ($SD = 6.76$). Results showed that the vast

majority of CAP members were satisfied with their volunteer service at the time of the

survey's completion. Table 5 shows the overall volunteer satisfaction levels of all

respondents.

Table 4

Summary Statistics Table for Volunteer Motivations by Age

Variable	No.	Mean	SD
Career			
18-21 years of age	6	26.33	4.80
22-30 years of age	3	15.00	8.89
31-50 years of age	20	14.15	8.11
51-67 years of age	50	10.14	5.28
Over 68 years of age	19	6.47	2.97
Social			
18-21 years of age	6	23.33	6.19
22-30 years of age	3	13.67	11.59
31-50 years of age	20	15.70	8.03
51-67 years of age	50	14.88	6.43
Over 68 years of age	19	16.16	6.14
Values			
18-21 years of age	6	28.50	5.65
22-30 years of age	3	19.67	14.50
31-50 years of age	19	26.16	7.50
51-67 years of age	50	27.98	5.52
Over 68 years of age	19	27.32	7.10
Understanding			
18-21 years of age	6	27.50	6.25
22-30 years of age	3	21.00	14.73
31-50 years of age	19	21.89	8.69
51-67 years of age	50	23.34	6.71
Over 68 years of age	19	22.63	7.90
Enhancement			
18-21 years of age	6	22.33	5.96
22-30 years of age	3	17.33	12.01
31-50 years of age	20	18.65	9.98
51-67 years of age	49	18.16	7.89
Over 68 years of age	19	18.21	6.63
Protective			
18-21 years of age	6	17.50	3.83
22-30 years of age	3	14.67	14.22
31-50 years of age	20	12.95	7.38
51-67 years of age	50	10.30	5.60
Over 68 years of age	18	9.50	5.51

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100% ($N = 102$).

Research Question 4

This fourth research question examined the presence of a correlation between the satisfaction level of a volunteer and the volunteer's length of service. The means and standard deviations were determined for each category of volunteer length of service. Volunteers with over 20 years of experience had the highest satisfaction level ($M = 32.00$, $SD = 2.88$), and those with 0-2 years of experience had the lowest satisfaction level ($M = 24.41$, $SD = 7.28$). Table 5, additionally, exhibits the mean volunteer satisfaction levels for each category of years of volunteer service.

Table 5

Summary Statistics Table for Volunteer Satisfaction by Volunteering Length

Variable	No.	Mean	SD
0-2 years	22	24.41	7.28
3-10 years	45	27.51	6.99
11-20 years	21	30.71	4.68
Over 20 years	8	32.00	2.88

To summarize, the results of this study included 102 respondents who completed the VFI and were primarily White, male, over 51 years old, and employed full or part time. The largest number of those completing the survey had not experienced any military service or training, had been volunteering for the CAP for 3-10 years, identified with the CAP mission of emergency services, were half as likely to volunteer for other organizations as those who did not, and the vast majority felt they would still be volunteering for CAP a year later. This study had four research questions. The first question inquired which volunteer motivations were strongest with respondents selecting the *values* motivation. The second research question examined how motivations differed

based upon age. Ages 18-21 placed values, understanding, and career motivations nearly

equally at the top, while ages 22-30 favored understanding. Ages 31-50, 51-67, and those

over 68 years chose the values motivation. The third question asked the current level of

satisfaction among CAP members with about a third responding that they are satisfied

with their volunteer service. The final research question sought the correlation between

satisfaction level of a volunteer and length of service and found those with over 20 years

of service most reported being satisfied. A discussion of these results is presented in

Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The study investigated the motivations of the adults who are long-term adult volunteers of the CAP. The organization is a civilian auxiliary of a military organization. The literature review indicated that no research had been done on a similar type of volunteer institution. However, literature had been conducted on social service agencies which suggested that attention to volunteer motivations correlated strongly with an improved retention of members. CAP has a retention rate of roughly a third after a member's first year (CAP, 2014). This study used the VFI to examine the motivations of members as a whole and within age groups, overall satisfaction level of members, and the correlation between satisfaction level and volunteer length of service. Organizations dedicate a great deal of resources to train new members. A better understanding of the elements of motivation and satisfaction may aid them in retention efforts.

An examination of volunteer motivations research and the survey findings yielded valuable insight about the four research questions of this study: the strongest volunteer motivations, how motivations differed based on age category, the level of satisfaction among volunteers, and the link between member satisfaction level and volunteer length of service. This concluding chapter serves to summarize the results of the survey, interpret the findings relative to current literature, place into context what the study contributes to existing literature, describe the implications of the study to volunteer organizations, list limitations of this study, and make recommendations for future research directions.

Summary of Findings

Survey respondent demographics included 102 individuals who were White (85.29%), male (74.51%), and primarily from the two age groups of 51-67 years old (49.02%) or 68 years or older (18.63%). Respondents reported being employed 69.61% in the full-time and part-time categories, 44.12% had been in service to CAP in the 3-10 years category, and 49.02% volunteered with other organizations outside of CAP. While 54.90% of respondents identified with the CAP service mission of emergency services, another 30.39% identified with the mission of cadet programs. Most individuals (48.04%) reported having no military service or training; however, 37.25% had experienced prior military service. Finally, 86.27% of respondents declared they would likely be volunteering for CAP after 1 year.

The VFI was utilized to examine the 102 adult respondents from a CAP wing in the northeastern United States. The VFI yielded data about four research questions. Research Question 1 inquired which volunteer motivations were strongest for members of CAP. Respondents reported the motivation of values was strongest overall, followed in descending order by understanding, enhancement, and social with career and protective tied for last. Research Question 2 explored differences in motivation based upon age category. The age group 18-21 years was the highest scoring age group for all six motivations. However, the motivation of values was highest within the 18-21 year old age group. For the other age categories, ages 22-30 scored highest for understanding and ages 31-50, 51-67, and over 68 in values. Research Question 3 inquired about the level of volunteer satisfaction and found less than a third to be satisfied overall with their CAP service. Finally, Research Question 4 explored the differences in satisfaction level based

on volunteer length of service. Respondents with over 20 years of service reported the highest satisfaction level, followed in descending order by those with service of 11-20 years, 3-10 years, and 0-2 years.

Interpretation of Findings

Findings showed that the demographics of respondents were primarily White and over 51 years of age. These attributes were not surprising, as the state in which the survey was conducted was noted from 2020 U.S. Census data to be 88.3% White and 81.4% over the age of 18 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). Individuals were as likely to possess some form of military-style experience as those who did not and identified with the CAP core missions of emergency services at nearly the same rate as cadet programs. These, too, were anticipated results. The CAP is an organization that encourages and respect members coming to it from civilian or military backgrounds who want to help their communities. Additionally, CAP intertwines the missions of emergency services and cadet programs through shared activities and trainings whether a member is a cadet or at the adult level (Phelka, 2021).

The first research question asked which motivation was strongest overall for volunteers. Not surprisingly, the volunteer motivation reported by the most members was that of values. The CAP is a very idealistic organization that expects members to uphold the core values of excellence, respect, volunteer service, and integrity (CAP, 2019). As a uniformed volunteer auxiliary of the USAF, it is not unexpected the members drawn to it would hold values as a main motivation of interest. The second research question then asked if there were differences in volunteer motivation based upon age and literature indicated it would be probable. Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggested that

individuals move through five levels of needs and seek ways to satisfy these needs (Zhang, 2020). The literature further suggested that young adults may have more levels to fulfill and might seek new experiences such as volunteering to help with their growth and development (Mohale et al., 2021). Thus, younger individuals may identify with the greatest range of motivations to be satisfied through their volunteer activities. This could help explain why younger CAP members identified all six of the motivations measured by the survey as equally interesting. Maslow's hierarchy of needs also implied that, as one aged, one would likely be at the higher level of self-actualization, which might help to explain why older respondents identified values and understanding as their most important motivations (Zhang, 2020).

The third research question inquired about the level of volunteer satisfaction. Overall, members reported being satisfied with their volunteer service. Research Question 4 then examined the correlation between satisfaction and volunteer length of service. CAP volunteers with fewer years of service reported less satisfaction than those who had served longer. The functionalist perspective reminds one that individuals pursue activities with a purpose in mind (Faletehan et al., 2021). People share time with organizations that help them satisfy their needs through development and experiences (Mohale et al., 2021). A person tends to continue volunteering so long as what motivates the person is encouraged and supported (Kewes & Munsch, 2019). Organizational citizenship theory further suggested the more completely and reliably motives are met through the volunteer experience, the longer an individual will stay with an organization (Manenzhe & Ngirande, 2021). Based on the research previously mentioned, one might have concluded that CAP members with more years of service would report greater

satisfaction levels.

Context of Findings

This study added to previous literature by utilizing the unique population of a civilian auxiliary of a military branch, the CAP, to examine volunteer behavior. However, the study is firmly grounded in the research that formed the foundation of functionalism as it informs the consideration of volunteer motivations. These form the context in which this study resides. Motivational theories have offered varied insights into why individuals volunteer as they do. Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggested that each person pursues activities, such as volunteering, to help satisfy one's development in the areas of physiological, safety, social-belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization (Crandall et al., 2020; Zhang, 2020). Social exchange theory tendered that an individual views an action like volunteering from a cost-benefit viewpoint, where a person expects that the rewards (e.g., social capital, training or work skills, new experiences, friendships, leadership development opportunities, social recognition/affiliation, experiential learning, etc.) should outweigh the costs expended for their service (Antoni, 2009; Sacchetti & Tortia, 2021; Wooten, 2017). The theory of planned behavior offered that the behavior one chooses, such as volunteering, is influenced by the attitude one has about pursuing that behavior (Ndofirepi, 2023; Roos & Hahn, 2019). Through the theory of organizational citizenship behavior, it was proposed that individuals commit greater efforts when they feel a connection to the culture of the organization in which they serve (Aderibigbe et al., 2020; Manenzhe & Ngironde, 2021; Wingate et al., 2019). Finally, the functionalist perspective presented the view that satisfying a purpose, that is a motivation, drives the activities, including volunteering, that people elect to do to fulfill their needs (Faletehan

et al., 2021; Kewes & Munsch, 2019; Sachetti & Tortia, 2020; Weenink & Bridgman, 2017). The functionalist perspective was applied specifically to volunteering, and Clary et al. (1998) proposed the VFI as a way to measure six volunteer motivations: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Heimann & Medvecky, 2022; Weenink & Bridgman, 2017). The research presented here applied the VFI to the CAP, a civilian auxiliary of a military branch, which was a population that had not yet been examined utilizing this instrument.

Implications of Findings

The findings of this study support prior literature pertaining to functionalism as applied to volunteer motivations and satisfaction. Functionalism suggested that individuals pursue activities, such as volunteering, as a means to satisfying needs and motivations (Dorn et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Sanders & Balcanoff, 2021). This study utilized the VFI as a survey tool to measure volunteer motivations from six areas: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Dorn et al., 2021; Heimann & Medvecky, 2022; Teye & Peaslee, 2020; Weenink & Bridgman, 2017).

This study contributed to previous literature as it showed the value of the VFI as a survey assessment tool and revealed useful information about the motives volunteers indicated were most important for them. The VFI provided insight about the motivations of the unique population of the CAP. As a civilian auxiliary of a military branch, CAP is a unique organization that had not yet been studied using the VFI. Most importantly, the survey showed that CAP members who expressed satisfaction with their volunteer experiences served the organization longer. The implication is that the VFI could be used

by many organizations to understand their populations of volunteers as well.

The understanding of volunteer motivations can contribute to improved recruiting and retention efforts (Dorn et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Sanders & Balcanoff, 2021; Teye & Peaslee, 2020). Faletehan et al. (2021) suggested volunteers should be regarded as consumers within an organization. Research has indicated that learning about individual factors, such as motivations, helps managers identify the needs a person is trying to satisfy through volunteering. This allows leaders in the organization to personalize and make more meaningful the volunteer opportunities undertaken by new or continuing members (Dorn et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Sanders & Balcanoff, 2021). In order to help volunteers find long-term satisfaction, managers must create organizational climates that value volunteers such that they feel called to commit to its activities (Faletehan et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Phelka, 2021; Rodriguez, 2021).

Elements such as orientation, mentoring, training, and professional development help managers and volunteers understand one another and make plans that will support personal growth (Teye & Peaslee, 2020). Volunteers need continuous encouragement through advising, recognition, incentive programs, leadership opportunities, informal and fun activities, and constant communication (Faletehan et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Sanders & Balcanoff, 2021; Teye & Peaslee, 2020). Those organizations able to create personalized elements in support of volunteer motivations should make gains on their retention goals due to having more satisfied members (Dorn et al., 2021).

As an organization over 80 years old, CAP has endeavored to increase the quality and standardization of the professional development it offers volunteers (Kornegay, 2020; Smith, 2020; Winter, 2022). CAP offers all of the aforementioned recruiting and

retention activities, though to varying degrees based on unit size and resource availability. Professional development guidelines have been developed at the national level and are applied by units to the best of their abilities (Bolinger, 2020; Kornegay, 2020; Moore, 2020; Smith, 2020; Winter, 2022). Despite its best efforts, in 2014, CAP was losing roughly 20% to 30% of its adult members by the end of their first year (CAP, 2014). Utilizing the VFI as a means to understanding why members volunteer personalizes the recruiting and retention process. The effect may be to have more individuals who have increased satisfaction, engage in activities with greater enthusiasm, and volunteer over the long term (Dorn et al., 2021; Faletehan et al., 2021; Neely et al., 2022; Sanders & Balcanoff, 2021). The functionalist view of volunteerism should serve to remind any organizations that providing personalized support, that is mindful of individual motivations, is as important as the services the volunteers are giving back.

Limitations of the Study

Several aspects of this study might limit the application of its research results. One category of limitations relates to the size and demographic characteristics of the study sample surveyed. While the study sought to examine an organization not yet evaluated by literature, the type of volunteer organization considered was unique and could limit the applicability of results obtained. The VFI was used to evaluate motivations, but there are drawbacks to the use of any survey instrument.

Several limitations resulted from an uneven representation of demographic characteristics. The research sample included a limited number of respondents across all age categories. Nearly three of four survey participants were ages 50 years or older. The statistics, therefore, are difficult to apply to younger members of CAP or those of another

organization (Faletehan et al., 2021). The sample was also comprised predominantly of White and male survey takers. These attributes may be representative of the CAP unit from which the sample was obtained or even the small northeastern state in which they reside. However, deriving from a small sample, these statistics could better represent the voices of gender, racial, and age groups among CAP's 37,941 adult volunteers nationwide (Moore, 2020). Variations in age, race, and gender impact individual motivations and satisfaction levels of those who are long-term volunteers and a larger survey sample could provide more generalizable information (Roos & Hahn, 2019; Sacchetti & Tortia, 2021).

As CAP members belong to the civilian auxiliary of a military branch, volunteer data from this study was drawn from a unique population. While some groups share a few of the organizational attributes of CAP, none appear to share them all. For example, CAP volunteers operate as an auxiliary of the Air Force and have a military organizational structure for its members (CAP, 2013). The Coast Guard Auxiliary is the only other organization that employs long-term volunteers in a national military auxiliary environment. CAP volunteers are also called to provide nationwide services in support of its three core missions of emergency services, aerospace education, and cadet programs (CAP, 2013). There are some long-term volunteer programs that provide emergency services, but are likely associated with the Coast Guard Auxiliary, firefighting, ambulance, police, or Red Cross groups. Outside of local police department junior cadet groups, CAP is the only organization that has a national cadet leadership program inclusive of an aerospace education program. While other organizations share some services in common with CAP, none provide the range of missions CAP members are

asked to perform. One might apply this study's results broadly to other types of volunteers. However, the generalizability of this research data to other types of organizations might be more limited in application.

Finally, the utilization of a survey, such as the VFI, has its own limitations. The VFI is limited in the information it collected because of its design. Respondents answered only closed-ended questions limited to a 7-point Likert-type scale. The survey captured respondent answers only at one moment in time due to its cross-sectional nature. While the VFI has demonstrated its reliability and validity and has been used in many studies, it only allowed respondents to report on the seven categories of motivation it measured. There may be other motivations (e.g., fulfilling moral obligation or gaining emotional intelligence) that might motivate a person (Aderibigbe et al., 2020; Roos & Hahn, 2019). The VFI also examined motivations and satisfaction levels via closed-ended questions. Without using open-ended questions, respondents did not have the opportunity to expand upon their answers. More detailed answers could provide more direction for organizations relative to the understanding, support, and retention of their volunteers (Aderibigbe et al., 2020; Kewes & Munsch, 2019).

Future Research Directions

Researchers may choose to expand upon this research in several ways. This study included adult volunteers from a military auxiliary of over 66,000 adult and cadet members across the United States (Bolinger, 2020). This study surveyed adults 18 and over about their motivations and satisfactions levels; yet, researchers have indicated that younger individuals possess different motivations that need satisfaction (Mohale et al., 2021; Zhang, 2020). One research direction could inquire as to the motivations and

satisfaction levels of CAP members under the age of 18, known as cadets. The original research sample examined members from a small state in the northeastern part of the United States. The results found respondents were mostly White, male, and over 50 years old. Future research could explore a sample of volunteers from a larger or less homogeneous state, two small units within the same state, or compare results between urban and rural units. One could take advantage of CAP's nationwide membership by conducting survey research that explores diversity in characteristics such as gender, age, and racial groups (Rodriguez, 2021). One might find there are differences in volunteer motivations and satisfaction levels when other socioeconomic and personal demographic characteristics are further examined (Zhang, 2020). A researcher could also add other demographic categories such as income level, career field, or education level of volunteers.

While this study examined the long-term volunteer motivations of the Air Force Auxiliary, known as CAP, one might apply the VFI to other types of organizations. Pakozdi and Bardos (2022) noted that organizations with a military model have members with unique needs. A survey could be conducted with the Coast Guard Auxiliary to examine another organization that shares a military-style structure similar to that of CAP's. Research shows only a very minimal adaptation of the VFI to the Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts organizations (Rahmawati et al., 2015; Sardinha & Cunha, 2012). In addition to CAP, these are organizations that also have adults who volunteer to train youth in leadership, physical fitness, and character development programming similar to CAP's year-round cadet programs. One could also examine volunteers who provide emergency services in other ways such as those with ambulance, fire department, or Red Cross

groups. Khalemsky et al. (2020) was a unique study that utilized the VFI with its emergency medical volunteers. However, other agencies have examined their volunteers utilizing qualitative methods (e.g., Barry et al., 2019; Haski-Leventhal & McLeigh, 2009; Sundram et al., 2018; Thompson & Bono, 1993). Perhaps the VFI may provide an additional perspective on volunteers for these organizations. One could also compare and contrast CAP with any of these other groups. Additionally, volunteers within the same organization could be given the VFI and compare and contrast the results with those of another instrument. Following the administration of the VFI or in lieu of the instrument, a researcher could pursue a qualitative analysis of volunteers through interviews or open-ended questions. Such methods might offer insight about how individuals define satisfaction as volunteers, why people might continue or discontinue service, or to learn more about other aspects of volunteer motivations, such as religious belief, workplace incentive to volunteer, or patriotism (Faletehan et al., 2021).

References

Achenbaum, W. A. (2007). A history of civic engagement of older people. *Generations, 30*(4), 18-23.

Aderibigbe, J. K., Gcaza, N., & Fashola, T. (2020). Correlates of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behaviour among Nigerian graduate employees. *Gender & Behaviour, 18*(2), 15346-15355.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Springer.

Allen, K. (2006). From motivation to action through volunteer-friendly organizations. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 24*(1), 41-44.

Allison, L. D., Okun, M. A., & Dutridge, K. S. (2002). Assessing volunteer motives: A comparison of an open-ended probe and Likert rating scales. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 12*, 243-255.

Antoni, G. D. (2009). Intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivations to volunteer and social capital foundation. *Kyklos, 62*(3), 359-370.

Ayobami, O. K., Ismail, H. N., & Oluyinka, S. (2012). A reviews on voluntourism theories and paradigm with special emphasis on rural revitalization. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 3*(11), 420-444.

Bang, H., & Ross, S. D. (2009). Volunteer motivation and satisfaction. *Journal of Venue and Event Management, 1*(1), 61-77.

Barry, T., Guerin, S., & Bury, G. (2019). Motivations, challenges and realities of volunteer community cardiac arrest response: A qualitative study of lay

community first responders. *BMJ Open, 9*(8), e029015-3029016.

Bennett, C., Khangura, S., Brehaut, J. C., Graham, I. D., Moher, D., Potter, B. K., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2011). Reporting guidelines for survey research: An analysis of published guidance and reporting practices. *PLoS Medicine, 8*(8), 1-11.

Bolinger, R. S. (2020, Spring). Capitol idea. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, *22*, 25-29.

Boraas, S. (2003). Volunteering in the United States. *Monthly Labor Review, 126*(8), 3-11.

Bremer, S., & Graeff, P. (2006). Volunteer management in German national parks—from random action toward a volunteer program. *Human Ecology, 35*, 489-496.

Burns, D. J., Toncar, M., Reid, J., Anderson, C., Wells, C., Fawcett, J., & Gruben, K. (2005). Volunteering: A comparison of the motivations of collegiate students attending different types of institutions. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, 23*(4), 31-40.

Burns, K., Duffett, M., Kho, M., Meade, M., Adhikari, N., Sinuff, T., & Cook, D. (2008). A guide for the design and conduct of self-administered surveys of clinicians. *Canadian Medical Association Journal, 179*(3), 245-252.

Chew, C., & Eysenbach, G. (2010). Pandemics in the age of Twitter: Content analysis of tweets during the 2009 H1N1 outbreak. *PLoS ONE, 5*(11), 1-13.

Civil Air Patrol. (2013). *Level 1 orientation: Welcoming members to our ranks.* https://www.gocivilairpatrol.com/members/ed-training/level-1-onboarding

Civil Air Patrol. (2014). *Recruiting and retention: CAP officer basic course.* http://www.capmembers.com/media/cms/Recruiting_and_Retention_091230_371D4C0CCBF7A.pdf

Civil Air Patrol. (2019). *CAPP 80-3 character and leadership: Applying core values for senior members.* https://www.gocivilairpatrol.com/media/cms/ CAPP080_003__ 7_October_2019_Core_Va_0D2A2FF3A1D38.pdf

Clary, E. G., & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*(5), 156-159.

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1516-1530.

Collett, J. L. (2010). Integrating theory, enhancing understanding: The potential contributions of recent experimental research in social exchange for studying intimate relationships. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 2*(4), 280-298.

Cornelis, I., Van Hiel, A., & De Cremer, D. (2013). Volunteer work in youth organizations: Predicting distinct aspects of volunteering behavior from self- and other-oriented motives. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 43*, 456-466.

Corporation for National and Community Service. (2007). *The health benefits of volunteering: A review of recent research.* https://americorps.gov/evidence-exchange/The-Health-Benefits-of-Volunteering_A-A-Review-of-Recent-Research

Corporation for National and Community Service. (2011). *Volunteering in America: 2011 research highlights.* http://www.volunteeringinamerica.gov/assets/resources/ FactSheetFinal.pdf

Crandall, A., Powell, E. A., Bradford, G. C., Magnusson, B. M., Hanson, C. L., Barnes,

M. D., Novilla, M. L. B., & Bean, R. A. (2020). Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a

    framework for understanding adolescent depressive symptoms over time. *Journal*

    of Child and Family Studies, 29(2), 273-281.

Davila, M. C., & Finkelstein, M. A. (2010). Predicting organizational citizenship

    behavior from the functional analysis and role identity perspectives: Further

    evidence in Spanish employees. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology, 13*(1), 277-

    283.

Dorn, S., Newberry, M. G., Bauske, E. M., & Pennisi, S. V. (2021). If you build it, will

    they come? Examining motivations of extension master gardener volunteers.

    Society & Natural Resources, 34(9), 1250-1267. https://doi.org/10.1080/089.

    41920.2021.1949511

Draugalis, J. R., Coons, S. J., & Plaza, C. M. (2010). Best practices for survey research

    reports: A synopsis for authors and reviewers. *American Journal of*

    Pharmaceutical Education, 72(1), 1-6.

Eisner, D. (2008). National service for the 21st century: Mobilizing a new generation of

    volunteers. *Ripon Forum, 42*(2), 11-13.

Esmond, J., & Dunlop, P. (2004). *Developing the Volunteer Motivation Inventory to*

    assess the underlying motivational drives of volunteers in Western Australia.

    Lottery-west & CLAN WA.

Faletehan, A. F., van Burg, E., Thompson, N. A., & Wempe, J. (2021). Called to

    volunteer and stay longer: The significance of work calling for volunteering

    motivation and retention. *Voluntary Sector Review, 12*(2), 235-255.

Finkelstein, M. A. (2007). Correlates of satisfaction in older volunteers: A motivational

perspectives. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 24*(5), 6-12.

Finkelstein, M. A. (2008a). Predictors of volunteer time: The changing contributions of motive fulfillment and role identity. *Social Behavior and Personality, 36*, 1353-1363.s

Finkelstein, M. A. (2008b). Volunteer satisfaction and volunteer action: A functional approach. *Social Behavior and Personality, 36*, 9-17.

Finkelstein, M. A., & Brannick, M. T. (2007). Applying theories of institutional helping to informal volunteering: Motives, role identity, and prosocial personality. *Social Behavior and Personality, 35*(1), 101-114.

Finkelstein, M. A., Penner, L. A., & Brannick, M. T. (2005). Motive, role identity, and prosocial personality as predictors of volunteer activity. *Social Behavior and Personality, 33*, 403-418.

Freis, M. (2006). Motivating volunteers. *Associations Now, 2*(12), 15-16.

Green, C. D. (2009). Darwinian theory, functionalism, and the first American psychological revolution. *American Psychologist, 64*(2), 75-83.

Greenslade, J. H., & White, K. M. (2005). The prediction of above-average participation in volunteerism: A test of the theory of planned behavior and the Volunteer Functions Inventory in older Australian adults. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 145*(2), 155-172.

Harding, T. S., Mayhew, M. J., Finelli, C. J., & Carpenter, D. D. (2007). The theory of planned behavior as a model of academic dishonesty in engineering and humanities undergraduates. *Ethics & Behavior 17*(3), 255–279.

Harrison, D. A. (1995). Volunteer motivation and attendance decisions: Competitive

theory testing in multiple samples from a homeless shelter. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 371-385.

Haski-Leventhal, D., & McLeigh, J. D. (2009). Firefighters volunteering beyond their duty: An essential asset in rural communities. *Journal of Rural and Community Development, 4*(2), 80-92.

Heimann, A. H., & Medvecky, F. (2022). Attitudes and motivations of New Zealand conservation volunteers. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology, 46*(1), 1-13.

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology, 63*, 597-606.

Houle, B. J., Sagarin, B. J., & Kaplan, M. F. (2005). A functional approach to volunteerism: Do volunteer motives predict task preference? *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 27*, 337-344.

Hudson, R. B. (2007). Aging in a public space: The roles and functions of civic engagement. *Generations, 30*(4), 51-58.

Jiranek, P., Kals, E., Humm, J. S., Strubel, I. T., & Wehner, T. (2013). Volunteering as a means to an equal end? The impact of a social justice function on intention to volunteer. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 153*(5), 520-541.

Kaskie, B., Imhof, S., Cavanaugh, J., & Culp, K. (2008). Civic engagement as a retirement role for aging Americans. *The Gerontologist, 48*, 368-377.

Kenny, S., McNevin, A., & Hogan, L. (2008). Voluntary activity and local government: Managing volunteers or facilitating active citizenship? *Social Alternatives, 27*(2), 45-49.

Kewes, A., & Munsch, C. (2019). Should I stay or should I go? Engaging and

disengaging Experiences in welfare-sector volunteering. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations, 30*(5), 1090-1103.

Khalemsky, M. Schwartz, D. G., Herbst, R., & Jaffe, E. (2020). Motivation of emergency medical services volunteers: A study of organized good Samaritans. *Israel Journal of Health Policy Research, 9*. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13584-020-00370-9

Kim, M., Trail, G. T., Lim, J., & Kim, Y. K. (2009). The role of psychological contract in intention to continue volunteering. *Journal of Sport Management, 23*, 549-573.

Kornegay, J. S. (2020, Spring). Civil Air Patrol adds a degree of flexibility to the new education and training initiative. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, *22*, 30-32.

Kretschmer, R. E., Wang, Y., & Hartman, M. C. (2010). Did the preservice teacher-generated studies constitute actual instances of teacher-researcher studies, and were they consistent with notions of Dewey. *American Annals of the Deaf, 155*(2), 144-149.

Lamm, A., Nistler, D., & Stedman, N. (2012). Identifying the factor influencing professional volunteer leadership in the National Association of Extension 4-H Agents. *Journal of Extension, 50*(2), 1-13.

Lee, U. H., Kim, H. K., & Kim, Y. H. (2013). Determinants of organizational citizenship behavior and its outcomes. *Global Business and Management Research: An International Journal, 5*(1), 54-65.

Levin, K. A. (2006). Study design III: Cross-sectional studies. *Evidence-Based Dentistry, 7*, 24-25.

Liao-Troth, M. A., & Dunn, C. P. (1999). Social constructs and human service:

Managerial sensemaking of volunteer motivation. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 10*(4), 345-361.

Manenzhe, P. M., & Ngirande, H. (2021). The influence of compensation, training and development on organizational citizenship behaviour. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 47*, a1845. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v47i0.1845

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*, 370-396.

Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality.* Harper.

Maslow, A. H. (2000). *The Maslow business reader.* D. C. Stephens (Ed.). Wiley.

Mathiyazhagen, T., & Nandan, D. (2010). Survey research method. *Media Mimansa, 4*(1), 34-45.

McEwin, M., & Jacobsen-D'Arcy, L. (1992). *Developing a scale to understand and assess the underlying motivational drives of volunteers in Western Australia.* Lottery-west & CLAN WA.

Mohale, A. B., Litshani, N. F., Mashau, T. S., & Moyo, H. (2021). A critical review on academic performance improvement plans of underperforming rural public high schools in Mopani West District, Limpopo Province. *Gender & Behaviour, 19*(1), 17344-17364.

Moore, M. (2020, Fall). Challenging times create unique opportunities. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer, 22*, 10-11.

Morrow-Howell, N. (2007). A longer worklife: The new road to volunteering. *Generations, 31*, 63-67.

Morrow-Howell, N., Hong, S., & Tang, F. (2009). Who benefits from volunteering?

Variations in perceived benefits. *The Gerontologist, 49*, 91-102.

Ndofirepi, T. M. (2023). Predicting the sustainability-oriented entrepreneurship intentions of business school students: The role of individualistic values. *Social Sciences, 12*(1), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12010013

Neely, A. R., Lengnick-Hall, M. L., & Evans, M. D. (2022). A process model of volunteer motivation. *Human Resource Management Review, 32*(4). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2021.100879

Pakozdi, M., & Bardos, G. (2022). A new military hierarchy of needs model. *Social Sciences, 11*(5), 217-218. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci11050217

People in Aid. (2007). *Motivating staff and volunteers working in NGOs in the South*. https://www.fundsforngos.org/guides/motivating-staff-volunteers-working-ngos-south/

Perone, J., Winters, P., Read, M., & Sankah, I. (2005). *Assessing hierarchy of needs in levels of service*. National Center for Transit Research.

Phelka, E. D. (2021, Fall). Tomorrow's flight plan. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, 22, 4-5.

Piliavin, J. A., & Siegl, E. (2007). Health benefits of volunteering in the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 48*(4), 450-464.

Puffer, S. M., & Meindl, J. R. (1992). The congruence of motives and incentives in a voluntary organization. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 425-433.

Rahmawati, Y., Abidden, N. Z., & Ihsan, Ro'is. (2015). Relationship between motivation and organizational commitment among scout volunteers in East Kalimantan. *Journal of Social Science Studies, 2*(1), 51-63.

Randle, M. J., & Dolnicar, S. (2009). Does cultural background affect volunteering

behavior? *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 21*(2), 225-247.

Rindfleisch, A., Malter, A. J., Ganesan, S., & Moorman, C. (2008). Cross-sectional versus longitudinal survey research: Concepts, findings, and guidelines. *Journal of Marketing Research, 45*(3), 261-279.

Rodriguez, J. (2021, Fall). Social media and social justice. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, *22*, 10-11.

Roos, D., & Hahn, R. (2019). Understanding collaborative consumption: An extension of the theory of planned behavior with value-based personal norms. *Journal of Business Ethics, 158*(3), 679-697.

Ryan, V. D., Agnitsch, K. A., Zhao, L., & Mullick, R. (2005). Making sense of voluntary participation: A theoretical synthesis. *Rural Sociology, 70*(3), 287-313.

Sacchetti, S., & Tortia, E. C. (2021). Governing cooperatives in the context of individuals motives. *International Journal of Social Economics, 48*(2), 181-203.

Sanders, M., & Balcanoff, S. (2021). Motivations for volunteering in an adapted skiing program: Implications for volunteer program development. *Journal of Disability and Rehabilitation, 44*(23), 7087-7095. https://doi.org/10.1080/09638288.2021. 1981466

Sardinha, B. B., & Cunha, O. O. (2012). *Portuguese Catholic Scout Association: Motivations of adult volunteers*. International Society for Third-Sector Research. https://cdn.ymaws.com/www.istr.org/resource/resmgr/wp2012/b_sardinha.pdf

Slaughter, L., & Home, R. (2004). Motivations of long-term volunteers: Human services vs events. *UNLV Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Science (HTL Science), 2*, 1-12.

Smith, M. E. (2020, Spring). Enhancing the volunteer experience. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, *22*, 4-5.

Starnes, B. J. (2007). Trust, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the volunteer's psychological contract. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 24*(5), 26-30.

Sundram, F., Corattur, T., Dong, C., & Zhong, K. (2018). Motivations, expectations and experiences in being a mental health helplines volunteer. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 15*. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph. 15102123

Survey Monkey. (2013). *Security statement*. https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/ security/

Tanaka, K. (2013). Organizational citizenship behavior in contemporary workplaces in Japan. *Japan Labor Review, 10*(3), 5-18.

Teye, A. C., & Peaslee, L. (2020). Why mentor? A validation study of the volunteer functions inventory for use in youth mentoring. *Journal of Community Psychology, 48*(3), 1040-1058.

Theurer, K., & Wister, A. (2010). Altruistic behavior and social capital as predictors of well-being among older Canadians. *Ageing & Society, 30*, 157-181.

Thompson, A. M., & Bono, B. A. (1993). Work without wages: The motivation for volunteer firefighters. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 52*, 323-343.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2021). *New Hampshire: 2020 Census*. https://www.census.gov/ library/stories/state-by-state/new-hampshire-population-change-between-census-

decade.html

U.S. Department of Labor. (2009). *Volunteering in the United States, 2008*. http://www.
bls.gov/news.release/ volun.nr0.htm

Van Zomeren, M., & Spears, R. (2009). Metaphors of protest: A classification of
motivations for collective action. *Journal of Social Issues, 65*(4), 661-679.

Vondey, M. (2010). The relationships among servant leadership, organizational
citizenship behavior, person-organization fit, and organizational identification.
International Journal of Leadership Studies, 6(1), 3-27.

Wang, J., Wei, C., Harada, K., Minamoto, K., Ueda, K., Cui, H., & Ueda, A. (2011).
Applying the social cognitive perspective to volunteer intention in China: The
mediating roles of self-efficacy and motivation. *Health Promotion International,
26*(2), 177-187.

Weenink, E., & Bridgman, T. (2017). Taking subjectivity and reflexivity seriously:
implications of social constructionism for researching volunteer motivation.
Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 28(1),
90-109.

Wells, R., Ward, A. J., Feinberg, M., & Alexander, J. A. (2008). What motivates people
to participate more in community-based coalitions? *American Journal of
Community Psychology, 42*, 94-104.

Wingate, T. G., Lee, C. S., & Bourdage, J. S. (2019). Who helps and why?
Contextualizing organizational citizenship behavior. *Canadian Journal of
Behavioural Science, 51*(3), 147-158.

Winter, J. (2022, Spring). Moonshot. *Civil Air Patrol Volunteer*, *22*, 12-13.

Wooten, J. (2017). Volunteer leadership training and experiences: A boost to confidence and self-efficacy. *Third Sector Review, 23*(1), 101-121.

Wright, K. B. (2005). Researching internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10*(3), 00. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2005.tb00259.x

Yoshioka, C. F., Brown, W. A., & Ashcraft, R. F. (2007). A functional approach to senior volunteer and non-volunteer motivations. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration, 24*(5), 31-43.

Zhang, H. (2020). Influence mechanism of ideological and political education on behavior consciousness of college students. *Revista Argentina de Clinica Psicologica, 24*(2), 743-749.

Appendix

Demographic Questions

Demographic Questions

- Following is a series of demographic questions to help identify the areas with which
  survey participants identify.

- Each question is optional, anonymous, and confidential, but simply leave it blank if you
  prefer not to answer.

- *However,* if you feel comfortable answering each one then the survey results will better
  identify individual differences within the Wing.

A. Select your sex:
    1. Male
    2. Female

B. Select your age category as of today:
    1. 18-21 years old
    2. 22-30 years old
    3. 31-50 years old
    4. 51-67 years old
    5. 68 years old or older

C. How long have you been serving in the Civil Air Patrol?
    1. 0-2 years
    2. 3-10 years
    3. 11-20 years
    4. Over 20 years

D. Describe your racial/ethnic background:
    1. White/Caucasian
    2. Asian
    3. Black or African American
    4. Hispanic or Latino/Latina
    5. American Indian or Alaska Native
    6. Other or Mixed
    7. Prefer not to answer

E. Describe your current paid working status as of today:
    1. Employed full-time or part-time
    2. Not employed
    3. Retired

F. Do you volunteer for another organization?
1. Yes
2. No

G. With which of the three main Civil Air Patrol (CAP) missions do you most identify?
1. Emergency services
2. Aerospace education
3. Cadet programs

H. Do you have prior military service?
1. No. I have never served in the military or experienced military training.
2. No. However, I have prior military exposure through basic training, a military academy, college ROTC, high school Junior ROTC, or as a CAP cadet.
3. Yes. I served in the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard in an active duty, reserve, or national guard capacity.