AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF VOLUNTEERS' MOTIVATIONS, INTERPERSONAL EXCHANGE AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS: A CASE OF EVENT VOLUNTEERS

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Dedicated to my parents

for their unconditional love and endless support

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Abstract:

Events provide opportunities to fulfill volunteers' certain needs, and rely on volunteers for success and continuation. Developing a better understanding of volunteer motivations, interpersonal exchanges, and perceptions may allow event practitioners to develop better recruitment, management and retention strategies, which will benefit both the events and volunteers in the end. The purpose of this study was to establish an integrated model that describes the mechanism of what affects volunteer participation at events and how they develop their perceptions at events with regard to their intention to continue volunteer service.

The target population of this study was people who had volunteered at events during the past six months in the United States at the time of the survey. Using a self-selected convenience sampling method, a web-based survey was used to collect data from Amazon Mechanical Turk. A total of 736 responses were used in the data analysis. Multiple statistical methods, including descriptive methods, a Harman's single factor test, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modeling, were conducted for the data analysis. The results supported all paths proposed except for the paths from career to interpersonal exchanges as well as from satisfaction to behavioral intentions.

The results indicated that volunteers' motivations of altruism, self-development, and ego are positively related to their interpersonal exchanges with event organizers and coworkers, which in turn, positively impact volunteers' satisfaction. Volunteers' satisfaction positively predicts their intention to spread positive word-of-mouth and continue volunteering for future events through affective commitment. In addition, volunteers' intention to spread word-of-mouth also influences their intention to stay.

The present study contributes to an extension of the knowledge base in event volunteerism. It investigates the role of organization-member exchange and coworker exchange in the relationship between event volunteers' motivations and perceptions with regard to the event they work for. In addition, the study also provides a comprehensive review of the psychological process through which volunteers develop their intention to stay and volunteer for future events. The results of this study provide insights for event practitioners about how to foster the development of positive perceptions of volunteers, retain experienced volunteers, reduce the costs of volunteer management, and ensure the continuation of the event in the future, which may ultimately benefit the event, event organization, event attendees, and volunteers themselves.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The present study examines event volunteers' motivations, interpersonal exchanges, perceptions about volunteer experience, intentions towards the event, and the relationships among these. Five chapters consist of introduction, review of literature, methods, results, and conclusion. This chapter introduces the research background along with the purpose, objectives, and significance of the study.

Background

Volunteering is an important part of society. Every year, millions of people devote countless hours, effort, knowledge, skills, and other resources to benefit society and themselves through volunteering. Volunteering has added value to the governmental services around the world and contributes to the development of communities and societies (United Nations, 2002).

Although there is no universal consensus, people have a general understanding of volunteering (Lockstone-Binney, Holmes, Smith, & Baum, 2010; Meijs et al., 2003). The non-economic characteristics and freewill of the participants are two main themes when describing volunteering. Both researchers and the general public believe that providing services without receiving a direct monetary reward is a key factor of volunteering. As to the freewill of participants, many researchers view it as a required characteristic of volunteering, while the general public does not view it as required to define volunteering (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999).

Volunteering creates huge economic and social benefits for society. The economic benefit of volunteering is quite large and it is often estimated by using the dollar value of volunteer time. According to a study by the United Nations, the total value of volunteer time in the United States was estimated at about $184 billion in 2014 (Independent Sector, 2016), and the dollar value of volunteer hours has continuously increased over the past 15 years from $14.56 per hour in 1998 to $24.69 per hour in 2017 (Independent Sector, 2018). The social benefit of volunteering is difficult to measure due to its intangible nature (United Nations Development Programme, 2003). Although it is hard to estimate the exact value of volunteering's social benefit, people agree that volunteering contributes a lot to the development of society (Independent Sector, 2018; United Nations, 2002). Because of the benefits and value volunteers can bring, society generally encourages and fosters people to participate in voluntary activities. However, recruiting and retaining volunteers is always a big challenge for organizations. Therefore, it is important for practitioners to develop a good understanding of volunteers in order to manage them better.

Numerous factors may influence volunteers' involvement, and their participation and retention can never be effectively predicted by any single factor (Hodgkinson, 2003). Individuals' physical factors such as gender, age, employment, education, and income, as well as psychological factors including motivations, beliefs, and interest may all play a role in influencing an individual's decision about whether to volunteer and what voluntary activities to participate in. From the demographic perspective, white female individuals who are highly educated and have more income are more likely to provide volunteer service (United States Department of Labor, 2016). When exploring the psychological factors, motivation is shown to be an important determinant of volunteer involvement (United Nations Volunteers, 2002).

Volunteer motivation has been widely researched in the volunteer work setting (Clary et al, 1998). Research has tried to measure volunteer motivation and investigate the factors that influence volunteer motivation and its consequences. Many researchers suggested that volunteer motivation is

not uni-dimensional and have developed different motivation categorizations. For example, the six-factor Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) established by Clary et al. (1998) was a well-known multi-dimensional motivation model which set the foundation for many subsequent works about volunteers. Researchers believed that by understanding why people participate in voluntary activities, voluntary organizations can develop better strategies to recruit, manage and retain volunteers, which will benefit society, the voluntary organization, and volunteers themselves in the end.

In terms of the results of volunteer motivations, researchers have explored volunteers' satisfaction, job performance, commitment, recommendation, and retention. These are desired outcomes that are pursued by voluntary organizations in order to improve the efficacy and effectiveness of volunteer management. Researchers believed that by fulfilling those motivations, volunteers may feel satisfied, which leads to a better job performance and level of organizational commitment, and, as a result, they are more likely to stay and continue their volunteering involvement.

Volunteering at Events

The event industry is an important sector of volunteer involvement, and due to the scale, complexities, and heavy costs associated with holding events, more and more events attract and rely heavily upon the involvement of volunteers. Among different types of events, leisure and cultural events attract the biggest number of volunteers. In Australia, sport and recreation is the most prevalent voluntary sector, accounting for 157.5 million hours out of 743 million hours spent on volunteering in Australia in 2014 (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2015). In the United States, more than 2.3 million volunteered in the sport and cultural sector in 2015 (United States Department of Labor, 2016) and the economic value of volunteers in sport and recreation exceeded $50 billion (Chelladurai, 2006).

The relationship between events and volunteering can be understood in a reciprocal way (Chen, 2010). Events provide opportunities to meet volunteers' certain needs, and rely on volunteers for success and continuation. From community-based regular events to international mega events, event organizations depend heavily on volunteers to perform jobs from the pre-planning stage to the on-site operation stage. Many events rely on the involvement of volunteers to make them happen. The event industry would not be so prosperous today without the contributions of volunteers.

There are two common types of event volunteers: community-based event volunteers and special event volunteers. Community-based events usually include the normal programs or activities of the organizing body and have fixed and long-term schedules, are small scale, and involve people within a restricted area. As to special events, they usually feature a special atmosphere outside the normal programs or activities of the sponsoring or organizing body (Getz, 2005), and are created to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris, 2002). Special events have a one-time or short-term schedule, a larger scale, more people involved, more public attention, and more media exposure (Chen, 2010). Since the nature of community-based events and special events is different in terms of the purpose, duration, frequency, number of people involved, and other factors, it is believed that volunteers may have different psychological characteristics and demographic profiles in these two settings (Chen, 2010). Although some small-scale events have difficulties and challenges in recruiting volunteers, major and mega events do not have such problem (BOCOG, 2008; "Number of World Expo Volunteers to Exceed 2 Million", n.d.). Some major or mega events (e.g., the Olympic Games, the World Cup, and the World Expo) demand a huge number of volunteers, but the number of applicants they receive may be several times beyond what is needed, with some of those coming from other regions and countries. People even compete for the opportunity to work for these special events, and feel satisfied and honored from serving as a volunteer for these events (Chen, 2010).

Research suggests that event volunteers hold different motivations from general volunteers (Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Monga, 2006; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). Even community-based event volunteers may have different motivations from special event volunteers such as sport event volunteers or festival event volunteers because of the different nature of the events in those two contexts (Doherty, 2005). As a result, community-based events and special events may involve volunteers with different motivations. This study focuses on volunteers at special events who work for a short time period.

Since volunteers essentially receive no or a comparative low monetary reward and they are not tied to events through tangible things such as contracts, volunteer management is not the same as human resource management for paid employees (Farrell et al., 1998). As a result, general human resource management strategies may not function well with event volunteers. Thus, it is important for event practitioners to develop a better understanding about event volunteers in order to make the best use of them.

First, individuals volunteer at events for different reasons (Farrell et al., 1998). Event practitioners need to identify what motivates people to participate in event volunteering and develop well-directed recruitment and training strategies to attract more targeted volunteers.

Second, not like the community-based events, the time interval between special events is usually long, especially for some major or mega events (e.g., the Olympic Games, the Paralympic Games, the World Expo, international championships, and the World Cup). It is always a big challenge for special events to retain experienced volunteers. Although events rely on volunteers to reduce the labor costs of event planning and operation, event organizers and planners still spend a lot of time and money on volunteer recruitment and training, and it will be a waste of resources if events cannot keep well-trained volunteers. Therefore, event practitioners also need to know what factors influence

volunteers' satisfaction with and commitment to the event in order to encourage volunteers' input and retain experienced volunteers.

Managing Volunteers Better

Understanding why people volunteer at events and what factors influence their perceptions at events helps event practitioners know what kinds of volunteers the event may attract and how to encourage their efforts, and enables them to create better strategies to recruit, manage, and retain volunteers. During the volunteer recruitment stage, event practitioners need to deliver accurate information about the event vision and goals as well as volunteering activities to attract volunteers with proper motivations. If event practitioners know what kinds of volunteers they are looking for beforehand, this will allow them to release recruitment messages at more targeted places through more directed channels. During the volunteer selection and training stage, practitioners should address the opportunities the events could provide to meet those motivations so that volunteers can be more dedicated in order to benefit particular events. After the event, event practitioners should design proper reward programs to compliment volunteers' input. Although volunteers are not providing their services in exchange for direct monetary reward, they still look for some rewards from the volunteering job. If practitioners understand what motivates people to work for events, they can develop appropriate reward and recognition programs to fulfill those needs while avoiding wasting resources on unnecessary rewards.

In addition, if event practitioners know the factors that affect volunteers' satisfaction and commitment, they can design reasonable operation programs and provide enjoyable experiences for volunteers, which assist in enhancing volunteers' satisfaction and commitment to the events. Furthermore, practitioners can retain experienced volunteers when they have satisfied and committed volunteers, which ultimately, helps benefit future events. As a result, event practitioners can save

countless time, money, effort, and other resources in future volunteer recruitment and training, contributing to the continuation and success of future events.

Retaining Event Volunteers

Many event practitioners have been working hard to maintain highly satisfied and committed volunteers, but it is a difficult task since people in general tend to seek short-term volunteering opportunities and do not want to make long-term commitments (Graff, 2002). Although event volunteering is usually short term for one time, many events are held annually or on a time-fixed base. It is still possible for these events to retain well-trained volunteers to benefit future events. By understanding event volunteers' motivation and perceptions of volunteering experience better, event practitioners can develop better recruitment, management, and retention strategies, as well as create better volunteering activities and experiences, which may enhance volunteers' intention to contribute to future events (Chen, 2010). As more and more events involve a large number of volunteers and as volunteers take a more and more important role in event planning and operation, recruiting and retaining volunteers becomes more and more vital for event practitioners (Green & Chalip, 2004). Building a database of experienced volunteers who are highly motivated and committed will enhance the efficiency and reduce the costs related to volunteer recruitment for future events. The present study aims to provide insights for event practitioners to develop a better volunteer management program and retain experienced volunteers.

Previous Studies about Event Volunteers

Prior research about event volunteers has mainly explored the factor of motivation (Farrell et al., 1998; Monga, 2006; Slaughter & Home, 2004; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). For example, Farrell et al. (1998) examined the motivations of the volunteers at the 1996 Canadian Women's Curling Championship and concluded four motivational factors for sport event volunteering, which included purposive, solidary, external traditions, and commitments. Strigas and Jackson (2003) assessed the

volunteers at the Capital City Marathon and divided their motivations into five factors, including material, purposive, leisure, egoistic, and external motivation. Slaughter and Home (2004) investigated the volunteers at festivals in Australia and found that the key drivers of festival volunteers were related to ego, altruism, and socialization. Monga (2006) focused on volunteers at special events and believed that people were motivated to work at special specials by affiliatory, egoistic, altruistic, instrumental, and solidary factors, in a hierarchical sequence from high to low.

Besides the exploration of volunteer motivation, some studies have tried to explore the relationship between volunteer motivation and perceptions such as satisfaction and commitment (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Han, Quarterman, Strigas, Ha, & Lee, 2013). Previous research has identified volunteer motivation as the key determinant of volunteer and satisfaction and commitment to the event (Bang & Ross, 2009; Bang, Won & Kim, 2009; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Han et al., 2013). In their study of the 2004 Twin Cities Marathon in Minnesota, Bang and Ross (2009) found that expression of values and career orientation were the most important predictors explaining the level of volunteer satisfaction. Bang et al. (2009) surveyed the volunteers at the 2005 Life Time Fitness Triathlon and found that that volunteer motivations including interpersonal contacts, love of sport, and personal growth had a significant influence on the volunteers' commitment to the sports event. Similar finding were confirmed by Han and colleagues (2013) in a study of volunteers at the annual Georgia Marathon, who stated that volunteer motivations positively predict their commitment to events.

However, most of the studies only take motivation and volunteer perception into consideration, and few studies examined the interaction that volunteers experience with event organizers, coworkers and other volunteers during volunteering activities. Motivation is the factor that makes people decide to participate in volunteering, and perception is the judgment that people generate after their volunteering activities. There is a missing link between volunteer motivations and their perceptions about event volunteering, which is the interaction experienced by volunteers during their volunteer

job. Individual motivation may function through an interactional stage before volunteers forming their final perceptions about the event they have worked for. Helping at an event is a job that emphasizes on teamwork a lot. Even though volunteers are not employees who are getting paid, they still have a lot of interaction with the event organizer, the volunteer supervisor, coworkers and other volunteers. They receive job assignments from the organizer, get instructions from the supervisor, and have to work together with coworkers and other volunteers to make the event a success. These exchange relationships may play an important role in influencing volunteers' satisfaction with and commitment to the events. Do such exchanges happen in a coherent way? Is the communication between each other smooth and effective? Can the efforts and contributions of volunteers be recognized and valued by others? Volunteers' answers to these questions may largely impact their perceptions of the volunteer experience and their further intentions towards the event. Concerning the fact that prior volunteer studies only tried to explore the relationship between volunteer motivation and perceptions towards event volunteering (Bang et al., 2009; Chen, 2010; Han et al., 2013), there is a need to include interpersonal exchange in the examination of volunteers' behavioral mechanism at events to fully understand volunteers' intention to continue volunteer activities.

Purposes of the Study

There are two main purposes of this study:

1. To develop and establish an integrated model that describes the mechanism of what affects volunteer participation at events and how they develop their perceptions at events with regard to their intention to continue. The proposed model integrates volunteer motivations, interpersonal exchange, satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread positive word-of-mouth, and intention to continue volunteering.

2. To empirically examine the model and the relationships among the constructs in the context of event volunteering, aiming to provide implications for event organizers and volunteer coordinators to

effectively motivate volunteers to engage in interpersonal exchange with event organizers and coworkers, and ultimately, to retain experienced volunteers.

Objectives of the Study

Specific objectives of this study include:

1. To examine the relationships between volunteer motivations and two types of interpersonal exchange relationships (organizational-member exchange and coworker exchange);

2. To test the relationships between interpersonal exchange relationships and volunteer perception (satisfaction);

3. To investigate the relationships between volunteer perceptions and behavioral intentions (satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread word-of-mouth and continue volunteer service); and

4. To provide suggestions for event organizers and volunteer coordinators to attract and retain trained event volunteers.

Significance of the Study

This study will make a contribution to both the theoretical research in event volunteerism and the practical management of event volunteers.

Theoretical Contribution

From a theoretical perspective, the results of this study will contribute to an extension of the knowledge base of event volunteerism. By including the interpersonal exchange constructs (organization-member exchange and coworker exchange) in the model, this study takes into consideration the interactions that volunteers experience when exploring event volunteerism. The study fills a gap in the research of event volunteerism by investigating the function of interpersonal

exchange in forming volunteers' perceptions towards volunteer jobs. It thus provides an integrated mechanism that incorporates volunteer motivation, interpersonal exchanges, perceptions, and behavioral intentions to recommend event volunteering and continue their volunteer services. By assessing the role of volunteer motivations on perceived interpersonal exchange, and separately examining the influence of interpersonal exchange experienced by volunteers during their activities on perceptions of volunteer jobs, the study offers a clearer reflection of the social exchange process that volunteers experience at events and provides a comprehensive understanding of event volunteer participation and retention.

Practical Contribution

From a practical perspective, understanding these aspects of volunteering, as well as the relations between them, can be beneficial for the management of event volunteers. Nowadays, due to the increasing complexities of holding events together with the associated financial constraints, more and more events have come to particularly rely on the involvement of volunteers, who undertake important tasks throughout the planning and operation of events. It is important for event organizers to understand the factors that attract people to volunteer, and the factors affecting volunteers' perceptions of the event, no matter the context. The results of the study may help event organizers and volunteer coordinators understand their volunteers better and develop more effective volunteer programs. This study will also propose suggestions on how to encourage volunteers' input, promote positive perceptions, retain experienced volunteers, reduce the costs of volunteer recruitment and training, and ensure the continuation of the event in the future, which may ultimately benefit the event, event organization, service recipients, and volunteers themselves.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Volunteers contribute to the success of events, and events provide an excellent stage for volunteers to meet their needs and gain benefits. Most events rely on volunteers to carry out their plans, and, at the same time, offer many opportunities for volunteers to participate in the events. Event organizers should understand why people volunteer, how they feel about volunteering, and thus plan their volunteer programs accordingly, in order to benefit both the events and volunteers. This chapter discusses volunteering in general, volunteer motivation, interpersonal exchange, and volunteer perceptions including volunteer satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread word-of-mouth and continue volunteer service.

Volunteering

People have a shared understanding about volunteering but there is no censuses about the definition of it (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006; Lockstone-Binney et al., 2010). In order to better understand the volunteering concept, Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) suggested four criteria for volunteering based on a content analysis, which included "(1) acting based on free choice, (2) working without remuneration, (3) the context of volunteering should be at formal organization, and (4) the benefit or help goes to others" (as cited in Himanen, 2012). Similarly, the United Nations (2002) proposed three key principles to define volunteering as follows: "(a) actions were carried out freely and without coercion, (b) financial gain was not the main

motivating principle, and (c) there was a beneficiary other than the volunteer" (as cited in Chen, 2010). These criteria and principles showed how people view volunteering and guided researchers to define volunteering.

Volunteering refers to "any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group or cause" (Wilson, 2000, p. 215). This is consistent with Musick and Wilson's (2008) definition, which described volunteering as an altruistic act that aims to provide help to other people, groups, organizations, or communities without receiving any monetary reward. Similarly, Freeman (1997, p. S141) defined volunteering as "work performed without monetary recompense", which "creates social output that would otherwise require paid resources". Volunteering refers to an action, while volunteers are the people who conduct such action. Hodgkinson (2003) described volunteers as people who work voluntarily for no pay. From the official perspective, volunteers refer to people "who perform unpaid volunteer activities (except for expenses) through or for an organization" (United States Department of Labor, 2016). The Australia Bureau of Statistics (2007) defined volunteers as persons who "willingly give unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skill, through an organization or group." In summary, the non-economic characteristic and the freewill of the participants are the two main features of volunteering. In addition, Stebbins (1992, p. 20) viewed volunteering as a form of "serious leisure" which consists of "the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge". Such "serious leisure" results in volunteers who are highly committed to and identified with organization or event they work for (Getz, 2005).

Volunteering exits in various forms based on the nature of the work and the time that is spent on it. Holmes and Smith (2009) categorized volunteering into six different types including "(1) International, transnational or cross-national volunteering, (2) volunteer tourism, (3) episodic volunteering, (4) virtual, online or cyber-volunteering, (5) family and intergenerational

volunteering, and (6) corporate, workplace, employee and employer-supported volunteering." The traditional form of volunteering is usually continuous as people provide their services in the same organizations on a regular basis, such as museums, hospitals and visitor attractions (Lockstone, Smith, & Baum, 2010). There are also many volunteers dedicated to work for humanitarian organizations, such as the World Food Programme (WFP), the Red Cross, and the Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) (Himanen, 2012). Different from the traditional form of volunteering, events usually involve a large number of volunteers who work for a short time period and are more flexible, which can be seen as episodic volunteering (Lockstone et al., 2010).

Nowadays, as the number of events keeps on growing while the scale of current ones keeps on expanding, the demand for episodic volunteering is increasing rapidly (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Holmes & Smith, 2009; Pauline, 2011). Mega events or major events rely on the involvement of a huge number of volunteers (Kemp, 2002). For instance, the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics attracted about 30,000 volunteers (Liew, 2010). The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games and the Paralympic Games called for 100,000 volunteers altogether, and received more than 320,000 applications ("Over 320,000 Volunteers for Beijing Olympics", 2007). The 2010 Shanghai World Expo involved more than 72,000 volunteers to work on-site and more than two million volunteers to work at different service stations ("Number of World Expo Volunteers to Exceed 2 Million", n.d.). The 2012 London Olympic Games recruited 70,000 volunteers from over 240,000 applicants ("London 2012 Game Makers", n.d.). More than 50,000 volunteers across the world offered to work free at the 2016 Rio Olympic Games (Sims, 2016). The 2020 Tokyo Olympics forecasted a need for 80,000 volunteers (Blaster, 2016). Although the demand for volunteers is not very large for minor or regional events, volunteers' contribution cannot be ignored or underestimated (Strigas & Jackson, 2003).

Volunteers make huge contribution to events, no matter what the scale (Holmes & Smith, 2009). By receiving no or comparatively low remuneration, volunteers' participation helps reduce the cost of event planning and operation (Cuskelly, Auld, Harrington, & Coleman, 2004; Pauline, 2011). By investing their time, knowledge, skill, and efforts into events, volunteers contribute to the success and continuation of events (Allen & Shaw, 2009). Besides the economic benefit they bring to the events, volunteers also make a profound social impact on society through events by enhancing reciprocity between people and creating a cohesive community (Lockstone-Binney et al., 2010; Pauline, 2011).

Events depend on the participation of volunteers in almost all types of jobs, from the planning stage to the operation stage. Research suggests that event volunteers are involved in tasks related to marketing and advertising, finance and budgeting, venue management, technology, transportation, liaison and delegate management, volunteer management, event operation, catering, translation, attendee and spectator reception, on-site troubleshooting, crowd control and so on (Bang, 2009; Du, 2009). Event volunteers can be grouped into planning volunteers and on-site volunteers, based on the time of service (Doherty, 2009), or what Holmes and Smith (2009) called core volunteers and noncore volunteers. Planning volunteers work for events from the planning stage and spend a longer time on the event, while on-site volunteers usually only work during the day(s) of event (Doherty, 2009; Holmes & Smith, 2009). In terms of the positions, planning volunteers usually take managerial or organizational positions because they are more familiar with the event from all perspectives and stay longer with the events, while on-site volunteers usually hold operational oppositions (Doherty, 2009).

Volunteers are not homogenous because they have different motivations, experiences, abilities, and degrees of commitment (Wilson & Pimm, 1996). Therefore, it is important for event practitioners to know what motivates people to participate in event volunteering, how they interact with others during event, and what influences volunteers' perceptions at the event

towards their intention to stay and continue volunteer service. This will assist event organizers and volunteer coordinators to develop better strategies to recruit target volunteers and retain experienced and well-trained volunteers (Bang et al., 2009; Du, 2009).

The present study concentrates on volunteers at events and examines their motivations, interpersonal exchange, perceptions of volunteer experience, and future behavioral intentions, as well as the relationships between them.

Volunteer Motivation

Understanding volunteers' motivation assists event practitioners in developing a better understanding about why people participate in volunteer service and thus designing appropriate volunteer programs to attract targeted groups of people as well as to fulfill specific needs.

Motivation

Motivation explains why individuals act the way they do. It refers to an inner state that causes people to behave in a way that leads to the accomplishments of certain goals (Certo, 1983). Similarly, Murray (1964) defined motive as "an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behavior" (as cited in Iso-Ahola, 1980, p. 230). Whereas, Getz (2007, p. 240) described motives as "specific reasons for doing something, and they have to follow from underlying needs and motivation." In the context of volunteering, Elstad (2003) defined volunteer motivation as individuals' reasons to participate in volunteering. Clary et al. (1998) described volunteer motivation as a drive of individuals to find voluntary opportunities, to engage in voluntary activities, and to continue volunteer involvement over a long time. Understanding volunteers' motivations helps practitioners know why people involve themselves in volunteering activities and to develop appropriate programs to maximize the performance.

Numerous motivational theories describe how motivation takes place or why people act in a certain way in general or within certain contexts. In general, motivational theories can be grouped into content theories and process theories. The content theories address what motivates people, while process theories focus on why and how motivation happens (Chelladurai, 2006). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a classical content theory. Maslow (1987) grouped human needs into five sets and arranged them in order of importance from lower to higher, which were (1) physiological needs, (2) safety needs, (3) belongingness and love needs, (4) esteem needs, and (5) self-actualization needs. Maslow (1987) believed that people are most motivated by the lowest order needs that are not yet satisfied and choose to behave in a certain way to meet these unsatisfied needs. As to process theories, Vroom's Expectancy Model is one of the most popular theories that addresses how motivation strengthens people's determination to perform a behavior (Certo, 1983). It highlights the role of motivation in the decision-making process, based on the evaluation of the value of perceived outcomes and the probability of obtaining those outcomes. When the values of perceived rewards and the probability of obtaining those rewards increase, people are more motivated to perform the behavior that leads to the perceived outcomes (Vroom, 1964). Based on Vroom's Expectancy Model, Porter and Lawler developed a more complete model to describe individuals' motivations in the workplace. Porter and Lawler (1968) further divided the perceived rewards into intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are usually intangible and come directly to the person from performing a job, such as a sense of satisfaction and recognition, whereas extrinsic rewards are usually tangible and are given when a job is accomplished, such as salary and souvenir (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Porter & Lawler, 1968). No matter whether people are motivated by intrinsic or extrinsic rewards or both, they tend to behave in a way to maximize personal rewards in the long term (Vroom, 1964).

Volunteers' Motivations in General

Volunteer motivations have been widely studied and several models have been proposed (Chen, 2010; Pauline & Pauline, 2009). A large amount of volunteer motivation research has focused on individual motivations in general (Allen & Shaw, 2009). Volunteers' motivations are suggested to be either uni-dimensional, dual-dimensional, or multi-dimensional, and there is a lack of consistency between the categories and definitions of volunteer motivation (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

For example, Knoke and Prensky (1984) were among the first researchers to explore volunteer motivations. Knoke and Prensky (1984) investigated volunteers at voluntary organizations and proposed three key motivations, including *utilitarian motivations, affective motivations*, and *normative motivations*. *Utilitarian motivations* are usually tangible and deal with monetary rewards (e.g., salary, stipend, and wage), goods and services, and they are also called material motivations or instrumental motivations. *Affective motivations*, also known as solidary motivations, are based on interpersonal relationships that may generate new friendships and group identification. *Normative motivations*, also known as purposive incentives, are related to the values and concerns one has about other people (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Knoke & Prensky, 1984).

In order to examine the motivations for volunteers and paid employees in human service, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) developed a 28-item instrument called the Motivation to Volunteer (MTV). The results indicated volunteers' motivation is uni-dimensional and people volunteer because of altruistic and egoistic reasons. However, people not only invest in volunteering activities but also obtain some type of satisfaction and rewards (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). As the research related to volunteer motivations develops, Kim, Zhang, and

Connaughton (2010) argued that defining volunteer motivation only as altruism and egoism is too simple and is not enough.

Caldwell and Andereck (1994) focused on volunteers of a nonprofit organization, the North Carolina Zoological Society (NCZS), and established a three-dimensional model to categorize volunteer motivations as *purposive, solidary*, and *material motivations*. Purposive motivations were found to be the most important reason to join and maintain volunteer membership of the organization. People were most likely to participate in volunteering because they want to do something positive for community and society. *Material* motivations, such as free tickets, were the least important reasons for volunteering. In addition, the study found people differed in motivations by gender, as male volunteers placed more weight on material benefits than females (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994).

Clary et al. (1998) developed a 30-item scale called the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), to investigate volunteer motivation in general. The VFI describes volunteer motivations under six factors, which are v*alues, understanding, social, career, protective,* and *enhancement*. *Values* derive from one's altruistic and humanitarian belief and concern. *Understanding* involves opportunities to gain new learning experience and practice one's knowledge, skills, and abilities. *Social* refers to social interaction or being involved in an activity that is recommended by others. *Career* is associated with work-related benefits. *Protective* comprises escaping personal problems and reducing guilt. Lastly, *enhancement* includes personal growth and development. Clary et al. (1998) used the VIF instrument in various contexts with different participants varying from the senior volunteers at hospitals to university students with and without volunteer experiences. Clary et al. (1998) were interested in exploring the importance of different motivations and their relationship with volunteers' satisfaction, commitment, and intention to continue volunteering. In most of the studies, *values, enhancement*, and *understanding* were found to be the top three reasons for people to join in volunteering activities, while *protective, career,* and *social* were not

determinant motivations for volunteers (Clary et al., 1998). In addition, people who were highly motivated and satisfied were more likely to continue volunteering behavior in the future in both the short and long term (Clary et al., 1998). The VFI scale has been a widely accepted measurement in terms of volunteer motivation and has been adopted in many studies in various settings (Agostinho & Paço, 2012; Bang, Ross, & Reio, 2013; Barron & Knoll, 2009; Chui & Cheng, 2013; Eppler, Ironsmith, Dingle, & Errickson, 2010; Finkelstein, 2008; Francis & Jones, 2012; Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998; Phillips & Phillips, 2010; Vocino & Polonsky, 2011; Wong & Foo, 2012).

Volunteers' Motivations in a Specific Sector

In addition to the instruments that were developed to test volunteer motivation in general, there are other studies which tried to investigate volunteers' motivation in a specific domain (Elstad, 2003; Farrell et al., 1998; Giannoulakis, Chien-Hsin, & Gray, 2008; Monga, 2006; Slaughter & Home, 2004; Strigas, 2001; Twynam, Farrell, & Johnston, 2002). Sport is one of popular sectors that attract researchers' attention. Farrell et al. (1998) established the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) based on the work of Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) to explore the motivations of volunteers at a women's curling competition in Canada in 1996. This 28-item scale was one of the first instruments exploring the motivations of sport event volunteers (Strigas & Jackson, 2003). As a result, the study generated four motivational factors for sport event volunteers, including *purposive*, *solidary*, *external traditions*, and *commitments* (Farrell et al., 1998). *Purposive* motivations reflect volunteers' altruistic concerns and willingness to contribute to the community and the event. The *solidary* factor derives from interpersonal interaction with the desire to build group identification and social networks. *External traditions* refer to family traditions and the influence from salient referents, whereas, *commitments* are based on responsibilities for and anticipations of others (Farrell et al., 1998; Twynam et al., 2002). *Purposive* motivations were found to be the most important factors with regard to sport event

volunteers, followed by the *social* factor, while *external traditions* and *commitments* were the least important factor (Farrell et al., 1998). Farrell et al. (1998) further compared the findings in this study with previous findings in other contexts, and concluded that motivations for volunteers in sport events differ from volunteers in other contexts.

Twynam et al. (2002) validated the SEVMS scale at the 1998 World Junior Curling Tournament in Canada. Consistent with the previous studies (Farrell et al., 1998; Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 2000), the findings showed that *purposive* and *social* were the most important motivation, while external traditions were the least important factor. The top rated items were related to community contribution, social interaction, and doing something worthwhile (Twynam et al., 2002). It is shown that volunteers in special events were not motivated by a single factor and that people volunteer at special events because of various reasons (Monga, 2006; Twynam et al., 2002). This is similar to the finding of Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) that general volunteers may experience multiple motivations.

Strigas (2001) developed a 30-item scale to examine the motivations of sport event volunteers based on the work of Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991). This instrument was further modified by Strigas and Jackson (2003) to test the sport volunteers at the Capital City Marathon 2001 in Florida. The modified instrument included 40 items and the items were divided into five factors including *material, purposive, leisure, egoistic*, and *external*. *Material* refers to the monetary remuneration, service, material goods, and social status that volunteers receive as a result of their contribution (Strigas & Jackson, 2003). It parallels the utilitarian/material category proposed by Knoke and Prensky (1984), as well as the career category put forward by Clary et al. (1998). The *purposive* factor relates to the contribution made to the event and the community, which is similar with the values category as suggested by Clary et al. (1998). *Leisure* deals with individuals' needs for leisure, such as relaxation. The *egoistic* factor addresses one's needs to be social and fulfill self-esteem. This dimension covers the content of understanding, social, and

enhancement of the Clary et al. (1998) category, as well as the social category of Farrell et al. (1998). *External* involves family traditions, the influence from significant others, and other external motivational factors. This dimension is similar to the external traditions category as proposed by Farrell et al. (1998). In this study, the strongest motivation of sport volunteers was *egoistic* motivation and the weakest motivation was *material* motivation (Strigas & Jackson, 2003). The top three rated items include "I wanted to help make the event a success," "Volunteering creates a better society," and "It is fun to volunteer in a marathon event" under the egoistic dimension; and the lowest rated item was "I wanted to gain some practical experience toward paid employment" under the material dimension (Strigas & Jackson, 2003, p. 117).

Bang and Chelladurai (2003) assessed volunteers at the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea to extend the sport volunteer research in the context of an international mage event. The scale used to measure volunteers' motivation was labeled the Volunteer Motivations Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE). Six motivational factors emerged from a factor analysis: *expression of values* (one's concern for the event, others, and society), *patriotism* (love of country and sense of affiliation), *interpersonal contacts* (social interaction and building networks), *career orientation* (work-related benefits and opportunities), *personal growth* (feeling needed and helpful, gaining new perspectives), *extrinsic rewards* (e.g., free tickets, accommodation, souvenirs). The results found that *patriotism* was a strong motivational factor for volunteers at international sport events. Local volunteers are more willing to contribute to international events to help their country organize the event successfully and obtain international attention and prestige due to their love of and pride in their country and sense of allegiance. Thus, Bang and Chelladurai (2003) concluded that motivations for volunteers in large international sport events are different from that of volunteers in other settings.

In a focus group study, Ralston, Downward, and Lumsdon (2004) accessed the volunteers of the XVII Commonwealth Games in Manchester 2002. The results showed the majority of the

volunteers perceived the Games as an event instead of a sport game (Ralston et al., 2004). It was revealed that altruism (e.g., doing something worthwhile for society, local community or sport), involvement (e.g., being part of a team or a sense of being useful), the uniqueness of the event, and being part of the event were perceived to be the biggest reasons to volunteer at this event (Ralston et al., 2004). Furthermore, volunteering was seen as worthwhile and rewarding (Ralston et al., 2004).

MacLean and Hamm (2007) made minor modifications to the instrument developed by Strigas and Jackson (2003) and used it to evaluate volunteers' motivation at the 2005 BMO Canadian Women's Golf Championship. Among the five motivations, the *purposive* factor was found to be the most important, especially for community enhancement and promotion.

Doherty (2009) conducted a cross-sectional study to assess volunteers' motivations, experienced benefits, and intentions to volunteer for future events at the 2001 Canada Games, a youth sport events. It was found that volunteers experienced six motivations including *community contribution*, *skill enrichment*, *connection with sport*, *privileges of volunteering*, *positive life experience*, and *social enrichment* (Doherty, 2009). Moreover, Doherty (2009) made comparisons between planning volunteers and on-site volunteers. The results indicated that community contribution and personal inconvenience had a significant impact on their future volunteering intention for both the planning volunteers and on-site volunteers. In addition, task overload was an extra predictor for planning volunteers, while skill enrichment, social enrichment, and a positive life experience were extra predictors for the on-site volunteer (Doherty, 2009).

Arguing that the VMS-ISE developed by Bang and Chelladurai (2003) did not consider all motives that lead people to participate in volunteering, Bang and Ross (2009) further developed the VMS-ISE by adding items related to the mere love for the sport. The modified instrument included the previous six factors together with a new added factor – *love of sport*. The revised

model were validated by Bang, Alexandris, and Ross (2008) at the 2004 Athens Olympic Games and demonstrated its utility in measuring volunteers' motivations in international mega event settings. In addition, in order to measure the motivations of volunteers at local events using the revised VMS-ISE, Bang and Ross (2009) reworded the previous factor of patriotism to fit the context of a local event and renamed as *community involvement*. As a result, the new scale covered seven categories, which were *expression of values*, *community involvement*, *interpersonal contacts*, *career orientation*, *personal growth*, *extrinsic rewards*, and *love of sport.* The modified scale was tested at the 2004 Twin Cities Marathon in Minnesota, and the relationship between motivations and satisfaction were explored. The results revealed that *expression of values* (contribution to the event and others), *career orientation* (work opportunities), and *love of sport* (passion for the sport and the event) positively influenced volunteer satisfaction (Bang & Ross, 2009).

Bang et al. (2009) adopted the revised VMS-ISE scale and utilized it in a study of the 2005 Life Time Fitness Triathlon in Minnesota. The study investigated the relationship between motivation, commitment, and intention to continue volunteering. *Love of sport*, *interpersonal contacts* (building networks), and *personal growth* (feeling important and broadening horizons) were found to be key indicators of volunteer commitment. In addition, the motivation of *community involvement* (love of community) and *extrinsic rewards* (e.g., free souvenirs and food), together with *commitment* significantly affected volunteers' intention to engage in future event volunteering (Bang et al., 2009).

Kim and colleagues (2010) adapted the VFI developed by Clary et al. (1998) and utilized it to test the volunteers at a youth sport event. A total of 12 items were deleted because of the unsuitability for the setting and weak factor loadings. The resulting new scale, which was called Modified Volunteer Functions Inventory for Sport (MVFIS), generated six factors including *values*, *understanding*, *career*, *enhancement*, *social*, and *protective*, which were consistent with

the preceding study. The MVFIS was then applied to a second study of Kim and colleagues (2010) in the context of youth sport leagues. The results indicated that the new scale was reliable and valid, and it can be applied to other sport events and organizations (Kim et al., 2010).

Khoo and Engelhorn (2011) measured the motivations of volunteers at the first National Special Olympics held in Iowa in 2006 using SEVMS proposed by Farrell et al. (1998). The results found that *purposive* motivation was the most important factor that drove people to volunteer. The highest rated items were related to the desire to make the event a success and contribute something good to the community (Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011), which fell in purposive category. The finding confirmed Farrell et al. (1998)'s and Twynam et al. (2002)' studies, which indicated that *purposive* motivation was the most important factor for sport event volunteers.

In a study of the 2012 Super Bowl, Vansickle, Pierce, and Diacin (2015) examined volunteer motivations at mega sport events and their relationship with volunteers' satisfaction. Volunteers' motivations were measured by adopting the revised VMS-ISE scale proposed by Bang and Ross (2009). The research reported that volunteers at the Super Bowl were motivated by *community support, love of sports, personal growth*, and *career development* to participate in the volunteering activities. Moreover, all these four motivations positively influenced volunteers' satisfaction of their volunteering experience (Vansickle et al., 2015)

Besides volunteers at sports events, there are also some studies trying to investigate volunteer motivations at other special events including cultural events and festivals (Elstad, 2003; Monga, 2006; Slaughter & Home, 2004). Elstad (2003), for instance, examined volunteers at the Norwegian Jazz Festival. It was found that the opportunity to socialize with others, and the link between volunteers' hobbies/interests and event content/activities were the key reasons for people to volunteer for the festival. Moreover, people who were motivated by altruistic factors (wanting

to do something worthwhile for others) were most likely to stay and volunteer for future events (Elstad, 2003).

Slaughter and Home (2004) explored long-term/repeat volunteers at festivals in Australian. The findings indicated that the determinant drivers for people to participate in and continue special event and festival volunteering were related to altruism, egoism, and social reasons. Individuals continued volunteering at festivals because they wanted to be seen as important and helpful, contribute to the community and others, socialize with others and be part of the community. Gaining new experiences and knowledge and pursuing personal development were also reasons that motivated people to volunteer at festivals, but they were not seen as determinant compared to the previously mentioned factors.

Monga (2006) proposed a five-facet model of special event volunteers and categorized motivations as *altruistic*, *egoistic, instrumental*, *solidary* and *affiliatory* factors. *Altruistic* motivation is related to contributing something worthwhile to others (Monga, 2006). This category is nearly coincident with Bang and Chelladurai's (2003) expression of the values category and the purposive category of Farrell et al. (1998). *Egoistic* motivation aims at enhancing self-esteem by feeling needed and being seen as important by others and obtaining personal development (Monga, 2006), which is paralleled by the personal growth proposed by Bang and Chelladurai (2003). *Instrumental* motivations relate to obtaining tangible rewards such as souvenirs, free uniforms and admission to the event, or even training opportunities (Monga, 2006). It is like the content of extrinsic rewards dimension described by Bang and Chelladurai (2003). *Solidary* motivation is associated with social interaction, and it is derived from family traditions, friendships, group identification, and external influences (Monga, 2006). This covers the content of extrinsic rewards category by Bang and Chelladurai (2003) and social enrichment dimension by Doherty (2009). *Affiliatory* motivations emphasize the volunteers' special sense of attachment to the event (Monga, 2006), which is similar to the being connected with

interests/hobbies factor proposed by Elstad (2003). This model was tested with the volunteers at five special events in various event sectors in Australia. The findings indicated that in general, *affiliatory* motivations were the most important motivational factor to impel people to volunteer at special events, while the *solidary* motivations were the least important.

Barron and Rihova (2011) investigated volunteers at the Edinburgh International Magic Festival by conducting one-on-one semi-structured interviews. The study reported that volunteers engage in volunteer activities mainly for utilitarian incentives. Volunteers at festivals were driven by the desire to gain some career-related knowledge and skills, and benefit their future career (Barron & Rihova, 2011).

Wang and Wu (2014) examined volunteers at the 2010 Shanghai World Expo using the modified VMS-ISE scale developed by Bang and Ross (2009). It was found that *expression of values*, *career orientation*, and *love of Expo* were the three key indicators for people to volunteer at the World Expo (Wang & Wu, 2014).

Volunteers' Motivations for a Specific Event

Besides the scales developed to measure volunteer motivations in general or in a specific sector, there are some studies trying to determine important volunteer motivations for a specific event. For example, Moreno, Moragas, and Paniagua (1999) assessed the motivations of volunteers at the Olympic Games and concluded six most common motivations for Olympic volunteers, which were: (a) identification with the Olympic philosophy, (b) love and commitment towards country, (c) individual challenge, (d) group affiliation, (e) group identification; and (f) individual gratification (as cited in Chen, 2010).

The Organizing Committee of the 2004 Athens Olympic Games (ATHOC) conducted a study with 2,000 volunteers at the Olympic Games to identify their reasons for volunteering at the Olympic Games. It was found that the top three reasons for serving at the Olympic Games were

(a) being a part of such a unique experience, (b) identifying the importance of the goals, and (c) contributing to the motherland (ATHOC, 2004). Furthermore, Karkatsoulis, Michalopoulos, and Moustakatou (2005) explored the motivations, attitudes, and beliefs of volunteers at the 2004 Athens Olympic Games using secondary data. It was reported that national identity highly motivated Greek people to volunteer at the Olympic Games because they perceive hosting the Olympic Games as a national mission. Such motivations were closely related to the nature of the Olympic Games, as it is a high-level mega event with large numbers of people involved and vast media exposure, plus the organizer is a nation (Chen, 2010). Therefore, such motivations may not be expected in the event volunteering of other contexts.

Identifying Volunteers' Motivations

It is important for event practitioners to recognize what motivates people to participate in volunteering services so that they can design suitable programs to manage volunteers better. By understanding the various motivations of event volunteers, event practitioners can employ appropriate strategies to assist in volunteer recruitment, selection, and training, as well as task assignment. As a result, it can result in better performance, higher efficiency and effectiveness, and lower cost (Monga, 2006). At the same time, it helps event practitioners to enhance volunteers' satisfaction, commitment, and intention to stay by satisfying what volunteers seek from the volunteering experience (Bang et al., 2009). Motivations are the needs that initiate people to join in volunteering, and whether people will continue their volunteering involvement is determined by whether those needs are met and fulfilled by volunteering experiences (Wilson & Pimm, 1996).

The diversity of the research findings suggests that there is not one generic response to the issue of volunteer motivation. Volunteers are motivated by various reasons to participate in event volunteering (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Monga, 2006) and volunteers are different from each other.

Event volunteers also hold different motivations compared to general volunteers who work on a regular and continuous basis (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 1998). Volunteers' motivations differ depending on the nature of event in terms of type, scale, content, duration, and other factors. Since there is no common accepted model for event volunteers, the present study adopts the motivation categorization from Clary et al. (1998) which was designed for general volunteers and tested by various researchers in different settings. The motivation categories are renamed to better reflect their content. To be specific, Clary et al. (1998) described volunteers' motivations in six sectors:

Altruism (Value) – "motivations reflecting one's altruistic and humanitarian concern;"

Self-development (Understanding) – "motivations that relate to practicing one's knowledge, skills, and abilities and the opportunity for new learning experiences;"

Social – "motivations to be involved in social interaction or take part in an activity that is considered as favorably by one's salient referents;"

Protective – "motivations that refer to one's guilt reduction and escaping own personal problems;"

Career – "motivations that derived from volunteer work-related benefits;" and

Ego (Enhancement) – "motivations that relate to personal growth and development, and egoistic needs."

Volunteer Interpersonal Exchange

Volunteers have much interpersonal exchanges with others during volunteer work. This study emphasizes on volunteers' exchanges with event organizers and coworkers to discuss volunteers' experience during volunteer job.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory has demonstrated utility in framing and explaining the underlying mechanism about how individuals generate perceptions of event volunteering and intentions to engage in future event volunteering (Bang et al., 2009). The social exchange theory explains the development and continuation of interpersonal relationships or behavior based on the comparisons of perceived rewards and costs resulting from the exchange (Homans, 1961).

In a decision of social exchange, people try to maximize rewards and minimize costs and then decide whether to develop a social relationship with a person or an organization based on the comparison between rewards and costs (Thibault & Kelley, 1959). In particular, people would be unwilling to start an exchange relationship if the perceived rewards are less than what they expect to input. On the other hand, people would be more willing to develop a closer relationship and exchange with a person or organization when the perceived rewards are greater than the costs (Thibault & Kelley, 1959). Therefore, social exchange can be viewed as a "joint activity of two or more parties in which each party has something others value" (Lawler, 2001). However, as the exchange relationship continues, people come to seek a balance between rewards and costs (Homans, 1961). In his explanation on the social exchange process, Homans (1958) wrote that:

> "Social behavior is an exchange of goods, material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige. Persons that give much to others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them" (p. 606).

That is, as a social relationship continues, people tend to move toward a greater balance between rewards and costs when an imbalance is perceived (Sergent & Sedlacek, 1990).

The social exchange theory provides an explanation regarding individuals' intention to exchange with others at an event and to continue volunteering behavior. Whether a given

intention is manifested is based on the consideration of the perceived effort invested in volunteering and the rewards the individual expects to receive from the volunteer experience. When individuals feel that their motivations and needs are fulfilled through a volunteer job, satisfaction will be generated as a positive evaluation of the exchange behavior, and, as a result, satisfaction, commitment, and/or intention to spread word-of-mouth and to continue volunteering behavior can become an exchange commodity. Interpersonal exchange acts as an indicator of perceived rewards in individuals' subjective evaluation of their volunteer job. When individuals perceive their needs are satisfied, the interpersonal exchange they experience during volunteer work is positive, and their efforts and contributions are recognized and valued by others, they are more likely to develop satisfaction and commitment to the event and the organization they work for. Thus, the social exchange theory can be applied to understand the relationships between motivations, interpersonal exchange, and intentions towards volunteering for events.

Volunteers' Interpersonal Exchange

As discussed earlier, social exchange theory can be used to explain the relationship between volunteers and events (Bang et al., 2009; Corrigan, 2001). From the social exchange perspective, if a volunteer is treated with respect by the event organizer, they would be more likely to engage in the volunteer job and repay this attitude with enhanced effort. Therefore, it is easier for event practitioners who value the social exchange process to maintain a sustainable relationship with their volunteers by recognizing volunteers' input and valuing their contribution, and receiving reciprocated efforts and commitment from their volunteers.

In the volunteer work setting, individuals have countless interpersonal exchanges with others. They work for the event and the organizers, connect with the volunteer coordinators, receive duty assignments from supervisors, and work together with other volunteers and paid employees. All the interactions and exchanges have an impact on volunteers' evaluation of their volunteer

experience. This study focuses on two types of interpersonal exchange relationships and explores their relationship with volunteer motivations and perceptions, which are organizational-member exchange (OMEX), and coworker exchange (COEX).

OMEX concerns how employees are treated by the organization they work for and can be viewed as the "quality" of the social exchange between employer and employee as a whole (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) believed that organizations are personified by employees and have humanlike "personalities" or characteristics. Employees take the treatment by and interaction with the organization as an indicator of whether the organization favors or disfavors them as a member in the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). If employees receive support from organizations, they feel their input is valued and perceive a positive exchange relationship with the organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The benefits of OMEX can be understood in a reciprocal way, that is, employees who perceive their employers as supportive and have positive exchange tend to give back (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). In the context of volunteering, volunteers also form an evaluation about the event and event organizer they work for based on the support and recognition they receive. If they feel the event organizer values their well-being, supports them and recognizes their efforts, volunteers are willing to pay back and be more devoted.

COEX focuses on how employees are treated by their coworkers, the groups they spend most time with at work (Ladd & Henry, 2000). In the current working environment, people usually work in a team and everybody contributes to a piece to the puzzle. It requires everyone's input and collaboration to complete a task and to accomplish a given goal. A successful job and high-quality service cannot exist without the teamwork of peers. Effective communication, mutual support, and close cooperation among coworkers thus play an important role in determining the success of the job. COEX emphasizes the support of peers in the workplace (Ladd & Henry, 2000). People perceive positive COEX when peers are supportive and easy to

work with, and people have negative COEX when they have poor interactions with coworkers. In the volunteer work setting, volunteers need to work with other volunteers and paid employees to get the job done. Mutual understanding and support from peers is vital to make the event proceed smoothly.

In summary, in an event context, volunteers work for the event and try to achieve its goals and values. During the process, they interact with the event organizer to understand relevant requirements and receive instructions; in addition, they cooperate with other volunteers and employees to get the work done. The quality of volunteers' exchange with the event organizers and coworkers has a huge impact on the success of the event as well as on volunteers' subjective evaluation of their volunteer experience.

Volunteer Motivation and Interpersonal Exchange

This section uses self-determination theory to explain the relationship between volunteer motivations and their exchanges with event organizers and coworkers. This is followed by a review of the literature identifying volunteer motivations as antecedents of interpersonal exchange.

Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory has been recognized as a useful approach in explaining volunteers' psychosocial activities experienced at events (Allen & Bartle, 2014). Self-determination theory focuses on human motivation and personality, and concerns people's innate psychological demands and inherent growth tendencies (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Self-determination theory distinguishes motivations into intrinsic motivations and extrinsic motivations based on the degree of self-determination behind the choices people make (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Intrinsic motivation refers to participating in an activity because

of the interest and inherent enjoyment in the activity itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Behaviors derived from intrinsic motivations are considered to be highly self-determined because people choose to be involved in something for its own sake. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity because of external influences, such as to gain personal benefits or to avoid punishment (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Ryan and Deci (2000) further expand on extrinsic motivation by indicating that such motivation varies in terms of relative autonomy. To be specific, self-determination theory categorizes extrinsic motivations into three sub-categories: identified regulations, introjected regulations, and external regulations. Identified regulation is the most autonomous type of extrinsic motivation. It refers to be invloved in an activity because it is consistent with a person's beliefs and self evaluations, or because it is personally important and valued (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Behavior that is motivated by identified regulations is self-determined even though it is still considered one type of extrinsic motivation because the goals to be achieved are related to the person, rather than the activity itself. Introjected regulation describes the motivations to participate in an activity for self-worth, self-esteem, or ego-involved reasons such as to avoid feelings of guilt or to prove themselves to others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It is externally controlled because behavior is to some extent influenced by others. However, behavior that is motivated by introjected regulation can still be considered self-determined because people pursue it for their personal growth and achievement. Lastly, external regulation is a non-self-determined form of motivation or a controlled form of motivation. It refers to engaging in an activity because of possible rewards or external pressures, such as a sense of obligation or a fear of punishment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Behaviors derived from external regulation have the least autonomy.

Deci and Ryan (2008) believed that self-determined motivations will predict the most positive work outcomes, while nonself-determined motivations and amotivations (i.e., absence of motivations) will predict the most negative work outcomes. Meyer and Gagné (2008) reported

that self-determination theory is a useful approach to understanding the impact of motivation on job involvement and engagement in the workplace. Since volunteer service is usually voluntary and not required by someone else, people can choose to participate in volunteer activities because of the meaningfulness behind it but not external pressure. In other words, volunteer participation is highly self-determined. As a result, people are willing to get immersed in the volunteer job and actively interact with their peers, supervisors and organizers. Therefore, self-determination theory can offer a reasonable explanation of the relationship between volunteer motivation and interpersonal exchanges.

Volunteer Motivations as Antecedents of Interpersonal Exchange

Ryan and Deci (2000 & 2017) believed that more self-determined forms of motivation are likely to lead to positive outcomes such as enjoyment, engagement, enhanced performance, and persistence. Some researchers have explored the relationship between motivation and social exchange in different areas (Barbuto, Weltmer, & Pennisi, 2010; Chen & Shaffer, 2017; Gillet, Huart, Colombat, & Fouquereau, 2013; Hsu, Chang, Lin, & Lin, 2015; Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993). OMEX is often assessed by the degree of how an organization supports its employees and cares about employees' well-being, termed as perceived organizational support (POS). For example, Gillet et al. (2013) explored the relationship among motivation, POS and engagement in police officers and found that motivation significantly predicts POS. Highly motivated police officers tend to perceive a higher level of support from the organization and have positive exchanges with organizations. Hsu and colleagues (2015) tried to identify the factors that affect users' decisions to use social media continually. The findings suggested that users' motivations of entertainment, socialization, information seeking and self-presentation influence human-community interaction positively, which, in turn, affects user satisfaction and intention of continued use. Individuals who are highly motivated to do something are more likely to actively engage in the job as well as in interactions with the parties who are associated with the

job, employers and coworkers being the two main groups that individuals connect with in the job setting.

Although none of the studies have explored the relationship between motivation and exchange among coworkers, it can be expected that motivation can function in the say way as regards individuals' exchange with coworkers. The higher the self-determined motivations are, the more engaged people tend to be in the exchange relationship with workers. By the same token, volunteers' self-determined motivation is expected to positively predict the interpersonal exchange they have with the event organizer and their peers. The more volunteers are self-determined to satisfy certain needs, the more likely they will invest more in the job and actively interact with others.

Self-determination theory has been used in the context of events to explain volunteers' motivations to participate in volunteer activities (Allen & Shaw, 2009). Allen and Shaw (2009) found that volunteers participate in sport events volunteering mainly because of intrinsic reasons, and the other motivations that volunteers demonstrated were also self-determined. A similar finding by Allen and Bartle (2014) also indicated that volunteers at sport events are most motivated by self-determined motivations (intrinsic motivations and indentified motivations). The findings in the context of other events and festivals also suggested that the primary motivations of volunteers are altruistically oriented or identified (Barron & Knoll, 2009; Elstad, 2003).

From the above review about volunteer motivations, it can be concluded that people participate in event volunteering mainly for their own sake and the sake of others. In other words, individuals are highly motivated by self-determined motivations and want to do something meaningful for themselves as well as for others. As a result, they will actively involve themselves in the events and interact with others to make those goals realized.

People who are motivated to participate in volunteer service because they want to help others and do something worthwhile for society are likely to dedicate themselves to the volunteer job and actively work with others to make the event successful because they are self-determined and altruistic. If people are motivated because they want to communicate with others, gain practical experience, and benefit their careers, they tend to actively interact with others to get to know new friends, obtain new contacts, and gain work-related experience in order to meet those needs and goals. This phenomenon can also be explained by social exchange theory as "persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them" (Homans, 1961). As Blau (1964) noted, people make the judgment about whether to involve in a social exchange not only based on past experience but also based on their expectations of what they will receive. If they expect to gain some rewards that they are looking for, people are willing to invest at first. That is to say, if volunteers have social, personal, or career-oriented needs and they expect that such needs can be fulfilled through volunteering, they tend to be highly engaged in volunteer jobs and exchanges with others. Based on the motivation categorization by Clary et al. (1998), altruism, self-development, career, and ego can be grouped into self-determined motivations because these motivations are either altruistically-oriented, personally meaningful, or ego-involved, while social and protective motivations are non-self-determined motivations or controlled motivations because people are motivated by external pressure. Based on previous findings, social and protective motivations are least important motivations for volunteer participation (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Phillips & Phillips, 2010). Therefore, the present study will focus on altruism, self-development, career, and ego motivations to discuss the relationship between volunteer motivations and interpersonal exchange. As a result, eight hypotheses are developed about the relationship between volunteer self-determined motivations and interpersonal exchange in the current study (Figure 2-1).

H1-1: Altruism is positively related to organization-member exchange.

H1-2: Self-development is positively related to organization-member exchange.

H1-3: Career is positively related to organization-member exchange.

H1-4: Ego is positively related to organization-member exchange.

H2-1: Altruism is positively related to coworker exchange.

H2-2: Self-development is positively related to coworker exchange.

H2-3: Career is positively related to coworker exchange.

H2-4: Ego is positively related to coworker exchange.

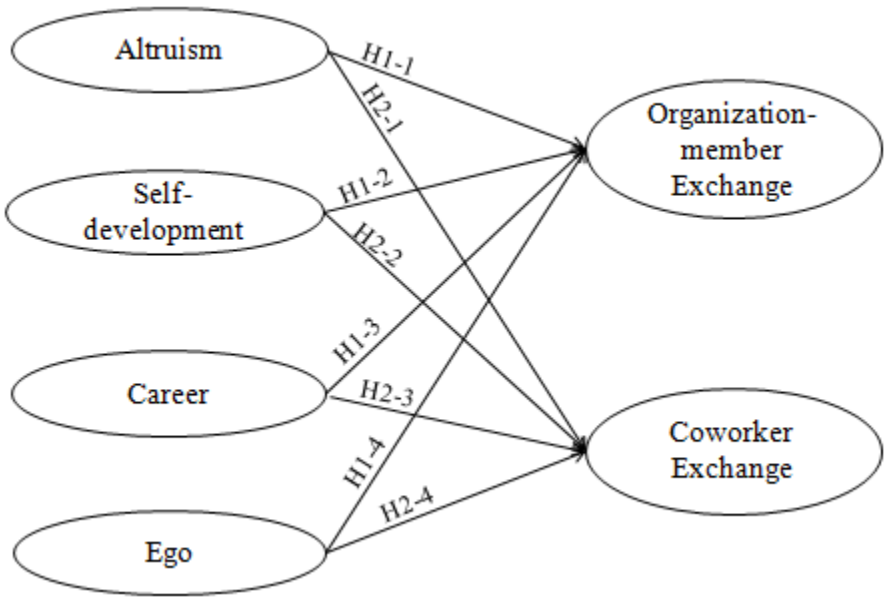

Figure 2-1. The Effect of Motivations on Interpersonal Exchange

Volunteer Perceptions

Event organizers and volunteer coordinators care about how volunteer think about the volunteer experience and they look for positive perceptions from their volunteers in order to sustain a long-term relationship with those volunteers. This study focuses on satisfaction and affective commitment to discuss volunteers' perceptions about the event they work for.

Volunteer Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a desired condition of employees that is pursued by employers and thus has been researched a lot in the paid work setting since the 1950s (Kemp, 2002). Job satisfaction refers to a "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing the values are compatible with one's needs" (Locke, 1976, p.1304). Spector (1997, p. 2) defined job satisfaction as follows: "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs." Similarly, Chelladurai (2006) also described job satisfaction as an attitude that one has about his or her job. Research has stated that job satisfaction is a complex concept, as it is affected by various factors, and those factors vary among individuals (Chelladurai, 2006). As a result, even people in the same job environment and who hold the same positions may differ in the degree of their job satisfaction (Chelladurai, 2006).

Efforts have been invested by researchers to compare paid employees and volunteers, and many similarities have been found between them (Chelladurai, 2006; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983). For example, both paid employees and volunteers need to work together with supervisors, coworkers, and sometimes customers to have the job done under certain conditions and timeframe (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983). Both paid employees and volunteers need to invest their knowledge, time, skills, abilities, and creativity to complete the job in exchange for recognition (Gidron, 1983). Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) further

pointed out that both paid employees and non-paid volunteers share certain expectations about what the job could offer. Therefore, paid employees and volunteers may share some similar sources of satisfaction. For example, in a study of the Special Olympics, Chelladurai (2006) found that both paid employees and volunteers got satisfaction from their interaction with supervisors and attendees. However, it cannot be assumed that paid employees and volunteers share the same satisfaction, as there are many differences between them. One of the key differences between the work settings is that people participate in the job because of different reasons and thus hold different expectations about the rewards received from the work. That is, paid employees take the job in order to make a living while volunteers participate because of free will (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Paid employees can receive salaries or wages as a return of their contribution, but volunteers cannot receive such tangible rewards (Gidron, 1983). In addition to salaries or wages, paid employees may have other benefit packages including a retiring plan and health insurance, while such benefits do not exist for volunteers (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The main rewards volunteers can receive are intangible and intrinsic. As a result, it is reasonable to believe that volunteers may share different sources of satisfaction than paid employees.

Studies have tried to identify the sources of volunteer satisfaction (Elstad, 1996; Farrell et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Gidron, 1983; Lee, Reisinger, Kim, & Yoon, 2014). Gidron (1983), for example, summarized 12 factors that influence volunteer satisfaction including work itself, task achievement, task convenience, family, client, supervisor: expressive, supervisor: instrumental, recognition, stress factors, professionals, other volunteers, and perceived social acceptance of volunteer work. Among the 12 factors, Gidron (1983) asserted that work itself, achievement, convenience, and absence of job stress factors had the strongest impact on volunteers' job satisfaction in general. Moreover, it was found that some of these factors can be applied to both

paid employees and volunteers, while some of the factors such as perceived social acceptance, family, and recognition were unique to volunteers (Gidron, 1983).

In a study of the 1994 Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer, Elstad (1996) reported that the possibility of enlarging their personal network, being part of the unique event atmosphere, and gaining job competence were the most important determinants of satisfaction for student volunteers. Furthermore, being part of the unique event atmosphere was found to be a distinctive predictor of volunteer satisfaction in a mega event setting (Elstad, 1996).

Farrell et al. (1998) investigated volunteers at the 1996 Canadian women's curling competition and indicated that volunteer expectations of recognition received and communication with other volunteers, physical facilities, and various event activities were important predictors of volunteer satisfaction.

Based on the research of social capital, Zappa and Zavarrone (2010) aimed to explore the impact of social interaction on volunteer satisfaction. In a non-profit organization setting, this study examined the relationships between two types of social interaction (co-working relationship and solidary relationship) and two types of volunteer satisfaction (work-related satisfaction and rational satisfaction). It is reported that the benefits of co-working relationship, such as the involvement in the decision-making process and the opportunity to gain work-related competence, had larger impact on volunteer satisfaction than any outcomes resulted from solidary relationship (Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010).

Lee and colleagues (2014) focused on volunteers in a mega event setting and explored the relationship between volunteer motivation, satisfaction, attitudes, and support for the event. This study was conducted at Expo 2012 Yeosu Korea, and the findings suggested that volunteers' motivation of patriotism and intrinsic motivations significantly affect volunteer satisfaction. Volunteers who viewed volunteering at this event as a civic responsibility and were motivated by

inner fun, interest, and curiosity were more like to develop a satisfaction towards volunteer experience (Lee et al., 2014).

Using a functional approach, Finkelstein (2008) examined the relationships among volunteer antecedents (motives), volunteer experiences (motive fulfillment and satisfaction), and volunteer outcomes (time spent in volunteering and volunteer longevity). The results showed that motive fulfillment positively influence volunteers' satisfaction. The more volunteers feel their motivation of helping fulfilled from volunteer experience, the higher satisfaction they tend to exhibit (Finkelstein, 2008). This study confirmed the findings of Davis et al. (1999), which suggested that volunteers' satisfaction mainly come from the fulfillment of specific motivations.

In terms of the measurement of job satisfaction itself, scholars also use different scales to measure volunteer satisfaction (Farrell et al., 1998; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). For example, Farrell et al. (1998) measured volunteer satisfaction at the 1996 Canadian women's curling competition study from three dimensions: satisfaction with event organization, volunteer experience, and tournament facilities. Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) examined volunteers in a nonprofit organization and developed a 40-item instrument to measure volunteer satisfaction called the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI). The VSI measures volunteer satisfaction from five facets: organizational support, work assignment, group integration, participation efficacy, and communication quality. Wong, Chui and Kwok (2011) tried to validate VSI in the Chinese cultural context. Using exploratory factor analysis, this study generated three factors, which were personal gain, relationship with peers, and relationship with organization (Wong et al., 2010). The factors found were different from the factor structure proposed by Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001). Boezeman and Ellemers (2009, p. 904) assessed volunteers' job satisfaction from three psychological needs, which were fulfillment of competence needs (e.g., "I feel very competent when I am at my volunteer work"), fulfillment of autonomy needs (e.g., "I

am free to express my ideas and opinions on the volunteer job"), and fulfillment of relatedness needs (e.g., "I really like the people I work with").

As Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) stated, the scales used were not made for general use, but for specific settings of the studies. For the current study, the researcher is interested to explore volunteer satisfaction with their volunteer experience and organization. Therefore, volunteer satisfaction is measured as a whole.

Volunteer Affective Commitment

Organizational commitment has been considered as an important construct in order to understand employees' behaviors in the workplace and thus receives much attention by researchers (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Riketta, 2002). Organizational commitment refers to "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226). In order to better describe the concept, Mowday et al. (1979) identified three key themes of organizational commitment, which were "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (p. 226). Mowday et al. (1979) viewed organizational commitment as a one-dimensional concept and developed a 15-item instrument, which they called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), in order to test employees' commitment in various settings. This instrument has been adopted in numerous studies and has proved to be a stable predictor of employees' performance, turnover, and tenure (Engelberg, Zakus, Skinner, & Campbell, 2012; Mowday et al., 1979).

Later on, researchers argued that defining organizational commitment as a uni-dimensional construct is not enough, believing that organizational commitment should be viewed from

different perspectives (Engelberg, Zakus, Skinner, & Campbell, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a three-dimensional model and suggested that the organizational model covered three aspects: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment is concerned with the emotional attachment that an individual has towards an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991), which is parallel with the definition of Mowday et al. (1979). It is a connection between the identity of the person and the identity of a member of the organization (Sheldon, 1971). Individuals with high affective commitment tend to maintain their membership or association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Normative commitment derives from individuals' loyalty or sense of obligation to stay within the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997). It might be a result of normative constraints coming from individuals' prior experience, from the organizational socialization process, or both (Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994). Individuals showing high normative commitment feel that they have to maintain their membership or association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment deals with the economical or instrumental benefits, which may be at risk if an individual leaves the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Such benefits may include social status, salary/wages, seniority, and networks that make people remain within the organization. Individuals with a high degree of continuance commitment show high willingness to stay in the organization because they do not want to lose those benefits (Hackett et al., 1994). The three-dimensional model of organizational commitment is supported by researchers who believe that commitment should be viewed from multiple perspectives (Engelberg et al., 2012; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Although the majority of research about commitment has been conducted among paid employees, many researchers have tried to look at commitment of volunteers, since voluntary organizations and activities also aim to build a sustainable relationship with those unpaid

volunteers. Among them, several studies explored the commitment among event volunteers (Bang, 2009; Bang et al., 2009; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Costa, Chalip, Green, & Simes, 2006; Engelberg et al., 2012; Han et al., 2013; Park & Kim, 2013). For example, Park and Kim (2013) developed a five-stage hierarchical model to describe the commitment of sport volunteers, which includes primitive commitment, continuance commitment, external commitment, normative commitment, and affective commitment.

Efforts have been made to explore the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Mowday et al., 1982). Mowday et al. (1982) suggested that employees' commitment is influenced by four factors, including personal characteristics, role-related characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experiences. Brown, Yoshioka, and Munoz (2004) found that seniority is a predictor of commitment as employees tend to exhibit higher commitment to the organization they work for when they are older and working for a longer time. In the volunteer work setting, Cuskelly et al. (2006) adopted the three-dimensional commitment model and explored its relationship with the reasons that people participate in volunteering. The results reported that there is a relationship between utilitarian motivation and continuance commitment (Cuskelly et al., 2006). That is, individuals who are motivated by utilitarian incentives are more likely to develop continuance commitment towards the event they work for. Furthermore, the authors suggested that various motivations of volunteering participation are related to different reasons why people are committed to an organization (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Han and colleagues (2013) investigated the relationship between demographic factors, motivation, and commitment, and found that demographic characteristics and motivations influence volunteers' commitment. Similarly, Bang et al. (2009) found volunteers' motivations of interpersonal contacts, love of sport, and personal growth can positively affect volunteers' commitment.

Organization commitment is mostly likely to be generated when people have a positive state of mind towards their jobs. Research has shown that organizational commitment leads to positive work outcomes such as job performance (Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday et al., 1982), work effort (Bycio et al., 1995), self-reported citizenship (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993), satisfaction (Anis, Khan, & Humayoun, 2011; Sesen & Basim, 2012), absenteeism and turnover (Riketta, 2002), retention (Garc á-Almeida, Fern ández-Monroy, & De Sa á-P érez, 2015; Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursi ère, & Raymond, 2016; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977). Among all the possible positive work outcomes, Mowday et al. (1979) believed that reducing turnover and improving volunteer retention is the strongest outcome because employees who show high commitment are more likely to accept the organizational values, strive for the organizational goals, and want to retain membership in and association with the organization. In the context of volunteering, De Leon and Fuertes (2007) stated that organizational commitment plays a vital role in influencing volunteers' intentions of continuing in service.

The current study defines commitment as "individuals' psychological attachment to an event," according to a study of Bang et al. (2009, p. 71) about sport event volunteers. This definition is consistent with the affective commitment proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). Therefore, the current study uses the term "affective commitment" to examine the commitment that volunteers have towards the event they work for, which is the psychological attachment volunteers have to an event. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), affective commitment is the "desire" component of organizational commitment. An employee who is affectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization because they want to. Following the same rationale, a volunteer who is affectively committed to the event will show high intention to stay as a part of the event and participate as volunteer continually.

Volunteer Interpersonal Exchange and Perceptions

This section utilizes the basic idea of social exchange theory and affective events theory to explain the relationship between the interpersonal exchanges that volunteers experience at their job and their satisfaction towards the event they work for, as well as provides a review of literature discussing interpersonal exchanges as antecedents of volunteer perceptions.

Social Exchange Theory and Affective Events Theory

As discussed earlier, social exchange theory can be used to explain the relationship between interpersonal exchange and volunteers' perceptions of their volunteer job. Social exchange theory suggests that interpersonal relationships can be understood in a reciprocal way (Blau, 1964). People who receive a lot from others are under pressure to give it back. If volunteers have a positive exchange and receive support, assistance, and recognition from their peers and the event organizer, they are more likely to develop positive feelings about the event, and, as a result, be emotionally tied to the event and repay with enhanced input to future events.

Along with social exchange theory, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) is also a suitable approach in explaining the relationship between interpersonal exchange and work attitudes. Affective events theory explains how emotions influence job performance and job satisfaction. According to affective events theory, affective reactions are expected to be affect-driven and judgment-driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Employees' emotions and states of mind act as a predictor of their organizational work outcomes, such as job performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. That is to say, if employees develop positive emotional states from work, they are more likely to perform better in their job, exhibit higher-level organizational commitment, and be more satisfied with the work they are doing.

Positive interpersonal exchange is a positive work-relevant experience and condition of mind. If people perceive positive exchange and believe that they are supported and valued by

their organization, supervisor and coworkers, they tend to feel enthusiastic, encouraged, and inspired. Such positive mind states will direct people to make a positive judgment about the job they are doing and the organization they are working for. In other words, they are more likely to develop positive perceptions and feelings towards the job and the organization.

Interpersonal Exchanges as Antecedents of Volunteer Satisfaction

Numerous studies have explored the role of interpersonal exchange in the workplace. Research has suggested that POS is a predictor of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the workplace. When employees have positive exchanges with the organization and perceive a higher level of support from the organization they work for, they are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Ma & Qu, 2011; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998), derive stronger organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 1997; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Scandura & Graen, 1984), exhibit higher engagement (Alvi, Abbasi, & Haider, 2014; Mahon, Taylor, & Boyatzis, 2014), perform better at their job (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoads, 2001; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), show higher job satisfaction (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), and have less absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and turnover intentions (Masterson et al., 2000). Since OMEX is usually measured by the extent to which the individual perceives support from the organization, POS can be seen as the quality of the exchange between the organization and the employees. POS significantly predicting work outcomes means that positive OMEX leads to positive work outcomes.

Ma and Qu (2011) examined the relationship between three types of social exchange and three types of organizational behaviors in the hotel industry, and the results found that leader-member exchange positively correlates to the organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit the organization and employee, and coworker exchange predicts the organizational citizenship

behaviors of employees. Research also found that support from coworkers leads to positive work outcomes because a positive social exchange relationship is developed between coworkers (Ladd & Henry, 2000; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Similar findings have also been confirmed in the context of organization-member exchanges (Cho & Johanson, 2008; Du, Zhang, & Tekleab, 2018; Karatepe, 2015).

Following the same rationale, interpersonal exchange can function in the same way in the context of non-paid jobs. Volunteers will also want to repay back to the event when they feel they have a positive exchange relationship with the event organizer. If volunteers repeatedly receive appreciation and recognition from an event organizer for their good work and efforts, the volunteers will perceive a high level of support from the event and develop positive feelings towards the event. If volunteers feel they are happy to work with their coworkers and the coworkers support their work in a coherent way, they are more likely to develop positive perceptions towards the event and be willing to continue their volunteer service. In other words, if volunteers experience positive exchange and feel supported by the organizer and coworkers during the exchange process they have with the event, they are more likely to generate positive emotions with the event and repay with enhanced contribution to the event.

In the context of event management, Andrew, Kim, and Kim (2011) adopted the concept of POS and leader-member exchange and examined their relationship with volunteer satisfaction in a study of volunteers at Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA). The results show that both POS and leader-member exchange positively impact volunteer satisfaction (Andrew et al., 2011). None of the studies have incorporated COEX in the examination of an event setting. Coworker exchange may influence volunteers' satisfaction in a similar manner as paid employees. That is, if volunteers perceive a high level of support from their peers and have strengthened cooperation with them, they are likely to develop positive affective states toward their work, which in turn, increases their job performance and other organizational outcomes.

Therefore, interpersonal exchange is expected to have a positive relationship with volunteer satisfaction. Two hypotheses about interpersonal exchange and volunteer satisfaction will be tested in the study (Figure 2-2):

H3-1: Organization-member exchange is positively related to volunteer satisfaction;

H3-2: Coworker exchange is positively related to volunteer satisfaction.

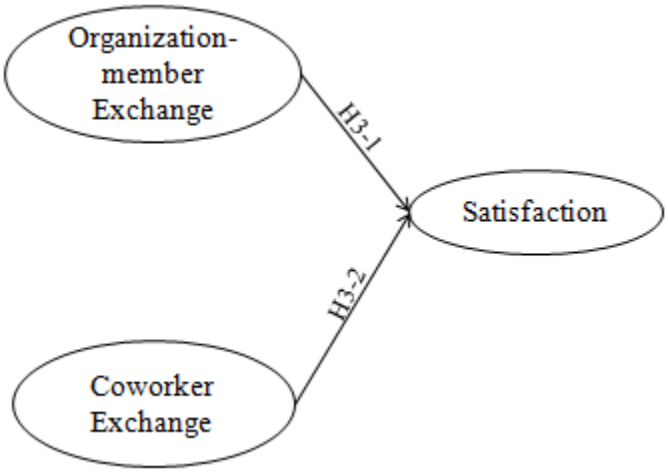

Figure 2-2. The Effect of Interpersonal Exchange on Volunteer Perception

Volunteer Behavioral Intentions

The end goal of volunteer management is to build a sustainable relationship with event volunteers. Event organizers and volunteer coordinators have been working hard to maintain experienced volunteers as well as expand their volunteer group. In order to find the answer, it is important to know volunteers' intentions with regard to the events. This study will explore volunteers' behavioral intentions of recommendation and retention. In other words, this study will focus on whether volunteers are willing to spread positive word-of-mouth for the event and whether volunteers are willing to stay and volunteer for future events.

Volunteers' Intention to Spread Word-of-mouth

Word-of-mouth (WOM) or recommendation has been widely researched as a recognized aspect of loyalty in various contexts (Kumar, Pozza & Ganesh, 2013). In consumer behavior studies, WOM is defined as "an informal person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service." (Harrison-Walker, 2001, p. 63). This definition focuses on the personal and informal nature of communication (Goyette, Ricard, Bergeron, & Marticotte, 2010; Moliner-Velázquez, Fuentes-Blasco, & Gil-Saura, 2015). In other words, WOM refers only to the communication between customers or users; it does not include the communication from companies/organizations to customers/users, or from customers/users to companies/organizations (Mazzarol, Sweeney, & Soutar, 2007). When customers have positive experience with a product or service, they are willing to recommend the product/service to others; on the other hand, if customers have negative stories about a product or service, they tend to share the negative experience with others and ask them to avoid such a product or service in the future. From the perspective of companies, companies can view WOM as a free advertisement of their products/services, where positive WOM could attract more customers while negative WOM may decrease potential business opportunities. Although little research about WOM has been done in the context of event management and volunteer management, WOM from experienced volunteers could function the same way as the customers' WOM. Just like customers share their experiences about consumption of a product or use of a service, experienced volunteers are also willing to communicate their volunteer experience at events to their family members or friends. If they feel happy about the volunteering job, they would say something positive about it and recommend others to participate in event volunteering as well; if they do not like their volunteering experience, they might tell others not to participate in volunteering.

Correspondingly to commitment and satisfaction, there are relatively few studies that have studied volunteers' behavioral intentions in the event settings. Nevertheless, it is important to understand the behavioral intentions of volunteers in order to attract new volunteers while retaining experienced ones for future events (Love, Hardin, Koo, & Morse, 2011). Intention has been defined as "immediate determinant of behavior, and when an appropriate measure of intention is obtained it will provide the most accurate prediction of behavior" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 41). This study defines intention to spread WOM as volunteers' belief that he or she will share good thoughts about working as a volunteer at events. Volunteers' intention to spread positive word-of-mouth is a desired outcome that is pursued by event organizers. If experienced volunteers are willing to share good thoughts or their volunteering stories and advocate for event volunteering, more potential volunteers may be attracted to participate in event volunteering. The experienced volunteers can act as spokesmen of event volunteering and share the benefits of event volunteering from their own stories to those potential volunteers. As a result, it will help save the cost and time associated with volunteer recruitment.

Volunteers' Intention to Continue

Employees' intention to stay at organizations they are working for have been researched a lot in the context of paid work (Elstad, 2003). The current study adapts the definition of volunteer's intention to continue from Elstad's (2003, p. 100) definition of intention to remain, and defines intention to continue as "the volunteer's belief that he or she will continue as a volunteer in the future." Intention to continue volunteer service is another desired outcome that is pursued by event organizers. If event organizers can keep experienced and well-trained volunteers, it will be a huge help to enhance efficiency and effectiveness, and decrease the cost and the time needed since this group of people already grasp the necessary knowledge and skills to work for the event. As a result, experienced volunteers promote the continuation of events.

The Relationship between Volunteer Perceptions and Behavioral Intentions

The relationship between volunteer satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread WOM, and intention to continue volunteer service can be explained using affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which suggests that affective reactions are emotion-driven. Positive affections lead to positive behavioral intentions. Volunteer satisfaction refers to individuals' feelings and perceptions towards the event and all aspects of the event, adapted from the definition of job satisfaction from Singh and Dubey (2011). Whereas, affective commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of organizational values and goals, a willingness to invest considerably efforts on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership within the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Both satisfaction and affective commitment to the event reflect a positive condition of mind, and such a positive mind state can direct volunteers to make positive judgments about whether to spread positive WOM about event volunteering and continue volunteer service in the future. If volunteers have positive emotions about their volunteer experience and are affectively attached to the event, they are more likely to advocate for event volunteering and continue their volunteering behavior. Consequently, satisfied and committed individuals will recommend volunteering and stay as volunteers.

Boles and colleagues (2007) suggested that individuals' satisfaction with the job is significantly related to their affective commitment to the organization. That is, the more people perceive pleasurable and positive emotions from their job, the more they tend to accept the values of the organization and be affectively attached to it. As a result, satisfied people will be affectively committed. Other studies confirmed this conclusion in different contexts (Budihardjo, 2013; Clugston, 2000; Gottlieb, Maitland, & Shera, 2013; Hackett et al., 1994; Kuo, 2015; Williams & Hazer, 1986). By the same token, if volunteers have positive emotions about their volunteer experience, they are more likely to accept the values of the events and feel attached to

the event. In other words, they will be more committed to the event affectively. Therefore, a hypothesis about volunteer satisfaction and affective commitment will be tested in the study.

H4: Volunteers' satisfaction is positively related to their affective commitment.

Satisfaction is shown to be a great predictor of intention to WOM (Chen, 2003; Fuentes-Blasco, Moliner-Velázquez, &l-Saura, 2017; Kumar et al., 2013; Prebensen , Skallerud & Chen, 2010). In a study of sun and sand destinations, Prebensen and colleagues (2010) found that satisfied tourists tend to communicate their thoughts about the destination through positive WOM. In the context of retailing, consumers are also found to recommend products or services they are satisfied with to others (Fuentes-Blasco et al., 2017). In the area of hotel management, satisfaction is also proved to have a strong impact on customers' loyalty and willingness to WOM (Fakharyan, Omdvar, Khodadadian, Jalilvand, & Nasrolahi Vosta, 2014; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). When people feel happy with a service, product, or destination, they are willing to share their good stories associated with that service/product/destination to others, and recommend others to try as well. By the same token, if volunteers feel satisfied with their volunteering experience, they would also like to spread positive words about event volunteering and recommend others to participate in it. Thus, a hypothesis about volunteer satisfaction and intention to WOM will be tested in the study.

H5: Volunteers' satisfaction is positively related to their intention to WOM.

Affective commitment is also proved to have an impact on customers' intention to WOM (Hagenbuch, Wiese, Dose, & Bruce, 2008; Li & Chang, 2016; Sumaedi, Juniarti, & Bakti, 2015; Sun, Ayoun, & Calhoun, 2013). For example, Sumaedi and colleagues (2015) examined the relationship between trust, commitment and ego involvement and their impacts on WOM communication for individual saving customers in Islamic banking, and found that affective commitment has a positive and significant impact on WOM. Another study about accounting

services also showed that satisfied and committed consumers are likely to refer their service providers to other clients (Hagenbuch et al., 2008). In the hospitality setting, a study about the influence of trust and perceived playfulness on the relationship commitment of hospitality online social networks also found that commitment has a positive influence on online WOM (Li & Chang, 2016). Besides consumers, employees have also been taken into consideration when examining the relationship between commitment and intention to spread WOM. Sun and colleagues (2013) investigated the relationships between three components of organizational commitment and word-of-mouth intentions among hotel staff in China. The result showed direct correlations between the three components of organizational commitment and word-of-mouth intentions. That is to say, committed employees tend to recommend the companies/organizations they are working for to others. Similarly, committed volunteers are also likely to compliment the events they have volunteered for to others and recommend that others participate in event volunteering. Therefore, a relationship between affective commitment and intention to WOM is proposed in this study.

H6: Volunteers' affective commitment is positively related to their intention to WOM.

A positive relationship between volunteer satisfaction and intention to remain has been confirmed by prior studies (Andrew et al., 2011; Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2006; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Pauline, 2011). In a study of a men's elite golf event, Pauline (2011) found that volunteers' satisfaction level increases their willingness to stay. Downward and Ralston (2006) assessed volunteers' experiences, satisfaction, and future intentions for participation at the XVII Manchester Commonwealth Games. The findings showed that satisfied volunteer experiences in organizations may raise their future volunteer participation. Andrew et al. (2011) examined the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer turnover intention in the context of the LPGA golf tournament. The findings indicated that volunteers' job satisfaction tends to decrease their turnover intention. By ensuring that volunteers'

task assignments are reasonable, satisfying and fulfilling, events can expect to have the potential return of satisfied volunteers, and, as a result, meet the goal of volunteer retention (Andrew et al., 2011). In other words, the more satisfied the volunteers are, the more likely they will develop affective attachment to the event and the event organizer, and thus be more willing to stay and volunteer for future events. Thus, a hypothesis about the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue is proposed in the study.

H7: Volunteers' satisfaction is positively related to their intention to continue.

Commitment has also been proved to be a strong indicator of retention in various contexts (Brunetto, Shriberg, et al., 2013; Brunetto, Xerri, et al., 2013; Mahal, 2012; Nguyen, Flefe, & Fooken, 2014). For example, Mahal (2012) investigated the importance of human resource practices in impacting employees' commitment and retention and suggested that employees' retention is fully influenced by their commitment towards organization, which results from good human resource practices. Brunetto, Shriberg, and colleagues (2013) explored the relationship between supervisor-member relationship, teamwork, well-being, affective commitment and retention in nurses, and it was reported that nurses' retention is predicted by their affective commitment. Nguyen et al. (2014) examined the role of multi-dimensional commitments of Western expatriates to a local operation in Vietnam and found that all three aspects, including affective, normative, and continuance commitment positively predict expatriates' retention.

In the volunteer work setting, a positive relationship has also been found between volunteer commitment and their willingness to stay and volunteer for future events (Bang et al., 2009; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Cuskelly and Boag (2001) explored the relationship between volunteers' commitment and intentions to stay in a study of the volunteer administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Australia. The findings indicated that the volunteers who exhibited a higher degree of commitment were more likely to continue as volunteers (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001).

Similar findings were obtained by Bang et al. (2009) when examining the volunteers at the 2005 Life Time Fitness Triathlon. Since the primary reasons for volunteer participation are not tied to economic factors, volunteers have a higher possibility of quitting than paid employees (Elstad, 2003). Bang et al. (2009) further noted that volunteers are more likely to quit volunteering when their needs and motivations are not met and fulfilled through volunteer jobs and when they are not highly committed to the event. Therefore, volunteers' commitment is expected to be closely related to their intentions to continue volunteer service.

Based on these prior studies regarding the relationships between volunteer affective commitment and their intention to continue, the following hypothesis is proposed for the present study:

H8: Volunteers' affective commitment is positively related to their intention to continue.

Moreover, some researchers have tried to examine the relationship between WOM and intention to revisit (Liu & Lee, 2016; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008; Prayogo & Kusumawardhani, 2017). For example, Prayogo and Kusumawardhani (2017) investigated the relationship between destination image, service quality, electronic WOM (e-WOM), and revisit intentions in the tourism industry. The results showed that e-WOM positive affects the revisit intention of tourists (Prayogo & Kusumawardhani, 2017), which is consistent with Litvin et al.' (2008) together with Liu and Lee's (2016) findings. This may be because by sharing good stories about their experiences at the destination and other positive features of the place with others, tourists will reflect on their good memories about that destination which make them want to revisit the place. Another possible reason might be that tourists usually use the internet to search for information about the destinations they have visited before, and the stories shared by others who have also visited that place will evoke tourists' memories about the destination and help form the intention to visit the destination again (Litvin et al., 2008). By the same token,

volunteers' WOM may also positively affect their intention to continue. When volunteers spread positive words about the event they volunteered at and recommend that others participate in event volunteering, they themselves will remember the joyful episodes they experienced before, which, in turn, make them want to be part of the event again and to volunteer for future events as well. Hence, another hypothesis about the relationship between volunteers' intention to spread WOM and intention to remain will be tested in the study.

H9: Volunteers' intention to WOM is positively related to their intention to continue.

Figure 2-3 presents the relationships proposed between volunteer perceptions and behavioral intentions.

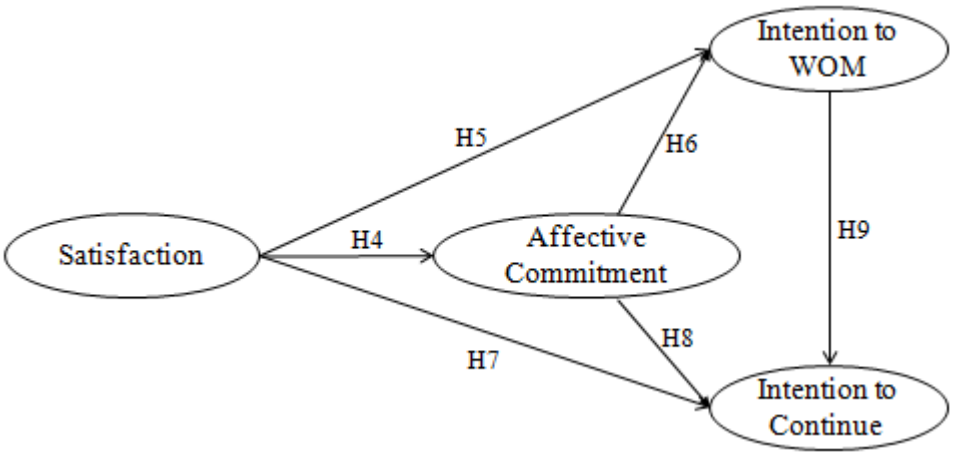

Figure 2-3. The Relationships between Volunteer Perceptions and Behavioral Intentions

Conceptual Framework

Figure 2-4 illustrates the conceptual framework of the present study. The framework consists of ten constructs: four types of motivations (altruism, self-development, career, and ego), two types of interpersonal exchange (organization-member exchange and coworker exchange), two

types of volunteer perceptions (volunteer satisfaction and affective commitment), and two types of volunteer behavioral intentions (intention to WOM and intention to continue). The hypotheses will be tested about motivations and interpersonal exchange (H1 – H2), about interpersonal exchange and volunteer satisfaction (H3), and about volunteer satisfaction and affective commitment (H4). Other exploratory relationships examined will include volunteer satisfaction and intention to spread word-of-mouth (H5), volunteer affective commitment and intention to spread word-of-mouth (H6), volunteer satisfaction and intention to continue (H7), volunteer affective commitment and intention to continue (H8), as well as volunteers' intention to spread word-of-mouth and intention to continue (H9).

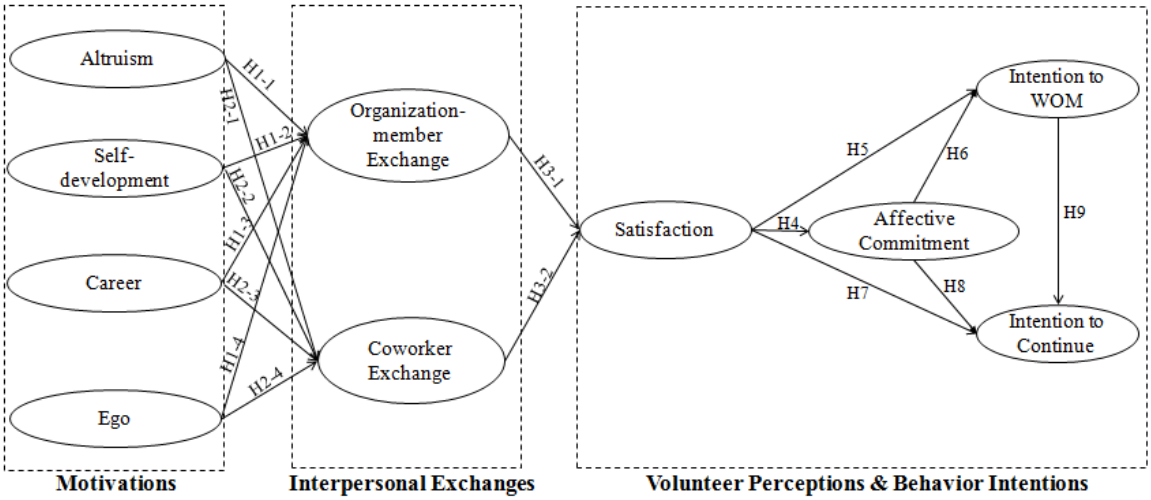

Figure 2-4. Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This chapter introduces the instrumentation, pilot test, sampling plan, data collection, and data analysis of the present study. This is a survey study focusing on volunteers at events. The main purpose of this study is to explore the relationships between volunteer motivations, interpersonal exchange, perceptions and behavioral intentions with regard to events. In order to address this research purpose, this study adopted a descriptive and causal research design. The instrument was created by adopting and modifying measurements from previous studies. A web-based survey was used to collect data from people who have served as volunteers at events in the United States in the past six months at the time of the survey. Statistical analyses were performed to examine the relationships between constructs.

Instrumentation

A self-reported questionnaire was used as the data-gathering instrument in this study. The measurements of the constructs were adapted from previous studies. The questionnaire consisted of six sections. The first section collected general information about the event which participants recalled to answer the survey. The second section asked about volunteers' motivations to participate in volunteer activities at events. The third section explored volunteers' perceptions about the interpersonal exchanges they experienced during volunteer service. The fourth section investigated volunteers' perception about the prestige of the event they volunteered for. The fifth

section examined volunteers' perceptions of the event, including their satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread word-of-mouth, and intention to volunteer for future events, and the last section asked for socio-demographic information about the participants.

Table 3-1.

Volunteer Motivation Items of this Study

Items	Adapted from
Altruism	
I feel compassion toward people in need.	
I feel it is important to help others.	
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	
Self-development	
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands-on experience.	
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	
I can explore my own strengths.	
Career	Clary et al., 1998
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	
Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	
I can make new contact that might help my business or career.	
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	
Ego	
Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	
Volunteering makes me feel needed.	
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	

Event Volunteer Motivation

The measurements of event volunteers' motivations were adapted from a scale developed by Clary et al. (1998) about general volunteers. The original scale measures volunteer motivations from six aspects including protective, altruism, self-development, career, social, and ego. For the current study, only 12 items related to self-determined motivations including altruism, self-development, career, and ego were adopted to fit the study content. The items were set in a random order, and a 7-point scale was utilized, ranging from 1 (not at all important or accurate) to 7 (extremely important or accurate). Some of the motivation items were slightly modified to fit

the context of the current study. Sample questions included "I feel it is important to help others," "Volunteering makes me feel needed," and "I can learn how to deal with a variety of people." The items are presented in Table 3-1.

Organization-member Exchange

To measure OMEX, the present study adapted a scale developed by Farmer and Fedor (1999). Farmer and Fedor (1999) created this scale for a volunteer study based on the survey of Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990). This scale was also used by Andrew et al. (2011) in their study about sport event volunteers and a Cronbach Alpha of .86 was reported which showed good reliability. The items were assessed by using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).Sample questions included "The event values my contribution to its well-being," "The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible," and "The event cares about my opinions."

Coworker Exchange

COEX was assessed by using four items adapted from the work of Ladd and Henry (2000). The four items were examined by using a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items were "My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work," "My coworkers will help me when I have a problem," and "My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better."

Table 3-2 is a summary of items used to measure interpersonal exchange in the present study.

Table 3-2.

Volunteer Interpersonal Exchange Items of this Study

Items	Adapted from
Organization-member Exchange	
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	Farmer & Fedor, 1999
The organization really cares about my well-being.	
The organization cares about my opinions.	
The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	
Coworker Exchange	
My coworkers will help me when I have a problem.	Ladd & Henry, 2000
My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better.	
My coworkers care about my opinions.	
My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work.	

Volunteer Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction with volunteer experiences was investigated by four items created by Farrell et al. (1998). Participants were asked "Are you satisfied with the a) volunteer experience in general? b) recognition you received? c) support you received to do your job? and d) organization of the event?" Those items were measured by using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Volunteer Affective Commitment

Four items of volunteer affective commitment adapted from Costa and colleagues (2006) were used to measure the emotional attachment of the volunteers. Costa et al. (2006) adopted this scale based on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCB) established by Mowday et al. (1979). The OCB originally includes nine items, but abbreviated versions with four or six items have been widely used in other event volunteer research (Costa et al., 2006; Green & Chalip, 2004) and have shown reasonable internal consistency above .70. These items were assessed by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Sample items included "I really care about the fate of this event," "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this event be successful," and "I am proud to tell others that I am part of this event."

Intention to Spread Word-of-Mouth

Volunteers' intention to spread word-of-mouth was assessed by using three items adapted from the work of Tigu, Razvar, and Iorgulescu (2013). The original scale was developed for a hotel setting, so adjustment was made to adapt to the context of the present study. Participants were asked to answer to what extent they agreed with the following items: "I will share my good volunteer experience with others," "I will speak highly of my volunteer experience," and "I am happy to advocate on behalf of event volunteering." The items were measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Intention to Continue

The items used to assess the intention to continue were based on a volunteer study of Clary et al. (1998) and reworded to fit the context of the present study. Volunteers' intentions to continue was assessed by three items: (1) "I will volunteer for the same event next year/time," (2) "I will volunteer for different events in the future," and (3) "I will volunteer for more events in the future." The volunteers were asked to designate the probability on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Table 3-3 is a summary of the items used to measure volunteer perceptions and behavioral intentions in the present study.

Table 3-3.

Volunteer Perceptions and Behavioral Intentions Items of this Study

Items	Adapted from
Satisfaction	
I am satisfied with the volunteering experience in general.	Farrell et al., 1998
I am satisfied with the support I received to do my job.	
I am satisfied with the recognition I received.	
I am satisfied with the organization of this event.	
Affective Commitment	
I really care about the fate of this event.	Costa et al., 2006
I felt like an important member of the event team.	
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this event be successful.	
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this event.	
Intention to Spread Word-of-Mouth	
I will share my good volunteer experience with others.	Tigu et al., 2013
I will speak highly of my volunteer experience.	
I am happy to advocate on behalf of event volunteering.	
Intention to Continue	
I will volunteer for the same event next year/time.	Clary et al., 1998
I will volunteer for different events in the future.	
I will volunteer for more events in the future.	

Respondents' Demographic Profiles

In the current study, nine demographic questions were used to seek information, including gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, employment status, annual household income level, educational attainment, and previous volunteering experience. It has been reported that volunteering behaviors are impacted by these demographic variables (Stukas et al., 1999; United States Department of Labor, 2016; Wilson & Musick, 1999). Research has shown that individuals with higher social resources and human capital in terms of education, occupation, income, information, and social connections showed higher willingness to participate in volunteer service (Wilson & Musick, 1999). In addition, a study from the United States Department of Labor (2016) showed that people who were female, white, college educated or higher, married, aged between 35 to 54, and full-time employed were more likely to serve as volunteers. Moreover, it was found

that the more volunteering experience people have, the more often they tended to participate in volunteer activities and the higher intention they showed to engage in future volunteering (Stukas et al., 1999).

For the present study, gender, age, ethnicity, employment status, and educational attainment were measured by nominal scales, according to the 2015 Current Population Survey (United States Department of Labor, 2016). Marital status was simply measured by two nominal categories: single and married. Annual household income level was accessed by seven nominal scales, including $14,999 or less, $ 15,000 - $ 29,999, $30,000 - $44,999, $45,000 - $59,999, $60,000 - $74,999, $75,000 - $99,999, and $100,000 or more. Previous volunteering experience was measured by the number of hours the individual spent in volunteering and the number of events the individual volunteered for in last 12 months. The number of hours spent was scaled to five nominal levels including none, 19 hours or less, 20-71 hours, 72-187 hours, and 188 hours or more, by referencing a study conducted by the United Nations Volunteers programme (UNV, 2002). The number of events volunteered for was nominally scaled to six levels of 1 event, 2 events, 3-4 events, 5-6 events, 7-11 events, and more than 11 events.

Pilot Study

A pilot study before implementing the actual survey is suggested by researchers when the measurement items of the constructs are adopted from various sources and applied to different contexts (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). According to the results of the pilot study, researchers can examine the validity and reliability of the measurement items and remove or refine some of the items that are not appropriate for the particular study (Hair et al., 2006).

The draft questionnaire was carefully reviewed by four faculty members at the university and was revised based on the suggestions from them. Minor revisions were made in terms of

instructions for respondents, selection of measurement items, appropriateness of scales, wording, and tenses to make it more clear and understandable.

A pilot study was conducted with a self-selected convenience sample of 40 event volunteers recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). The questionnaire was examined regarding length of time, appropriateness of wording and scales, and format and display of the survey to ensure the readability of the survey questions and feasibility of the actual survey.

Table 3-4.

Reliability of Variables

Variable	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Altruism	4	.924
Self-development	4	.875
Career	4	.866
Ego	4	.896
Organization-member exchange	4	.772
Coworker exchange	4	.918
Satisfaction	4	.885
Affective commitment	4	.833
Intention to spread word-of-mouth	3	.850
Intention to continue	3	.712

The internal consistency of the measurement items was examined according to Cronbach's alpha values (Hair et al., 2006; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978). As the most commonly used index to evaluate reliability regarding internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha assesses consistency among measurement items in a summated number (Hair et al., 2006). All items under the same construct are expected to be highly correlated to ensure good reliability (Hair et al., 2006). As a rule of thumb, Cronbach's alpha of .7 or higher provides good evidence of reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978; Pallant, 2010). As shown in Table 3-4, the values of Cronbach's alpha ranged between .712 and .924. Thus, it supported good reliability among measurement items.

Sampling Plan

The target population of this study was the people who had served as volunteers at events in the United States in the past six months at the time of the survey. This study used a self-selected convenience sampling approach to collect data and participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is an internet marketplace that allows businesses or individuals (known as requesters) to coordinate the use of human intelligence to perform various types of tasks ("Amazon Mechanical Turk FAQ", n.d.). Individuals (known as "workers") can browse and participate in existing jobs in exchange for monetary payments set by requesters, and requesters can compensate workers if they accept their jobs. It is a popular platform for researchers and practitioners to collect data because of the low cost, high convenience, time efficiency, and demographic diversity of the workers associated with MTurk (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013). The self-selected convenience sampling approach is reasonable in the present study because its purpose is testing a theory rather than generalizing the findings (Hoffman & Novak, 2009).

When using structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the data, an appropriate and sufficient sample size is required in order to generate reliable and stable statistical results (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). However, there is no universal agreement or guidelines to estimate an appropriate sample size when using SEM. Researchers propose different criteria to estimate the sample size required for a certain model in SEM. For example, Hair and colleagues (2006) suggested considering five factors in estimating a sample size: "(a) multivariate distribution of the data, (b) estimation technique, (c) model complexity, (d) amount of missing data, and (e) amount of average variance among the reflective indicators" (p.740, as cited in Im, 2016). As a minimum condition, the sample size should be at least larger than the number of correlations or covariances in the data matrix (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 1998). A more common and typical rule is to have at least five responses for each parameter, with 10

responses per parameter to be considered more reasonable (Hair et al., 1998). In case the data might violate the assumption of multivariate normality, it is recommended to have at least 15 responses for each estimated parameter in a research model (Hair et al., 2006). Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) is the most commonly used estimation procedure in SEM. It is generally suggested to have a 150 to 500 sample size to ensure appropriate use of the MLE technique (Hair et al., 2006).

Moreover, the required sample size increases as the model complexity increases when a model includes more constructs or constructs including less than three indicators (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, the expected sample size needs to be increased when the data is expected to have a large number of missing values, in order to remedy the problems associated with missing values (Hair et al., 2006). In the end, it is reported that communality, which refers to the average variance among indicators, is also related to the sample size required (Hair et al., 2006). The sample size should be increased when the communalities of indicators are not very optimistic, in order to ensure the stability of the model (Hair et al., 2006).

In addition to the principles suggested above, it is fairly common to estimate sample size based on the number of free parameters in a proposed research model (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). Bentler and Chou (1987) suggested having five respondents for each free parameter when each latent variable has several indicators with high factor loadings. In the present study, there are a total of 10 constructs and each construct has at least three indicators in the proposed research model. Based on the numbers of variances, covariance among variables, factor loadings, and path coefficients, the estimated number of free parameters in this study is calculated as 104 (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the effective minimum sample size in this study is expected to be 520 (104 free parameters $\times$ 5 responses) to ensure necessary statistical power for subsequent data analyses, as suggested by Bentler and Chou (1987).

Data Collection

This study adopted a self-report online survey to collect data through MTurk. Online survey is a popular data collection solution since it allows researchers to collect data at a lower cost with a diverse population in a short period of time (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1992). In particular, an online survey is time and effort efficient since it can reach people over a large geographic distance at the same time (Davis et al., 1992; Garton, Haythornthwaite, & Wellman, 1999; Yun & Trumbo, 2000). Researchers do not have face-to-face communication with participants and they can work on other projects while waiting (Llieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002). It also helps save time and effort by providing automatic and accurate data entry. In addition, an online survey saves on costs by using an electronic medium instead of a paper format, and thus reduces the costs associated with printing, mailing, travel, and data entry (Llieva et al., 2002; Witmer, Colman, & Katzman, 1999). Moreover, an online survey has access to various groups or individuals which are hard to reach through other channels. In addition to the advantages for researchers, an online survey also offers great convenience to participants, since they can participate wherever they are and whenever they are available (Davis et al., 1992).

In spite of the various advantages an online survey could offer, there are some potential weaknesses associated with it. For example, respondents may not get any help if they encounter a question when filling out the survey and the sample drawn online may be questionable (Andrews, Nonnecke & Preece, 2003; Davis et al., 1992). In order to mitigate these problems, it is suggested to provide clear instructions in order to reduce confusion in the survey and to design appropriate screening questions (Davis et al., 1992). In addition, conducting a pilot study helps to detect possible problems with the instrument and providing monetary incentives can encourage potential respondents to participate in the survey (Schneider & Bowen, 1985)

The online questionnaire was created via Qualtrics.com. Once it was completed, a valid survey link was generated by the website. Participants were recruited on MTurk (www.mturk.com) by posting a recruitment request (known as a "HIT"), which included a brief description of the purpose of the study, targeted respondents, expected length of the survey, voluntary nature of participation, and incentive of satisfactory participation, with the link to the survey. When the potential participants clicked on the survey link, it directed them to the consent form, which explained the purpose of the study, and gave information about the questionnaire, estimated length of completion, potential benefits and risks, anonymity of participation, and future use of the results in detail in order to make sure that participants understood the study. Only the respondents who replied, "Yes, I consent to participate in this survey" were led to the actual survey, with the indication that they were 18 years old or older. For those who responded "No, I am not willing to participate in this survey", the survey was automatically ended with a thank you message.

In order to encourage a good quality of participation by respondents, a monetary incentive of $.50 was rewarded to participants who met the qualifications and successfully completed the survey. Participants were asked to type in the 8-letter survey code generated at the end of the survey by Qualtrics.com to the MTurk screen in order to get the compensation. Only the participants who fulfilled the screening question and completed the full survey were rewarded. The responses could only be identified by the survey code so confidentiality was guaranteed.

The survey was open for three days on MTurk. A total of 870 potential participants initially opened the survey link and 775 responses were recorded. Among the 775 responses recorded, 19 unusable responses were eliminated. In particular, seven responses were deleted because the participants withdrew their consent and exited the survey at an early stage, and another 12 participants failed to fulfill the screening question. As a result, 756 responses were retained for further data screening.

Data Analysis

The data was screened before applying the final statistical analysis. First, missing values and outliers were identified and possible remedies were employed. Second, multicollinearity, univariate normality, and multivariate normality were examined and no big problems were diagnosed. After the data screening process, multiple statistical analyses including descriptive statistics, Harman's single-factor test, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modeling were conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 23.0 and Mplus 7.2.

Data Screening

The retained data was first examined in terms of missing values and outliers (Hair et al., 2006). The missing values were detected regarding the type, the extent, and the randomness as suggested by Hair et al. (2006). The missing values were found to be centered on a small number of cases and were presented in a randomized pattern. Hair et al. (2006) advised to delete the cases with an excessive level of missing values. Therefore, among the 756 responses retained, another seven cases were removed because they contained a large number of missing values. The retained 749 responses did not show any missing values in construct-related items but a few missed some questions about demographic information, which were not the primary focus of the present study, thus no remedies for missing data were applied for the retained cases.

Outliers were diagnosed by using a box plot and Mahalanobis distance (D^2) measure (Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2011). To be specific, D refers to "the distance in standard deviation units between a set of scores (vector) for an individual case and the sample means for all variables, correcting for inter-correlations" (Kline, 2011, p. 54). It measures the position of each case with the center of all cases in a set of variables (Hair et al., 2006). A statistically significant value of D^2 means that a case does not belong to the same population as other cases (Kline, 2011). Therefore, a case with a statistically significant value of D^2 ($p<.001$) was considered as an outlier

and was suggested to be deleted by Kline (2011). As a result, a total of 13 extreme outliers were eliminated from the data by examining the box plot and D^2 statistics.

Next, the data was tested for the assumptions for using SEM before data analysis including multicollinearity and normality (Hair et al., 2006). Normality refers to the normal distribution of the data and is often examined by univariate normality and multivariate normality. To be specific, univariate normality was assessed by skewness and kurtosis values (Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2011). It is advised that absolute value of skewness less than 3.0 and kurtosis below 10.0 are a rule of thumb for normality check (Kline, 2011). The absolute values of skewness in this study ranged between 0.349 and 1.155, and those of kurtosis ranged between .077 and 1.716, indicating that the data was neither extremely skewed nor extreme in kurtosis. Multivariate normality was checked by using Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plot ("Testing Multivariate Normality in SPSS", n.d., para. 2) and there was no concern with the multivariate normal distribution. Thus, the assumption of normality was satisfactory in this study.

Multicollinearity refers to a phenomenon when two or more variables are highly linearly correlated in a regression model (Kline, 2011). In this study, multicollinearity was detected by checking tolerance value and the variance inflation factor (VIF). Kline (2011) recommended that a tolerance value above .10 and a value of VIF less than 10 are considered to be a safe range, which means that the variables are not highly linearly related. All of the tolerance and VIF values fell within the safe range, which indicated that there is less likely to be a serious redundancy among variables. In other words, the assumption of multicollinearity was also satisfactory. In the end, a total of 736 responses were used for final data analysis. The number of responses met the expected effective minimum sample size (i.e., 520 responses) in the study.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 23.0 and Mplus 7.3 were used to conduct multiple statistical analyses, including a descriptive analysis, Harman's single-factor test, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modeling (SEM). The descriptive statistics were calculated to identify respondents' demographic profiles. A Harman's single-factor test was used to detect the possible common method bias the data might have (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). A two-step approach of SEM was then applied, including CFA and SEM. CFA was performed to assess the measurement model fit, reliability, and construct validity, and SEM was conducted to test the structural model fit and each proposed path, including its direction, size, and significance (Hair et al., 2006).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) can be used to examine the goodness-of-fit (GOF) of factor structures of all the constructs. GOF indices can be grouped into three categories, including (a) absolute measures, (b) incremental measures, and (c) parsimony fit measures. Since each GOF index measures the model fit from different perspectives, it is recommended to use multiple indices from different categories of GOF and adjust cutoff values based on characteristics of the model such as model complexity and sample size (Hair et al., 2006). This study adopted the Chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), and normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) from all three categories to ensure acceptable fit of the measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). The suggested cut-off values for each index from different categories are shown in Table 3-5.

Table 3-5.

Goodness-of-fit (GOF) Indices and Suggested Cut-off Values

Category	**Fit measures**	**Suggested cut-off values**
Absolute fit measures	χ^2 statistics	p>.05 (insignificant)
	Root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA)	< .08
	Standardized root mean square (SRMR)	< .05
Incremental fit measures	Comparative fit index (CFI)	>=.90
	Tucker Lewis index (TLI)	>=.90
Parsimonious fit measures	Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	Value between 1 to 5

Source: Hair et al., 2006

After examining the model fit of the measurement model, reliability and construct validity should be assessed. Reliability is concerned with the consistency or dependability of the method or instrument used (Neuman, 2009), while construct validity refers to "the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 776). Convergent and discriminant validity are the two subtypes of validity that make up construct validity. Convergent validity tests "the degree to which two measures of constructs that theoretically should be related to each other are, in fact, observed to be related to each other" (Web Center for Social Research Methods, n.d., para. 3). Discriminant validity, whereas, deals with whether "measures of constructs that theoretically should not be related to each other are, in fact, observed to not be related to each other" (Web Center for Social Research Methods, n.d., para. 4). High intercorrelations between indicators under the same construct indicate good convergent validity, while low intercorrelations between items of different constructs show evidence of good discriminant validity (Neuman, 2011). In all kinds of research, the goal is to have both a reliable and valid scale, measurement or instrument (Neuman, 2011).

In order to investigate the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability were examined. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for each construct, which was measured by several items, to access the internal consistency (Pallant, 2010) and quality of the scale (Churchill, 1979). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient values of the variables above .70 indicated good internal consistency for the scale, and so they were retained (Pallant, 2010). Composite reliability (CR) is another useful measure of convergent validity. The composite reliability of each construct was calculated based on the squared sum of factor loadings and the sum of the error variance terms for the construct. A value of .7 or higher can be considered as good reliability and indicates that all items consistently represent the same latent construct (Hair et al., 2006).

Convergent validity was assessed by standardized factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). Standardized factor loadings show how much variance in each item can be explained by the latent factor. It is anticipated that the factor should explain more than half (.5) of the variances in the item (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, it is recommended that all standardized factor loadings should be larger than .5 and ideally larger than .7 (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hair et al., 2006). As to AVE of each construct, it is calculated by dividing the sum of all squared standardized factor loadings under each construct by the number of the items (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hair et al., 2006). Thus, all AVE values are expected to be larger than .5.

Discriminant validity deals with whether a construct is different to other constructs by reflecting a theoretically different concept (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hair et al., 2006). It can be tested by comparing the square root of the AVE with inter-factor correlations associated with that construct. When the square root of the AVE is larger than any inter-factor correlations associated with that construct, it supports good discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006).

CFA is the appropriate approach to use in order to explore factor structures in the present study. First, CFA is a theory-driven technique; it allows the researcher to apply existing knowledge to further explore and confirm the factor structures of the constructs related to event volunteers. Second, CFA can prevent indicators from loading on factors that are conceptually conflicting which might happen when using the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) approach (Farrell et al., 1998; Strigas & Jackson, 2003, as cited in Chen, 2010). Third, CFA can assess the significance of the factor covariance which shows the correlations between constructs. Lastly, CFA allows making minor modifications in the model based on the results and improving the model fit potentially (Chen, 2010).

Harman's Single-factor Test

Common method variance may be a concern when using a single method to collect data from a single data source in behavioral studies (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Common method variance is described as "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs that measures represent" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879). Since this study used a self-report survey to collect data from a single data source, common method variance may bias the answers to some extent. In order to detect any possible common method variance in this study, a Harman' single-factor analysis was conducted by using EFA with an unrotated factor solution to check whether variance in the data can be largely attributed to a single factor (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). If the majority of the covariance among measurement variables can be explained by one general factor or only one factor is generated from the EFA, it indicates that a serious common method bias exists (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Structural Equation Modeling

The structural model can be evaluated after validating the measurement model. In order to test the structural model and investigate the relationships among constructs, Structural Equation

Modeling (SEM) was performed. The same goodness-of-fit indices (e.g., χ^2 statistics, χ^2/df, CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR) used in testing the measurement model fit were employed to assess the overall structural model fit (Hair et al., 2006). At this stage, competing models should be proposed with the support of underlying theories. The competing model should be compared to the originally proposed research model by checking the same fit indices to see which one performs better. As a result, the model showing better fit should be retained. Each proposed path was then examined in terms of direction, size, and statistical significance by using standardized estimates (Hair et al., 2006).

By using SEM, the present study could examine the full proposed research model of event volunteering simultaneously by combining the measurement models of the constructs and the structural model between the measurement models, and investigating the relationships between volunteer motivations, interpersonal exchange, and volunteer perceptions, and assess how volunteers' satisfaction and affective commitment impact their intention to recommend event volunteering and participate in future events as volunteers.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter introduces the results of statistical analysis in the present study, including the respondents' demographic profiles, the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model, the test of competing model, and the results of hypotheses testing.

Respondents' Demographic Profiles

The respondents' demographic profiles, as presented in Table 4-1, were obtained by calculating descriptive statistics. Of 736 respondents, 58.4% of the respondents are female and 41.6% are male. Almost half of the respondents (46.6%) are aged between 25 to 34 years and 22.7% of the respondents are aged between 35 to 44 years. The majority of respondents are Caucasian (73.6%). African American (8.7%), Asian (7.8%) and Hispanic (7.5%) followed Caucasian, with slight differences among those ethnicity groups. More than half of the respondents are single (57.6%) and 42.4% are married. More than 91% (91.6%) of respondents have at least some college degree: some college degree or associate degree (33.6%), bachelor's degree (39.9%), and graduate degree (18.1%). About two-thirds of the respondents work full time (65.5%), followed by part-time (14.8%), self-employed (9.6%), and no employed (4.3%). The respondents are almost evenly distributed on annual household income. Almost half of the respondents (45.9%) worked fewer than 19 hours in volunteering in the last 12 months and 40.1% of the respondents worked between 20 hours and 71 hours in volunteering. A total of 90.8% of

Table 4-1.

Respondents' Profiles (N=736)

Category		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	306	41.6
	Female	430	58.4
Age	18 – 24	129	17.5
	25 – 34	343	46.6
	35 – 44	167	22.7
	45 – 54	58	7.9
	55 – 64	33	4.5
	65 and above	6	.8
Ethnicity	Caucasian	541	73.6
	African American	64	8.7
	Asian	58	7.8
	Hispanic	55	7.5
	Native American	9	1.2
	Other	9	1.2
Marital Status	Married	312	42.4
	Single	424	57.6
Education	Less than high school	6	.8
	High school diploma	56	7.6
	Some college/Associate degree	247	33.6
	Bachelor's degree	294	39.8
	Graduate degree	133	18.1
Employment	Full-time employed	482	65.5
	Part-time employed	109	14.8
	Self-employed	71	9.6
	Unemployed	32	4.3
	Not in the labor force	42	5.7
Income	$14,999 or less	65	8.8
	$15,000 - $29,999	108	14.7
	$30,000 - $44,999	134	18.2
	$45,000 - $59,999	121	16.4
	$60,000 - $74,999	91	12.4
	$75,000 - $99,999	102	13.9
	$100,000 or more	115	15.6
Hours Volunteered	19 hours or less	337	45.9
	20 – 71 hours	295	40.1
	72 – 187 hours	69	9.4
	188 hours or more	34	4.6
Events Volunteered	1 event	74	10.1
	2 events	164	22.3
	3 – 4 events	321	43.6
	5 – 6 events	109	14.8
	7 – 11 events	32	4.3
	More than 11 events	36	4.9

the respondents had volunteered at one to six events in the past 12 months.

In summary, the majority of the respondents were female, Caucasian, aged between 25 to 34 years old, single, highly educated, and full-time employed. The majority of event volunteers spent 1 to 71 hours in volunteering annually and volunteered for multiple events.

Measurement Model

This study conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine whether the measurement model was valid or not (Hair et al., 2006). The purpose of measurement theory is to evaluate how observed variables represent and explain a latent construct that cannot be observed and measured directly (Hair et al., 2006). The measurement model is assessed regarding goodness-of-fit for the model, reliability, and construct validity. The overall model fit of the measurement model appeared to be acceptable (χ^2=2260.274, df =620, p<.001, χ^2/df=3.646, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)=.060, Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)=.043, comparative fit index (CFI)=.924, Tucker Lewis index (TLI)=.914). Table 4-2 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations among each construct.

After testing the model fit, reliability and construct validity were calculated. Cronbach's alpha coefficient values and composite reliability of each construct were obtained to indicate the reliability of the scale. It is suggested that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values above .70 indicate good internal consistency (Pallant, 2010). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged between .785 and .899 as shown in Table 4-3. Composite reliability (CR) was used as another useful measure of reliability. The CR of each construct was calculated as the result of the sum of squared factor loadings divided by the total of the sum of squared factor loadings together with the sum of the error variance for that construct (Hair et al., 2006). The rule of thumb is a value of 0.5 or higher to ensure good composite reliability. All values of CR in this study ranged between .764 and .886. Thus, good reliability of the scale was demonstrated.

Table 4-2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Latent Constructs

	Mean	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
1.AL	5.84	1.00	1.00									
2.SD	5.87	.95	.818	1.00								
3.CA	4.96	1.39	.245	.390	1.00							
4.EG	5.51	1.19	.571	.626	.447	1.00						
5.OMEX	5.45	1.06	.710	.704	.350	.576	1.00					
6.COEX	5.57	1.06	.631	.676	.299	.584	.776	1.00				
7.SAS	5.77	.95	.745	.746	.257	.559	.779	.748	1.00			
8.AC	5.75	1.02	.737	.751	.253	.632	.767	.738	.789	1.00		
9.WOM	5.85	.99	.687	.702	.298	.594	.778	.710	.767	.803	1.00	
10.CON	5.77	1.01	.709	.736	.256	.570	.630	.612	.769	.757	.748	1.00

Notes. AL = altruism; SD = self-development; CA = career; EG = ego; OMEX = organization-member exchange; COEX = coworker exchange; SAS = satisfaction; AC = affective commitment; WOM=intention to spread WOM; CON = intention to continue. All values are significant at $p<.001$.

Construct validity was accessed in terms of convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was examined by using the standardized factor loadings of each indicator and the average variance extracted (AVE) from each construct (Table 4-3). It is expected that all standardized factor loadings should be larger than 0.5 or ideally larger than 0.7, and be statistically significant (Hair et al., 2006). The standardized loading estimates in this study ranged between .647 and .883, and were all statistically significant at $p<.001$. As a result, the squared multiple correlation coefficients (SMC) for all constructs ranged between 0.419 and 0.780, indicating that at least 41.9% of the variance in each indicator can be explained by the construct (Hair et al., 2006). AVE was calculated as the result of the sum of the squared standardized factor loadings of all items divided by the number of items under each construct. If the value of AVE is less than 0.5, it means that the variance explained by the construct is less than the errors in the items (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, an AVE value of 0.5 or higher is an indicator of good convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). All the AVE values were greater than 0.5, which ensured

good convergent validity in the model. Considering that all standardized factor loadings and AVE values fell within suggested range, convergent validity was satisfactory in this study.

Table 4-3.

The Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Measurement Model

	Std. Loadings	**SMC**	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**AVE**	**CR**
Altruism (AL)			.890	.671	.858
AL1	.792	.627			
AL2	.851	.724			
AL3	.780	.608			
AL4	.852	.726			
Self-development (SD)			.874	.634	.825
SD1	.790	.624			
SD2	.822	.676			
SD3	.802	.643			
SD4	.771	.594			
Career (CA)			.895	.683	.867
CA1	.749	.561			
CA2	.857	.734			
CA3	.845	.714			
CA4	.851	.724			
Ego (EG)			.893	.685	.864
EG1	.816	.666			
EG2	.864	.746			
EG3	.883	.780			
EG4	.739	.546			
Organization-member Exchange (OMEX)			.860	.611	.796
OMEX1	.796	.634			
OMEX2	.806	.650			
OMEX3	.817	.667			
OMEX4	.702	.493			
Coworker Exchange (COEX)			.899	.697	.881
COEX1	.864	.746			
COEX2	.868	.753			
COEX3	.819	.671			
COEX4	.787	.619			
Satisfaction (SAS)			.869	.628	.815
SAS1	.806	.650			
SAS2	.838	.702			
SAS3	.788	.621			
SAS4	.732	.539			

	Std. Loadings	SMC	Cronbach's Alpha	AVE	CR
Affective Commitment (AC)			.881	.648	.839
AC1	.783	.613			
AC2	.811	.658			
AC3	.805	.648			
AC4	.820	.672			
Intention to Spread WOM (WOM)			.874	.702	.886
WOM1	.861	.741			
WOM2	.849	.721			
WOM3	.802	.643			
Intention to Continue (CON)			.785	.593	.764
CON1	.647	.419			
CON2	.797	.635			
CON3	.851	.724			

Discriminant validity was accessed by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) to the inter-factor correlations of any pair of constructs (Hair et al., 2006). The square root of the AVE for each construct is expected to be larger than any inter-factor correlations associated with the construct (Hair et al., 2006). In other words, it is expected that a latent construct can explain its indicators better than it explains other constructs (Hair et al., 2006). As demonstrated in Table 4-4, all the values of the square root of AVE were greater than any inter-factor correlations associated with that construct and it provided evidence of good discriminant validity.

Table 4-4.

Discriminant Validity among Constructs

	AVE	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
AL	.671	**.819**									
SD	.634	.818	**.796**								
CA	.683	.245	.390	**.826**							
EG	.685	.571	.626	.447	**.827**						
OMEX	.611	.710	.704	.350	.576	**.781**					
COEX	.697	.631	.676	.299	.584	.776	**.835**				
SAS	.628	.745	.746	.257	.559	.779	.748	**.792**			
AC	.648	.737	.751	.253	.632	.767	.738	.789	**.805**		
WOM	.702	.687	.702	.298	.594	.778	.710	.767	.803	**.838**	
CON	.593	.709	.736	.256	.570	.630	.612	.769	.757	.748	**.770**

Notes. AL = altruism; SD = self-development; CA = career; EG = ego; OMEX = organization-member exchange; COEX = coworker exchange; SAS = satisfaction; AC = affective commitment; WOM=intention to spread WOM; CON = intention to continue. **Bold** = square root of the AVE.

After assessing the goodness-of-fit, reliability and construct validity using CFA, a Harman's single-factor test was performed to evaluate whether a serious common method bias existed in the data. Using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with an unrotated factor solution, the Harman's single-factor test can check whether covariance among measurement items can be mainly explained by a single factor (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). As a result, the EFA generated a total of three factors, and 54% of the explained variance can be explained by one general factor. Thus, it was shown that there is less likely to be a serious concern about common method variance in this study.

Based on the analyses above, the measurement model showed acceptable model fit, and presented good reliability and construct validity. In addition, the data demonstrated less concern of common method bias. Therefore, it was ready for assessing the structural model.

Structural Model

The proposed research model was assessed by using a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach in terms of overall model fit and path estimates including their direction, and size, as well as statistical significance (Hair et al., 2006). The overall model fit of the proposed research model was acceptable (χ^2=2557.542, df=643, p<.001, χ2/df=3.978, RMSEA=.064, CFI=.911, TLI=.903, SRMR=.056).

The structural path estimates are presented in Table 4-5. Event volunteers' motivations including altruism (β=.384, p<.001), self-development (β=.318, p<.001), and ego (β=.170, p<.001) positively influence their exchange with event organizers. It indicates that event volunteers with a high level of motivations with regard to altruism, self-development, and ego are more likely to experience high level of exchange with event organizers. In particular, altruism was shown to be the strongest predictor of event volunteers' organization-member exchange (OMEX). Event volunteers are most motivated to contribute to events and exchange with organizers because of altruistic and humanitarian concerns. Event volunteers who are highly self-development motivated and ego motivated are also likely to engage in the exchange with event organizers. Self-development revealed a stronger effect on OMEX than ego, demonstrating that perceptions of self-development are more important than egoistic concerns when considering the exchange with event organizers.

Altruism (β=.171, p<.05), self-development (β=.413, p<.001), and ego (β=.244, p<.001) also positively impact event volunteers' exchange with coworkers. This demonstrates that event volunteers who are motivated by altruism, self-development, and ego are willing to invest in event volunteering and exchange with coworkers. To be specific, self-development was the strongest predictor of event volunteers' exchange with coworkers (COEX). Event volunteers are most motivated to engage in the exchange with coworkers because they pursue personal growth

within themselves. Altruism and ego are another two predictors of volunteers' coworker exchange. Ego showed a stronger effect on COEX than altruism, indicating that event volunteers place more weight on egoistic demands than humanitarian concerns when considering the exchange with paid employees and other volunteers. Event volunteers who are highly ego motivated and altruism motivated are more likely to invest effort into the exchange with coworkers.

In addition, career was not significantly related to OMEX (β=.043, p>.05) and COEX (β=-.018, p>.05).This indicates that obtaining work-related benefits is not a key motivation for volunteers to work at events. As a result, hypotheses 1-1, 1-2, 1-4, 2-1, 2-2, and 2-4 failed to be rejected, while hypotheses 1-3 and 2-3 were rejected.

Table 4-5.

The Structural Path Estimates

Path to	**Path from**	**H0**	**Standardized estimates**
Organization-member exchange	Altruism	H1-1	.384***
	Self-development	H1-2	.318***
	Career	H1-3	.043
	Ego	H1-4	.170***
Coworker exchange	Altruism	H2-1	.171*
	Self-development	H2-2	.413***
	Career	H2-3	-.018
	Ego	H2-4	.244***
Satisfaction	Organization-member exchange	H3-1	.678***
	Coworker exchange	H3-2	.303***
Affective commitment	Satisfaction	H4	.948***
Intention to Spread WOM	Satisfaction	H5	.248
	Affective commitment	H6	.686***
Intention to Continue	Satisfaction	H7	-.015
	Affective commitment	H8	.563**
	Intention to WOM	H9	.295*

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

Event volunteers' satisfaction is predicted by both the organization-member exchange (β=.678, $p<.001$) and coworker exchange (β=.303, $p<.001$). This indicates that volunteers who perceive higher level organization-member exchange and coworker exchange are more likely to feel satisfied with their volunteer experience. Therefore, hypothesis 3-1 and 3-2 failed to be rejected.

Volunteers' satisfaction is positively related to their affective commitment (β=.948, $p<.001$). In other words, when volunteers feel they are satisfied with the volunteer experience, they tend to generate emotional attachment to the event for which they worked. However, satisfaction was shown to have a non-significant relationship with volunteer's intention to spread WOM (β=.248, $p>.05$) and intention to continue (β=-.015, $p>.05$). This indicates that whether volunteers would like to spread positive thoughts about event volunteering and continue volunteering behaviors could not be directly predicted by whether or not they are satisfied with the volunteer experience. Thus, hypothesis 4 failed to be rejected, while hypotheses 5 and 7 were rejected.

Volunteers' affective commitment towards events positively impacts their intention to spread word-of-mouth (β=.686, $p<.001$) and intention to continue (β=.563, $p<.01$), supporting hypotheses 6 and 8. That is to say, if volunteers feel attached to the event affectively, they are more willing to advocate for event volunteering to others and volunteer for future events. Affective commitment has a similar strength of effect on volunteers' intention to spread WOM and continue volunteer activities. In addition, intention to spread WOM is positively related to intention to continue (β=.295, $p<.05$), as hypothesized in hypothesis 9. Volunteers with a higher level of willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth are more likely to stay and engage in future

event volunteering. Therefore, all of 16 hypotheses, from H1 to H9, failed to be rejected except for H1-3, H2-3, H5, and H7. The results of the structural model are illustrated in Figure 4-1.

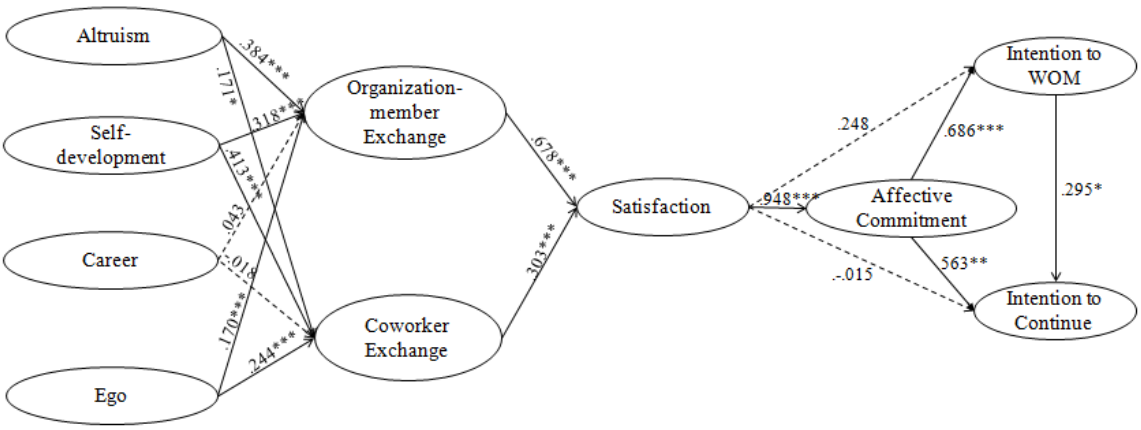

Figure 4-1. The Results of the Structural Model

Competing Model

Having an acceptable fit for both the measurement model and structural model does not mean the researcher found the "best" model. There are many competing models, also known as alternative models, which may present an equal or even better fit to the data. In order to evaluate if the proposed structural model performs better than the competing models, it is suggested to compare the original research model to the competing models by using a competing model strategy (Hair et al., 2006). One way to build a competing model is to identify different hypothetical structural relationships with the support of underlying theories (Hair et al., 2006). One competing model was suggested in this study, based on previous studies related to the effect of interpersonal exchange on volunteers' affective commitment. The chi-square (χ^2) difference test was then employed to see if there was a significant chi-square change between the original model and the competing model. The null hypothesis of the chi-square different test is that there is no significant chi-square (χ^2) change between two models (Hair et al., 2006). If there is no

significant difference in chi-square statistics, the original research model should be retained (Hair et al., 2006).

The proposed competing model included two more direct paths from OMEX to affective commitment and from COEX to affective commitment (Figure 4-2). The relationship between OMEX on affective commitment is based on the studies of exchange with organizations (Andrew et al., 2011; Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne et al., 1997). Employees who have positive exchanges with the organization they work for and perceive a higher level of support from it are more likely to exhibit higher organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 1997; Masterson et al., 2000). In the volunteer work setting, it is also shown that support from event organizers can influence volunteers' commitment (Andrew et al., 2011). The effect of COEX on affective commitment is supported by a study of Ma and Qu (2011) about the relationship between three types of social exchange and three types of organizational behavior. The results found that support from coworkers results in higher organizational commitment (Ma & Qu, 2011). Although there are as yet no studies examining the relationship between volunteers' exchange with coworkers and their affective commitment, it can be assumed that coworker exchange works with the same rationale for non-paid volunteers. If volunteers receive support and recognition from other employees and volunteers, they are more likely to develop positive attachment with the event and be willing to continue their volunteer service.

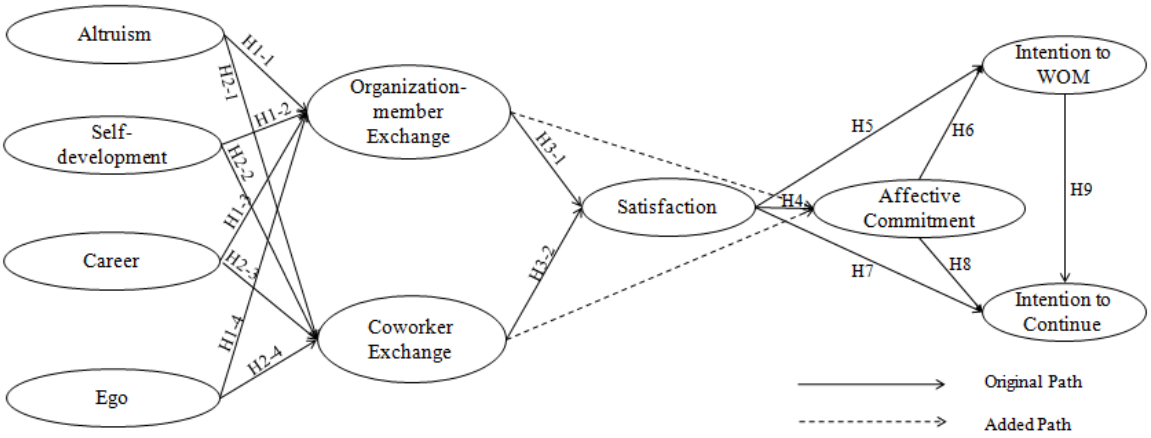

Figure 4-2. The Competing Model

As shown in Table 4-6, the overall model fit of the competing model is shown to be acceptable (χ^2=2549.745, df=641, p<.001, χ^2/df=3.977, RMSEA=.064, CFI=.911, TLI=.903, SRMR=.055). The chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) test was conducted to see whether a significant difference existed between the two models. The results found that there was no significant chi-square change between the originally proposed model and the competing model (Δdf=2, $\Delta\chi^2$=4.813, p>.05). In other words, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. As a result, the original model was retained as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 4-6.

Fit Statistics of Original Model and Competing Model

	Original model	**Competing model**
χ^2	2557.542	2549.745
Df	643	641
χ^2/df	3.978	3.977
$\Delta\chi^2$	-	4.81
Δdf	-	2
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	.064	.064
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.911	.911
Tucker Lewis index (TLI)	.903	.903
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.056	.055

Mediation Analysis

A mediation model examines the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable via at least a third hypothetical variable which is called a mediator, also known as intervening variable or mediating variable (MacKinnon, 2008), as demonstrated in Figure 4-3. In other words, a mediator transmits the effect of the independent variable to the dependent variable and explains the mechanism that underlies the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Therefore, researchers have been interested to identify possible mediators in behavioral sciences to explore the nature of the relationships among variables (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). One common way to do mediation analysis is to evaluate the mediated or indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (MacKinnon, 2008; MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009). Direct effect is the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable without passing any other intervening variable, while indirect effect refers to the impact from the independent variable on the dependent variable through at least one intervening variables. The total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is calculated by adding the direct effect and all the indirect effect(s) between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2006; MacKinnon, 2008).

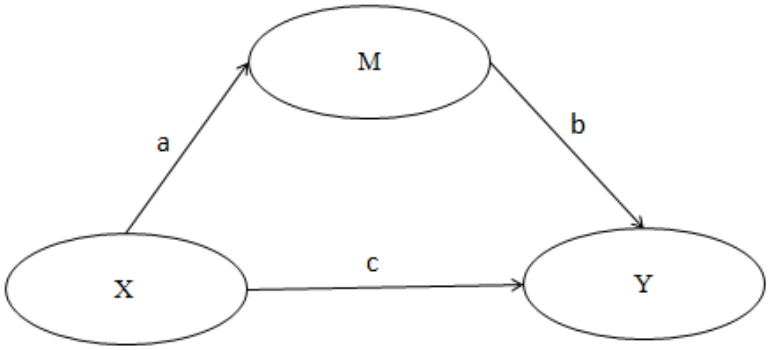

Figure 4-3. The Mediating Model

Full Mediating Role of Volunteers' Perceptions on the Relationship between Organization-member Exchange and Intention to Spread WOM

According to the results of mediation analysis, organization-member exchange (OMEX) does not show a significant direct effect on volunteer's intention to spread WOM (γ=0, p>.05). The indirect effect of OMEX on intention to spread WOM through satisfaction and affective commitment is 441 and it is significant at p<.001. The total impact of OMEX on volunteers' intention to spread WOM is significant and it is all attributed to indirect effect. This indicates the full mediating role of satisfaction and affective commitment on the relationship between OMEX and intention to spread WOM. That is, volunteers' exchanges with event organizers indirectly influence their intention to spread positive words by enhancing volunteers' satisfaction with volunteer experience and developing a special attachment towards the events they have worked on. Volunteers who have positive exchanges with event organizers tend to be more willing to share good thoughts about event volunteering to others.

Full Mediating Role of Volunteers' Perceptions on the Relationship between Coworker Exchange and Intention to Spread WOM

Coworker exchange (COEX) does not present a direct impact on volunteers' intention to spread WOM (γ=0, p>.05) but it shows an indirect effect on intention to spread WOM through satisfaction and affective commitment (γ=.197, p<.001). This generates a significant total impact and it all comes from indirect effect, which supports the full mediating role of satisfaction and affective commitment as regards the relationship between COEX and intention to spread WOM. In other words, volunteers' exchanges with other volunteers and paid employees do not predict volunteers' intention to spread WOM directly but it can indirectly predict volunteers' intention to spread WOM through satisfaction and affective commitment. When volunteers have better exchange with coworkers, they are more likely to recommend event volunteering to others. Such

increase in intention to recommend can be fully explained by the development of satisfaction and a sense of attachment to the event.

Full Mediating Role of Volunteers' Perceptions and Intention to Spread WOM on the Relationship between Organization-member Exchange and Intention to Continue

Volunteers' exchanges with event organizer are not related to their intention to continue volunteering behavior directly (γ=0, $p>.05$). However, OMEX indirectly influences intention to continue through satisfaction and affective commitment (γ=.362, $p<.01$) as well as through satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread positive WOM together (γ=.130, $p<.05$). The total indirect effect of OMEX on intention to continue is .531 and it is significant at $p<.001$, which shows the full mediating effect of satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread WOM on the relationship between OMEX and intention to continue. That is, people with positive exchanges with event organizers tend to show high willingness to engage in future event volunteering because they are satisfied with the volunteer experience, are attached to the event emotionally, and are willing to advocate for event volunteering.

Full Mediating Role of Volunteers' Perceptions and Intention to Spread WOM on the Relationship between Coworker Exchange and Intention to Continue

Similar with OMEX, COEX does not influence volunteers' intention to continue directly (γ=0, $p>.05$), but it affects volunteers' intention to continue indirectly through satisfaction and affective commitment (γ=.162, $p<.01$) as well as through satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread WOM together (γ=.058, $p<.05$). The total indirect of COEX on intention to continue is .238 and it is significant at $p<.001$. It is revealed that satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread WOM fully mediate the relationship between volunteers' exchanges with coworkers and intention to engage in future event volunteering. Positive

exchanges with coworkers result in higher intention to continue volunteering behavior since it increases volunteers' satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to spread WOM.

Full Mediating Role of Affective Commitment on the Relationship between Satisfaction and Intention to Spread WOM

Satisfaction is not positively related to volunteers' intention to spread WOM (γ=.248, p>.05). The indirect effect of satisfaction on intention to spread WOM is .650 and is significant at the p<.001 level. It generates a .898 total effect (direct effect .248+ indirect effect .650, p<.001). The significant total effect is mainly attributed to the indirect effect, which indicates the full mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between satisfaction and intention to spread WOM. That is to say, satisfaction does not affect the degree of volunteers' intention to spread WOM directly, but it indirectly influences volunteers' intention to spread WOM by enhancing volunteers' affective commitment. Satisfied volunteers tend to show positive intention to recommend event volunteering to others because they attach to the events emotionally.

Full Mediating Role of Affective Commitment and Intention to Spread WOM on the Relationship between Satisfaction and Intention to Continue

Satisfaction presents a nonsignificant direct effect on volunteers' intention to continue (γ=-.015, p>.05). However, satisfaction shows significant indirect effect on intention to continue through both affective commitment (γ=.534, p<.01), as well as through affective commitment and intention to spread WOM (γ=.192, p<.05) together. The total effect from satisfaction to intention to continue is significant (γ=.783, p<.001) and it all comes from indirect effect. This indicates the full mediating effect of affective commitment and intention to spread WOM on the relationship between satisfaction and intention to continue. It reveals that although satisfaction does not influence volunteers' intention to continue volunteer service directly, it indirectly influences volunteers' intention to stay by enhancing volunteers' affective commitment and intention to

spread positive WOM. Satisfied volunteers are more likely to show positive intention to engage in future event volunteering because they are tied to the events affectively and are willing to advocate on behalf of event volunteering.

Partial Mediating Role of Intention to Spread WOM on the Relationship between Affective Commitment and Intention to Continue

The direct effect of affective commitment on volunteers' intention to stay is .563 ($p<.01$) and the indirect effect of affective commitment on intention to continue through intention to spread WOM is .202 ($p<.05$). It consists of .765 total effect (direct effect .563+ indirect effect .202, $p<.001$). The indirect effect explains 26.4% of the total effect of affective commitment on intention to continue. This supports the important mediating role of intention to spread WOM with regard to the relationship between affective commitment and intention to stay. In other words, when volunteers become more attached to the event emotionally, they tend to exhibit higher willingness to continue volunteering behavior. A significant portion of the positive effect from affective commitment on volunteers' intention to stay comes from volunteers' intention to share good thoughts about event volunteering with others. Volunteers' intention to spread WOM partially mediates the relationship between affective commitment and intention to continue.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

The results of the hypotheses testing using structural equation modeling indicated that all structural paths among constructs were supported except for the path from career motivation to interpersonal exchange (both OMEX and COEX), and from satisfaction to volunteers' behavioral intentions (both intention to spread WOM and intention to continue). Table 4-7 summaries the results of the hypotheses testing.

Table 4-7.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

	Structural path From	To	Results
H1-1	Altruism	Organization-member Exchange	Supported
H1-2	Self-development	Organization-member Exchange	Supported
H1-3	Career	Organization-member Exchange	Unsupported
H1-4	Ego	Organization-member Exchange	Supported
H2-1	Altruism	Coworker Exchange	Supported
H2-2	Self-development	Coworker Exchange	Supported
H2-3	Career	Coworker Exchange	Unsupported
H2-4	Ego	Coworker Exchange	Supported
H3-1	Organization-member Exchange	Satisfaction	Supported
H3-2	Coworker Exchange	Satisfaction	Supported
H4	Satisfaction	Affective Commitment	Supported
H5	Satisfaction	Intention to Spread Word-of-mouth	Unsupported
H6	Affective Commitment	Intention to Spread Word-of-mouth	Supported
H7	Satisfaction	Intention to Continue	Unsupported
H8	Affective Commitment	Intention to Continue	Supported
H9	Intention to Spread Word-of-mouth	Intention to Continue	Supported

Figure 4-4 presents the final model of the present study.

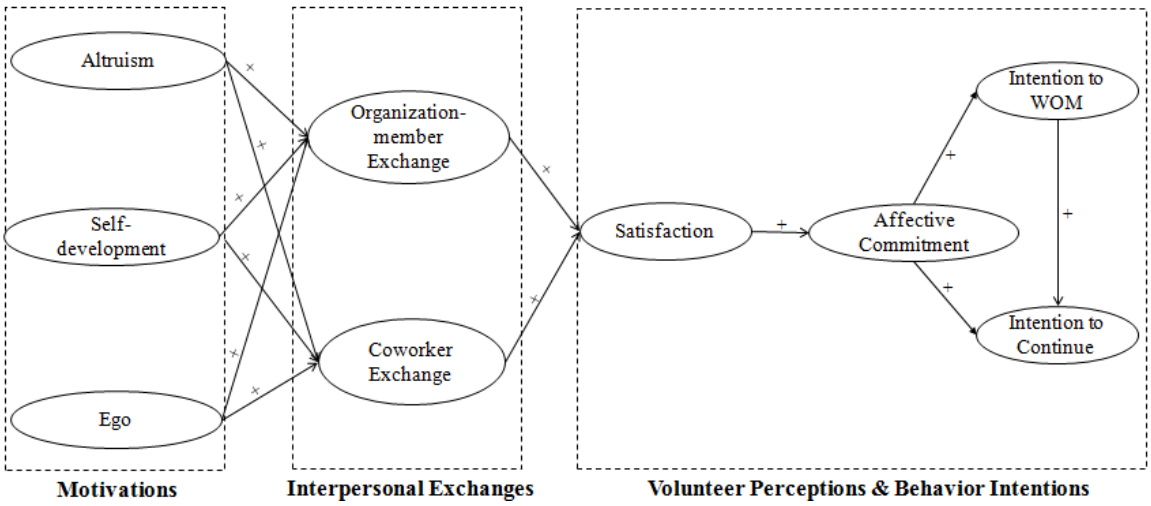

Figure 4-4. The Final model

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the results of the present study. Findings are summarized and compared with theories and prior studies. Contributions, limitations, and suggestions for future studies are discussed.

Summary of Findings

The primary purposes of the present study were to: 1) to develop and establish an integrated model that describes the mechanism with regard to what affects volunteers' participation at events, how they interact with event organizers and coworkers during events, and how they develop their perceptions at events towards their intention to continue volunteer service. The proposed model (1) integrates volunteer motivations, interpersonal exchange, satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread word-of-mouth and continue volunteer activities; and (2) provides implications for event organizers and volunteer coordinators to effectively motivate volunteers to engage in interpersonal exchange with event organizers and coworkers, and to ultimately, retain experienced volunteers. In particular, this study aimed to examine the relationships between four types of volunteer motivations (altruism, self-development, career, and ego) and two types of interpersonal exchange relationships (organizational-member exchange, and coworker exchange), which were based on self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017). In addition, this study attempted to test the relationships between interpersonal exchange relationships and volunteers' perceptions including satisfaction and

affective commitment towards their intention to spread positive word-of-mouth about event volunteering and intention to continue volunteering behavior. By doing so, the study tried to provide implications and suggestions for event practitioners, especially event organizers and volunteer coordinators, in order to attract new volunteers and retain experienced ones.

The Effect of Volunteer Motivations on Interpersonal Exchange

The results find that volunteers' motivations of altruism, self-development, and ego positively impact their organization-member exchange and coworker exchange as hypothesized in Hypotheses H1-1, H1-2, H1-4, H2-1, H2-2, and H2-4. To be specific, volunteers with higher altruistic, self-developmental, and egoistic motivations are more likely to engage in exchanges with event organizers and coworkers. These findings are consistent with the self-determination theory's belief that self-determined motivations lead to positive work outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The positive relationships between the motivations of altruism, self-development, ego, and interpersonal exchange are consistent with the previous findings about motivation and involvement (Barbuto et al., 2010; Gillet, et al., 2013; Hsu et al., 2015; Lagace, 1993). That is, people who are highly motivated are more likely to involve themselves with something in order to fulfill certain needs. In addition, the three motivations of altruism, self-development, and ego which were found to positively influence volunteers' exchange with event organizers and coworkers are consistent with previous studies about event volunteers, which show that they are most motivated by self-determined motivations (Allen & Bartle, 2014; Allen & Shaw, 2009; Barron & Knoll, 2009). Volunteers who are altruistically motivated participate in event volunteering because it is meaningful and valued. People who are driven by self-developmental motivations volunteer at events to gain some useful experiences and personal growth. The group which is motivated by egoistic factors tries to obtain fulfillment in ego. In other words, they

choose to be involved in event volunteering for self-worth or ego-involved reasons. These motivations can be categorized into self-determined motivations. Volunteers with altruistic, self-developmental, and egoistic motivations choose to engage in event volunteer activities freely. The higher level volunteers are motivated by altruism, self-development, and ego, and to a higher degree, they will involve themselves in the exchange with event organizers and coworkers.

Interestingly, this study found that volunteers' motivation of career is not positively related to their interpersonal exchange. That is to say, whether volunteers involve themselves in the exchange with event organizers and coworkers is not predicted by whether they volunteer at events for work benefits. This may be because volunteers' willingness to invest much effort into their volunteer job is most attributed to intrinsic factors. Whether volunteers would like to involve themselves in the volunteer activity is more to do with intrinsic rewards than instrumental factors. Work benefits are instrumental factors and do not affect volunteers' exchange with event organizers and coworkers significantly.

The Effect of Interpersonal Exchange on Volunteers' Perceptions

The results found that volunteers' exchange positively predicts their satisfaction, which is consistent with social exchange theory (Homans, 1961) and affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). That is, people who receive support and recognition from event organizers and peers are likely to develop positive emotions towards events. If people perceive positive exchange and believe that they are supported and valued by the organization and coworkers, they tend to feel enthusiastic and inspired, and such positive mental states will direct people to make positive judgment about the job they are doing. In other words, they are more likely to develop positive perceptions towards the job. Volunteers who experience higher levels of exchange with the event may feel more satisfied with their volunteer experience. If event volunteers feel that they are valued by the event organizers and their efforts and contribution are recognized by them,

they tend to generate pleasant emotions about the volunteering job. Similarly, if volunteers perceive that other volunteers and paid staff they work with are supportive, easy to communicate with, and cooperate well, they will feel happy about the volunteer experience. The results confirm the findings of previous work about paid employees (Masterson et al., 2000; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997). The authors found that when employees have positive exchanges with the organization and perceive a higher level of support from the organization they work for, they are more likely to show higher job satisfaction (Masterson et al., 2000; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

The results also showed that volunteers' satisfaction with the volunteer experience positively influences their affective commitment, as hypothesized in Hypothesis 4. When volunteers feel satisfied about the volunteer experience, they tend to generate a special attachment to the event they work for, which is affective commitment. The positive relationship between satisfaction and affective commitment has been proved by studies in various setting (Boles et al., 2007; Budihardjo, 2013; Clugston, 2000; Gottlieb et al., 2013; Hackett et al. , 1994; Kuo, 2015; Williams & Hazer, 1986). The results of this study supported the concept that positive exchange with event organizers and coworkers leads to satisfied event volunteers, and such satisfaction will, in turn, result in affectively committed volunteers.

The Effect of Volunteers' Perceptions on Behavioral Intentions

This study showed that affective commitment predicts volunteers' intention to spread positive word-of-mouth on behalf of event volunteering. Affective commitment is a positive emotion that can lead to positive behavioral intentions. If volunteers feel affectively attached to the event they volunteer for, they hope more people can participate in volunteer jobs. Therefore, they are more willing to recommend others to become involved in event volunteer activities and advocate for event volunteering. This finding confirmed the findings in previous works

(Fakharyan et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2009; Li & Chang, 2016; Prebensen et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2013).

The results of this study indicated that volunteers' affective commitment positively affects their intention to engage in future event volunteering. This result is consistent with the previous findings of Andrew et al. (2011), and Boezeman and Ellemers (2009). If volunteers feel satisfied about their volunteer experience and affectively attached to the event they work for, they are more willing to contribute to the event again and volunteer for future events. In other words, committed volunteers will stay.

As with previous findings, the results found that volunteers' intention to stay is also predicted by their intention to spread WOM (Prayogo & Kusumawardhani, 2017). That is, volunteers who have a higher level of willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth for event volunteering are more willing to stay and volunteer for future events. If volunteers show willingness to advocate for volunteer jobs and spread positive word-of-mouth for volunteering, they are acting as spokesmen for event volunteering and are willing to stay longer with the event they speak on behalf of.

In addition, this study showed that satisfaction does not influence volunteers' intention to spread WOM and intention to stay directly. Instead, satisfaction affects volunteers' intention to spread WOM and intention stay indirectly through affective commitment. That is to say, volunteers usually develop a special attachment with the event before they decide whether they would like to advocate for event volunteering and contribute to the event again.

Mediation Effect of Volunteers' Perceptions and Behavioral Intentions

This study found the role of satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to spread WOM as mediators which play a significant role in transmitting the effect of the predictor variable on the dependent variable. First, satisfaction and affective commitment fully mediate the

relationship between volunteers' interpersonal exchange and intention to spread WOM. The results show that volunteers' exchanges with event organizers and coworkers do not predict their intention to spread WOM directly. However, positive exchange with event organizers and coworkers result in higher intention to spread positive words about event volunteering by enhancing volunteers' satisfaction and affective commitment. Volunteers with better exchange with event organizers, other volunteers and paid employees are more likely to recommend event volunteering to others because they are happy with the volunteer experience and feel attached to the event affectively.

Second, the study revealed the full mediating role of satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread WOM on the relationship between volunteers' interpersonal exchanges and their intention to continue volunteer service. Volunteers' exchanges with event organizers and coworkers do not influence volunteers' willingness to engage in future event volunteering but they indirectly predict volunteers' intention to continue, through satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to spread WOM. Volunteers who have positive exchanges with events and receive support and recognition from event organizers and coworkers tend to show higher willingness to contribute to future events because the positive exchange directs volunteers to generate positive perceptions about their volunteering experience and the events they worked for.

Third, satisfaction does not influence volunteers' intention to spread WOM directly. However, affective commitment added a significant amount of indirect effect, which was much stronger that the direct effect of satisfaction on volunteers' intention to spread WOM. Satisfied volunteers are more likely to show intention to spread positive WOM through enhancing their affective commitment towards the events they worked for. The results provided evidence that affective commitment fully mediates the relationship between satisfaction and volunteers' intention to spread WOM. That is, volunteers' satisfaction about their volunteer experience at events positively affects the degree of volunteers' intention to spread positive word-of-mouth for

event volunteering through enhancing volunteers' level of affective commitment. Satisfied volunteers tend to show higher willingness to advocate for event volunteering through developing a special attachment to the events they worked for.

In addition, affective commitment and intention to spread WOM act as full mediators in the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and their intention to stay. In other words, volunteers' satisfaction positively influences their intention to continue volunteer behavior through the development of a special affective attachment towards the events they worked for and the intention to advocate on behalf of event volunteering. Volunteers are likely to perceive higher willingness to engage in future event volunteering when they are satisfied with the volunteer experience, feel attached to the event affectively and perceive willingness to share good thoughts to others about event volunteering.

More importantly, this study sheds light on the partial mediating role of intention to spread WOM on the relationship between volunteers' affective commitment and their intention to continue event volunteering behavior. The results indicated that volunteers' intention to spread positive word-of-mouth for event volunteering added a significant amount of explained variance of their intention to engage in future event volunteering. Therefore, volunteers' intention to spread WOM partially mediated the relationship between volunteers' affective commitment and intention to continue volunteer behavior. It showed that volunteers are willing to continue volunteering for future events when they feel attached to the events emotionally, and, furthermore, the level of intention to stay can be determined from their intention to advocate for the value of event volunteering that resulted from such special attachment.

Theoretical Contribution

The present study proposed and tested a theoretical model of event volunteers' behavioral mechanism from the before-event stage to the after-event stage. The proposed research model

was supported by various theories including self-determination theory, social exchange theory, and affective events theory. By examining what factors motivate volunteers to participate in event volunteering and how event volunteers develop their perceptions towards their intention to engage in future event volunteering behavior, this study extends the knowledge base of event volunteerism by shedding light on the significance of interpersonal exchange as a link between volunteer motivations and their perceptions towards event volunteering.

One of the main theoretical contributions of the study was taking into consideration the interactions that volunteers would experience with event organizers and coworkers during events when exploring event volunteerism. The study is among the first studies to investigate the factors relevant to the during-event stage that would influence volunteer perceptions towards event volunteering. It fills the gap in the research of event volunteerism by examining the function of interpersonal exchange, including organization-member exchange and coworker exchange, on forming volunteers' perceptions towards volunteer jobs, thus providing an integrated mechanism that directs to volunteers' intention to stay and continue their volunteer services from the before-event stage to the after-event stage. It reflects a complete behavioral mechanism of event volunteers from why people participate in event volunteering, how they interact with event organizers and coworkers, to how they feel about their volunteer experience, and, as a result, whether they are willing to contribute to the event again in the future. By assessing the role of volunteer motivations as regards perceived interpersonal exchange with event organizers and coworkers, and separately examining the influence of the interpersonal exchange experienced by volunteers during volunteer activities on forming individuals' perceptions towards volunteer jobs, the study offers a clearer reflection of the social exchange process that volunteers experience at events.

Another contribution of this study is that it takes a comprehensive look at the psychological activities experienced by event volunteers. Prior studies usually only take one or two factors

among satisfaction, affective commitment, intention to spread word-of-mouth and intention to continue when discussing volunteers' perceptions and intentions. This study takes all these four factors into consideration and explores the relationships between them, which provides a clear reflection about how volunteers form their perceptions about their volunteer experience and decide whether to contribute to event volunteering again or not. The findings reveal the important mediating role of satisfaction, affective commitment and intention to spread WOM when volunteers develop their final intention to share good thoughts about event volunteering and continue volunteer service in the future.

Practical Contribution

From the practical perspective, understanding these aspects of volunteering, as well as the relationships between them, can be beneficial for the management of volunteers. Nowadays, due to the increasing complexities of holding events, together with associated financial constraints, more and more events come to particularly rely on the involvement of volunteers, who undertake important tasks throughout the planning and operation of the events. It is important for event organizers to understand the factors that attract people to volunteer, and the factors affecting volunteers' perceptions and behavioral intentions towards events, no matter the context. The results of the study provide valuable insights for practitioners, especially event organizers and volunteer coordinators, to develop more effective volunteer programs and maintain sustainable relationships with event volunteers. The implications can be understood in three aspects: 1) recruiting intrinsically motivated volunteers to encourage input, 2) recognizing contributions to promote volunteers' positive perceptions, and 3) utilizing satisfied and committed volunteers to recruit more volunteers.

Recruiting Intrinsically Motivated Volunteers to Encourage Input

The results of the study show that volunteers who are highly motivated in terms of value, self-development, and ego are more likely to invest more effort into their volunteer job and engage in exchanges with event organizers and coworkers. Value, self-development and ego are intrinsic motivations and volunteers with these motivations choose to participate in volunteer activities to fulfill inner needs. These volunteers usually are passionate to help others, eager to learn new things through hands-on experiences, and want to feel important or needed by others. They will make active inputs and dedicate themselves to volunteer activities to meet those needs. In order to attract more such people to join volunteer groups, event organizers and event coordinators should emphasize the opportunities the event could provide to meet those needs. Event organizers could explain the values of volunteering through the volunteer recruitment message. This can be accomplished by incorporating detailed information about the mission and vision of the event, and the important role that volunteers will play during the event planning, as well as operations on the event website, event-related postings, or at information sessions. In addition, event organizers and volunteer coordinators could address the self-developmental opportunities the events could offer volunteers to obtain new knowledge and skills while exploring volunteers' own strengths through the volunteer job.

Recognizing Contributions to Promote Volunteers' Positive Perceptions

The findings of the study indicate that positive interpersonal exchanges with event organizers and coworkers contribute to volunteers' satisfaction with the events, and that such satisfaction will lead volunteers to develop a special attachment to the events. This sheds lights on the importance of support and recognition from event organizers and coworkers of volunteers. The support and recognition can be realized by implementing effective volunteer programs. At the volunteer orientation or training stage, event organizers and event coordinators should express

their appreciation for volunteers' participation and let volunteers know that the event will provide whatever is needed to support the volunteers' job. During the event, volunteer coordinators need to check with volunteers constantly to see if everything is on the right track and provide any help that is needed. After the event, event organizers and event coordinators could hold a wrap-up meeting with volunteers and provide an opportunity to communicate with volunteers about any concerns. At the wrap-up meeting, event organizers and event coordinators need to compliment volunteers' input, making sure that the volunteers know they are valued by them and that their efforts and contribution are recognized. Such support and recognition will make volunteers feel satisfied and attach to the event emotionally, and such satisfaction and attachment will strengthen people's intention to stay and spread positive words-of-mouth about event volunteering.

Utilizing Satisfied and Committed Volunteers to Recruit Volunteers

This study shows that satisfied volunteers tend to spread positive word-of-mouth through the development of affective commitment. If volunteers feel happy about their volunteer experience and develop a special attachment to the event they worked for, they are willing to share those good stories about their volunteer job to their friends and family members, and recommend that others participate in event volunteering as well. Such oral recommendation functions as a free advertisement for the event and creates a larger impact than regular advertisements, since people tend to trust the information that comes from someone they are familiar with. The oral recommendation from experienced volunteers can largely reduce the costs associated with volunteer recruitment and improve the efficacy of volunteer recruitment. Therefore, it is important for event organizers and volunteer coordinators to realize this fact and devote time to bring a satisfactory experience to current volunteers. Investing more time and effort in current volunteers and providing them with a wonderful memory about working at the event by satisfying what they seek from the volunteer experience and recognizing their contribution will potentially

attract more volunteers to the event in the future, and, as a result, guarantee the continuation of the event.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Study

There are a few limitations that need to be taken into consideration when applying the results of the present study.

First, this study adopted a self-selected non-probability sampling method to recruit participants and there is a concern about the representativeness of the sample. The sample may not be very representative of the target population. As event volunteers were recruited to participate in the study on a voluntary basis, it might cause a non-response bias where the answers of respondents may differ from the potential answers of those who did not answer. Since participating in the survey can also be considered as an "exchange behavior" to some extent, people who are willing to fill out the survey may have different perceptions and characteristics compared with those who are not willing to take the survey. Therefore, the findings may not be able to generalize to other groups that are not included in the study and the findings should be applied with caution.

Second, a self-report survey was used as the data-collection instrument, and social desirability bias may influence volunteers' answers to the survey in the present study. Social desirability bias is a tendency that survey respondents answer questions in a way that makes them be seen more favorably and positively. People have some ideas about what a volunteer is supposed to be. Respondents may answer the questions according to social expectations of what others think volunteers should be, instead of their actual perceptions. Social desirability bias may result in spurious correlations and/or skewed responses (Ganster, Hennsey, & Luthans, 1983).

Third, this study measured volunteers' intention to spread WOM and continue volunteer services as the indicator of their actual recommendation and retention. However, in reality,

volunteers with high intention to continue may not be able to actually come back to serve as volunteers for future events due to the constraints of various factors. In other words, behavioral intentions cannot fully predict actual behavior.

Next, the present study relied on a web-based survey as the single data source to collect data and so it cannot reach those volunteers without internet access or those who do not check their e-mail boxes regularly. In other words, the sample of the study may not represent the target population and the findings of the present study should be applied with caution.

Last, the model proposed in the present study did not show a perfect fit to the data, so conclusions generated should be taken with caution.

For future studies, encouragement is given to conduct an experimental research design to examine the causal relationship between event volunteers' motivation, interpersonal exchange and their perceptions of their intention to continue volunteer behavior. It would be helpful to take a qualitative approach using interviews, focus groups, and observation to explore the reasons behind volunteers' perceptions. Adopting a probability sampling method to recruit respondents during the event and collecting data from various data sources would help to obtain a sample that is more representative of the population which, as a result, would generate conclusions that can be generalized to other groups. A longitudinal study is suggested to track the actual retention of volunteers.

This study took special events as a general concept and did not explore the nature of the events from participants' answers. It would be meaningful to explore the possible differences in motivations, interpersonal exchange and perceptions of volunteers at different types of special events (e.g., religious, cultural, art, and sport). In addition, although this study took a look at the respondents' profiles in general, it did not compare the possible differences in volunteers' motivations, interpersonal exchange, and perceptions between volunteers with different

characteristics. It would be helpful to explore the impact of volunteers' demographic factors (e.g., gender, age, race, annual household income, employment status, education attainment, and marital status) on their volunteer involvement and attitudes. Moreover, this study only focused on the impact of motivation and interpersonal exchange on forming volunteers' perceptions. Other contextual factors of the events themselves such as the location, content, scale, history, and duration of the events are encouraged to be taken into consideration to explore whether, how, and to what extent these factors influence volunteers' perceptions of their intention to stay. Furthermore, this study only included event volunteers in the United States. It would also be interesting to conduct similar studies in different cultural settings to see if culture plays an important role in impacting volunteers' perceptions and behaviors.

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APPENDIX

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Volunteer:

I am a doctoral student in the School of Hotel & Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University. I am conducting a study to learn more about what affects volunteer participation at events and how volunteers develop their attitudes at events towards their intention to continue volunteering. I invite you to participate in the study. By participating, you may benefit from reflecting on your own experiences. More importantly, by helping me you may help events find and retain more volunteers.

Participating in the survey will take about 10 minutes. Rest assured, your responses will be anonymous. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may stop answering the survey at any point. Submitting the completed survey indicates your willingness to participate in this study

Data is being collected for academic purposes only. All responses will remain strictly confidential, and results will be presented only in summary form. Only the principal investigator will have access to the completed questionnaires. The coded data will be stored in password protected computers in a room that is locked. The results of the study will be used in my doctoral dissertation, and be presented at academic conferences.

Should you have any questions or concerns please feel free to contact me by using the information below. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Chair, Dr. Hugh Crethar at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Thank you in advance for your participation!

Sincerely,

Tian Lin
PhD Student
School of Hotel & Restaurant Administration
Oklahoma State University
tianne.lin@okstate.edu

Please click “yes” if you choose to participate. By clicking “yes”, you are indicating that you freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this study and you also acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age. If you do not wish to take the survey, please click “no” and you will be exited from the program.

Yes, I consent to participate in this survey

No, I am not willing to participate in this survey

Screen question:

Have you worked as a volunteer at an event in the past 6 months?

A. Yes
B. No (The survey ends here)

Please reflect about your most recent volunteering experience at an event, and answer the following questions:

PART I:

Please respond the following questions based on your most recent experience as a volunteer at an event.

1. This event was:
A. An international event
B. A national event
C. A regional event
D. A local event

2. Are you _____
A. A member of volunteers
B. A supervisor of volunteers

3. What is the approximate number of attendees in this event?
A. Less than 100
B. 100 – 499
C. 500 – 1,000
D. More than 1,000

4. How long is the history of this event?
A. Less than 5 years
B. 5 – 10 years
C. More than 10 years

5. What is the name of this event? _____

PART II:

The following statements are about your reasons for volunteering. Please indicate how important or accurate each of the following reasons for volunteering is for you in doing volunteer work at this event. If a statement is not at all important or accurate to you, select 1. If a statement is extremely important or accurate to you, select 7. You may select any number from 1 to 7 that accurately describes how important or accurate a statement is for you.

Please indicate how important or accurate each statement is about your important reasons for volunteering:	**Not at all important or accurate**			**Unsure**			**Extremely important or accurate**
I feel compassion toward people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore my own strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make new contact that might help my business or career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering makes me feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART III:

The following statements are about your perceived interpersonal exchange you had during your volunteering experience. If you are strongly disagree with the statement, select 1. If you are strongly agree with the statement, select 7. You may select any number from l to 7 that accurately describes your response to the statement.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:	**Strongly disagree**			**Neutral**			**Strongly agree**
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My immediate supervisor knows my potential.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My immediate supervisor will use authority to help me solve work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My immediate supervisor would protect me if needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a good working relationship with my immediate supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My coworkers will help me when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My coworkers care about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART IV:

The following statements are about your perception about the prestige of the event. If you are strongly disagree with the statement, select 1. If you are strongly agree with the statement, select 7. You may select any number from l to 7 that accurately describes your response to the statement.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:	**Strongly disagree**			**Neutral**			**Strongly agree**

People in the society think highly of the event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The event is considered to be one of the best events in its field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is considered prestigious to work for the event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This event has a good reputation in the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART V:

The following statements are about your attitudes towards the event you volunteered for. If you are strongly disagree with the statement, select 1. If you are strongly agree with the statement, select 7. You may select any number from l to 7 that accurately describes your response to the statement.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:	**Strongly disagree**			**Neutral**			**Strongly agree**
I am satisfied with volunteering experience in general.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied with support I received to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied with the recognition I received.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied with the organization of this event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really care about the fate of this event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt like an important member of the event team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this event be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will share my good volunteer experience with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will speak highly of my volunteer experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am happy to advocate on behalf of event volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will volunteer for the same event next year/time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will volunteer for different events in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will volunteer for more events in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART VI:

Demographic Information.

1. Your gender:
   ☐ Male
   ☐ Female

2. Your age:
   ☐ Under 18
   ☐ 18-24 years old
   ☐ 25-34 years old
   ☐ 35-44 years old
   ☐ 45-54 years old
   ☐ 55-64 years old
   ☐ 65 and above

3. Your ethnic background:
   ☐ Caucasian
   ☐ African American
   ☐ Asian
   ☐ Hispanic
   ☐ Native American
   ☐ Other

4. Your marital status:
   ☐ Married
   ☐ Single

5. Your employment status
   ☐ Full time employed
   ☐ Part time employed
   ☐ Self-employed
   ☐ Unemployed
   ☐ Not in the labor force

6. Your annual household income:
   ☐ $14,999 or less
   ☐ $15,000~$29,999
   ☐ $30,000~$44,999
   ☐ $45,000~$59,999
   ☐ $60,000~$74,999
   ☐ $75,000~$99,999
   ☐ $100,000 or more

7. What was the highest level of education you completed?
   ☐Less than a high school diploma
   ☐High school graduate, no college
   ☐Some college or associate degree
   ☐Bachelor's degree
   ☐Master's degree or higher

8. How many hours did you volunteer in last 12 months?
   ☐None
   ☐19 hours or less
   ☐20 – 71 hours
   ☐72 – 187 hours
   ☐188 hours or more

9. In addition to this event, how many events did you volunteer in last 12 months?
   ☐ None
   ☐ 1 event
   ☐ 2 – 3 events
   ☐ 4 – 5 events
   ☐ 6 – 10 events
   ☐ More than 10 events

VITA

TIAN LIN

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF VOLUNTEERS' MOTIVATIONS, INTERPERSONAL EXCHANGE, AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS: A CASE OF EVENT VOLUNTEERS

Major Field: Human Sciences with a Specialization in Hospitality Administration

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Human Sciences with a specialization in Hospitality Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2018.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Tourism Administration at George Washington University, Washington, District of Columbia in 2013.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Management at Jinan University, Guangzhou, China in 2011.

Experience:

Teaching Assistant, School of Hotel and Tourism Management, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK, United States, Fall 2013 – Spring 2017
Research Assistant, School of Hotel and Tourism Management, Oklahoma State University, Fall 2014 – Fall 2016
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