Examination of Event Volunteers' Motivation and Satisfaction Levels Utilizing the Kano Method

by

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Abstract

Many nonprofit organizations rely heavily on the assistance of volunteers. There exists a supply and demand imbalance making it critical for organizations to guard their volunteer resources (Warner, Newland, & Green, 2011). Volunteer management has traditionally taken a human resources perspective (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006). However, this approach misses the core difference between volunteers and paid workers; paid workers are obligated to work while volunteers construct their volunteering as a leisure activity (Stebbins, 1982; Williams, Dossa, & Tompkins, 1995). The element of volunteerism as a leisure activity has led researchers to view volunteers as consumers (Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Volunteer managers must face the challenges from the realm of consumer behavior.

The duality of volunteers presents a challenge in traditional Total Quality Management (TQM) studies ultimately creating difficulty categorizing them into traditional customer service models. Within TQM, the Kano Model is a tool that has been successfully used to delve into the intricacies of customer satisfaction. It is also beneficial as a way to evaluate internal and external customer experiences. This study identified how Alabama events can optimize volunteer satisfaction while minimizing dissatisfaction by utilizing the Kano Model. By determining which elements serve as Attractive, Must-Be, One-Dimensional or Indifferent, events can effectively prioritize elements that will lead to continuous improvement, for both the event and the volunteers.

This results from this study revealed eleven elements that were Attractive as both motivators and satisfiers. There were no elements that classified as One-Dimensional or Must-Be. This study showed a relationship between factors that motivate volunteers as well as factors that satisfy volunteers. The study concluded that further research is needed to delve further into understanding the relationship between motivation and satisfaction as it relates to the management of volunteers.

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List of Abbreviations

EUH   Experience Use History

IRB   Institutional Review Board

IPA   Importance-performance Analysis

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TQM   Total Quality Management

VFI   Volunteer Functions Inventory

Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

The study of leisure and the study of tourism reveal that they are two sides of the same

coin. However, defining leisure and tourism has been debated and researched considerably

during the past fifty years (Dillard & Bates, 2011). Commonly, leisure is viewed as an attitude of

mind (Isa-Ahola, 1980). "Leisure is defined by the use of time, not the time itself. It is

distinguished by the meaning of the activity, not its form" (Kelly, 1982). In other words, what is

a leisurely activity for one may not be a leisurely activity for another. Tourism has been defined

from all travelling, except commuting (Gunn, 1988) to all travelling away from home (Kelly,

1985). Those definitions pose a problem as they are either too inclusive or too unclear. The more

widely accepted definition of tourism includes all travel that involves a stay of at least one night

but does not exceed the length of a year (Shaw & Williams, 1994). Yet, even that definition is

cloudy as not all tourism activities or tourism acts require an overnight stay. The relationship

between leisure and tourism in part explains the various subsections under tourism and the

subsequent approaches to researching tourism.

Tourism research is approached from a diverse range of perspectives including: (1)

human experience, (2) social behavior, (3) geographic phenomenon, (4) resource, (5) business,

(6) industry, and (7) intellectual debate (Shaw & Williams, 1994). Comprehending much of the

tourism phenomenon necessitates the need to understand individual behavior. Gaining that

comprehension comes from the development and testing of models that address the antecedents

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and consequences of human behavior. Tourism is more than what one individual chooses to do. Each tourist interacts with either other tourists or employees within the tourism industry and those interactions reflect social behavior. Geographically, tourism is organized into divisions based on location and reflects both the cultural differences and the geographical differences of an area. Tourism also serves as an economical base and a way for communities to diversify their portfolios and increase awareness for issues unique to their locale. Financially, tourism serves as a revenue generator and also as a jobs provider for populations. However, tourism is more than a local business. It is a global industry with major policy implications, not only nationally, but globally. All of the varied uses of the definition of tourism and the uses of the tourism industry create an intellectual debate that provides substantial debate among analysts interested in tourism (Shaw & Williams, 1994). As studies into the various subsections of tourism develop, new questions arise.

Tourism is comprised of various subsections and is a mixed-industry where private companies, public agencies, and non-profit organizations both collaborate and compete to provide a tourist product (Anderson & Getz, 2009). Events are a subsection of the tourism industry. The individuality of each event makes them both popular and universal attractions. The majority of events throughout North America and Europe are run by non-profit agencies (Anderson & Getz, 2009). Events fill a wide range of areas including: economic impact (McKercher, Mei, & Tse, 2006), image making and place marketing (Boo & Busser, 2006), travel patterns (Bohlin, 2000), cultural and community links (Robinson, Picard, & Long, 2004), regional and urban renewal/development (Cameron, 1989; Moscardo, 2007). These events range in theme including: art, culture, sport, food and nature. The popularity and growth of these events combined with the non-profit nature of the hosting agencies highlights a key resource

need, volunteers. The need for volunteers reveals two key issues that need to be addressed: what motivates volunteers and what satisfies volunteers.

Problem statement and significance

Event volunteer motivation and satisfaction research has been thoroughly studied. Volunteer motives studies included actual motives, volunteer scheduling, and volunteer involvement, while satisfaction studies covered the multifaceted nature of volunteers, needs, expectations, and satisfying factors (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Davis, Hall & Meyer, 2003; Doherty, 2005; Finkelstein, 2008; Gerstein, Anderson, & Wilkeson, 2004; Van Dyne & Farmer, 2005). To date, with few exceptions, motives and satisfaction have been studied separately and fail to connect the relationship between the two. Adding a quality management tool that examines the connection between volunteer motivation and volunteer satisfaction such as the Kano Method to the existing research regarding volunteer motivation and satisfaction may provide the link that has been absent allowing organizations an insight into the factors that most affect key outcomes.

Purpose of the research

The current investigation into volunteer management is both timely and compelling. Volunteerism rates have decreased globally in the last decade. In the United States, there has been a reduction in both the number of volunteers and the rate of volunteering between 2006 and 2007 (US Department of Labor, 2009). This reduction in volunteer rate and numbers presents a supply and demand imbalance situation that volunteers' managers must manage.

In an earlier examination of volunteer management, twenty-six factors were confirmed by an expert panel to be relevant for examining both volunteer motivation and satisfaction (Warner, Newland & Green, 2011). These factors are intended to measure volunteer motivation and

volunteer satisfaction levels, and in addition determine factor priority. Further identified were key outcomes that are desirable for event volunteer managers. Focusing on events held in the southeastern state of Alabama, this study has four projected objectives:

(1) Explore the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer motivation to minimize the difference between what volunteers want and what volunteers receive.

(2) Examine potential satisfaction and motivation differences between differing types of events in Alabama (e.g. food, cultural, arts).

(3) Identify the degree to which motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events (i.e., organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, belief in the organization's goals and values, and overall satisfaction with volunteer experience).

(4) Investigate the relationship between satisfaction and key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, belief in the organization's goals and values, and overall satisfaction with volunteer experience) in Alabama events.

Research questions

Understanding the goals of the study, four research questions were formed to address said goals:

RQ1: What is the relationship between motivation and satisfaction? Can volunteers have a satisfactory experience if their motives were not met?

RQ2: Are volunteers working in each event category motivated by different elements? Are the expectations of volunteers dependent on the event type (e.g. art, food, culture)?

RQ3: To what degree do motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events? What is the role motives play in: developing organization commitment, desire to repeat volunteer, intention to recruit additional volunteers, belief in the organization's goals and values, and overall satisfaction with volunteer experience?

RQ4: What relationship exists between volunteer satisfaction and key outcomes in Alabama events? What degree do satisfaction elements have in achieving noted key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, belief in the organization's goals and values, and overall satisfaction with volunteer experience)?

This study reveals the demographics, motivation factors and satisfaction levels of this group and will benefit volunteer management through predictive conclusions and implications attained from this research.

Definition of Terms

The succeeding definitions of terms are given to provide as clear and concise a meaning of the terms used in this study.

Kano Model- A quality management tool with distinct constructs for satisfaction and dissatisfaction for understanding preferences. (Kano, Nobuhiko, Takahashi, & Shinichi, 1984).

Motive- The goal or object that causes a person to act in a particular way.

Total Quality Management- An ongoing process whereby top management takes the necessary steps to enable everyone in the organization to meet or exceed the expectations and needs of internal and external customers (Miller, 1996).

Volunteer- An individual who on their own free will and absent of any monetary reward helps strangers/beneficiaries on either a long-term basis or within an organization (Cnaan, Handy & Wadsworth, 1996).

Volunteer management- The process of overseeing a group of volunteers by organizing and directing them to their designated tasks and objective.

Quality- An essential or distinctive characteristic with respect to a grade of excellence or superiority.

Quantitative method- A research design that relies principally on the use of quantitative data such as numbers, graphs or formulas (Schwandt, 2007, p.250).

Satisfy- To fulfill the desires, expectations, needs, or demands of a person.

Delimitations

This study has been deliberately delimited to include only event volunteers within the state of Alabama. Ideally, a broad understanding of the entire event volunteer population would be advantageous. Conversely, the issue of collecting a cumbersome sample was cause for major concern not only financially, but logistically and concisely as well.

Summary

This chapter serves to provide an overview and groundwork for the subsequent study examining volunteer motivation and satisfaction as they pertain to event tourism. The aims and objectives of the study and the resulting specific research questions to attain those aims and objectives have been identified. The following chapters provide a more comprehensive review of the literature, the study and the ensuing results and findings.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

Volunteers have been an integral part of the United States' history; from infantry men in the American Revolution to volunteer firefighters in local communities today. What started off as an impromptu campaign speech in 1960 on the campus of the University of Michigan, became one of the largest volunteer organizations in the world (Peace Corps, 2014). In that speech, Senator John F. Kennedy challenged college students to give back. Shortly after his inauguration, he established the Peace Corps which would become a preeminent international service organization that would work at the grassroots level to solve the most pressing needs of people around the world (Peace Corps, 2014). The need for volunteers has only grown as the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act of 2009 demonstrates just how crucial volunteer involvement is in the progression and success of a country.

Volunteers provide a significant return on investment (Segal & Weisbrod, 2002). While there are costs to the organization, volunteers have the ability to provide a wide range of talent and skill from the most basic of labor to serving as a source of expertise (Chelladurai & Madella, 2006). Many nonprofit sector organizations could not survive without the assistance of volunteers. In 2006, 61.2 million adults in the United States donated 8.1 billion hours of service (Grimm et al., 2007). Every fourth American and every third European spends at least one day a week participating in unpaid activities (TNS Infratest, 2007; United States Department of Labor, 2009). Volunteerism is on the decline around the world over the last ten years. In the United

States, there has been a reduction in both the number of volunteers and the volunteer rate between 2006 and 2007 (US Department of Labor, 2009). Similar trends have been felt in Australia (ABS, 2008) and Canada (Statistics Canada, 2000). While the number of volunteers has decreased, the need for volunteers has increased (Warner, Newland & Green, 2011). This supply and demand imbalance has made it more critical for special events and festival organizers to guard their volunteer resources.

Numerous theoretical frameworks have been utilized to explore volunteer research including quality of life theory (Shye, 2009), associative-supportive motivation (Treuren, 2009), decision-making theory with theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behavior (Harrison, 1995), functional theory/approach to motivation (Clary et al., 1998), and altruism and egoism (Phillips & Phillips, 2011). Ultimately, at the root of all of these theories is altruism and egoism which form the foundation for most volunteer motivation constructs (Finkelstein, 2007; Hoye, Cuskelly, Taylor & Darcy, 2008; Smith, Holmes, Haski-Leventhal, Cnaan, Handy & Brudney, 2010).

A review of the literature shows that volunteers serve as a crucial piece in event management. This study aimed to identify how events held in Alabama can focus what are often limited resources on improving the volunteer process. By optimizing volunteer satisfaction and minimizing volunteer dissatisfaction, elements can be prioritized to lead to continuous improvement for both the volunteers and the event. Hence, this study is expected to:

(1) Identify the degree to which motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events (i.e., organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal alignment)

(2) Investigate the relationship between satisfaction and key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal alignment) in Alabama events

(3) Examine potential satisfaction and motivation differences between differing types of events in Alabama (e.g. food, cultural, arts)

(4) Explore the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer motivation to minimize the difference between what volunteers want and what volunteers receive.

In order to better understand volunteer motivation and satisfaction at events, the overarching topics of tourism, volunteerism, satisfaction, motivation, and quality management must be explored. The following sections outline what has been done and provide the support for this study.

Tourism

Travel from place to place has been around since man first roamed the Earth. Tourism has been defined by everyone from researchers, governmental agencies, tourism associations, and individual businesses (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Murphy, 1985; World Tourism Organization, 1981). A review of these numerous definitions suggests that tourism definitions can be classified based on their manifest content, into three categories: economic, technical, and holistic (Lieper, 1979). The variation of definitions is in large part due to the various uses for the definition (Smith, 1988). Accounting for the various uses and definitions of tourism, Jafari (1977) provides a general basic definition that is able to fit most uses. "Tourism is the study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host's socio-cultural, economic, and physical environments" (p. 8). Tourists are "temporarily leisured 'people' who voluntarily visit a place away from home for the

purpose of experiencing a change" (Smith, 1977, p. 1). Tourism serves as a necessary structured break from ordinary life, which characterizes all human societies (Smith, 1988).

The relationship between tourism and leisure has been examined to support the use of leisure in the myriad of definitions of tourism (Bodewes, 1981; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Leisure equates with free time (Smige, 1963) and is a "complex human need that is fulfilled by the production and consumption of individually defined pleasant experiences" (Ateca-Amestoy, Serrano-del-Rosal & Vera-Toscano, 2008, p. 64). Leisure is determined on an individual basis dependent on what each person finds enjoyable, pleasurable, and satisfying (Kelly, 1982). The leisure experience draws from the meaning of the activity to the individual, not on the activity itself such that what some may consider work is leisure to others (Ateca-Amestoy, Serrano-del-Rosal & Vera-Toscano, 2008). Leisure has been divided into casual leisure and serious leisure. Casual leisure consists of fairly short experiences that require little or no training, while serious leisure has the propensity to be comprised of complexities, challenges, and nuances (Stebbins, 1982, 1997).

As leisure continued to be sculpted from both a definition and conception standpoint, research into the motivational aspect of leisure began. At the root of understanding the motivations for leisure is the hierarchy of needs that identifies five types of needs: physiological, safety/security, belongingness/love, ego/self-esteem, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). The lower needs represent the most vital needs and as they are realized, an individual is able to fulfill the next level of needs. Building from Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, multiple researchers have explored the motivational aspect of tourism finding that there are ultimately numerous possibilities for understanding peoples' motives for leisure and tourism (Beard & Ragheb, 1980; Driver, 1977; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Tinsley & Eldredge, 1995). The motivational needs vary across

the subsections of the tourism industry such that eco-tourists have differing motivational needs than food tourists and so forth and so on. As people begin to understand how their needs are able to be met, the role that tourism plays continues to become apparent. Within the realm of tourism is an ever growing subsection known as event tourism.

Event Tourism

The recognition of events as part of the tourism field was not widely considered to be part of the industry until the late 1980's and has since become an essential part of tourism development (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Getz, 2008). Event tourism is an approach where planned events are designed specifically to attract tourists to a destination, foster a positive destination image, and contribute to other destination-related promotions (Getz, 2008). The importance of events as part of destination tourism development has led to the increase of event tourism research. A compilation of event tourism research reveals trends on the focus of the research such that throughout the 1970's and 1980's the emphasis was on the economic impact of these events, the 1990's focused on tourists' motives and understanding why they attended, while the last decade has explored the relationship and balance between the different segments of the tourism industry (Getz, 2008).

Festivals and special events play an important role in communities as they provide activities and spending outlets for locals and visitors, and enhance the communities' image (Getz, 1993). They also serve as unique travel attractions as they are not confined within the limits of expensive physical development. Festivals and special events succeed on the enthusiasm of the local community and event organizers (Getz, 1993; Janiskee, 1994; Turko & Kelsey, 1992). The majority of special events requires minimal capital development, capitalizes on existing infrastructure, is volunteer intensive, and locally controlled (Gursoy, Kim & Uysal,

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2003). Despite involving minimal investment, festivals and special events have the possibility of generating substantial returns (Getz, 1993).

Special events and festivals have seen substantial growth in numbers, diversity, and popularity in recent years (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Getz, 1997; Thrane, 2002). Escalation of these events and festivals has been attributed to: the role they play in tourism-related marketing (Kim & Chalip, 2004), the attraction of visitors (Light, 1996), the compensation for the seasonality of typical tourism (Higham & Hinch, 2002), the promotion of a destination's image (Roche, 1994) and the contribution to the development and subsequent sustainability of the economy (Bramwell, 1997). Visitors are increasingly seeking out events as unique recreational activities (Litvin & Fetter, 2006) that allow them to participate in a collective experience that is distinct from everyday life (Getz & Frisby, 1988; Kozorog, 2011; Saayman, 2011; Yang, Reeh & Kreisel, 2011). For the hosting community, festivals and special events contribute to enhancing and/or preserving local culture and history (Johansen & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Kozorog, 2011; Xie, 2004; Yang, Reeh & Kreisel, 2011), renewing an urban area or region (Carlsen & Taylor, 2003; Richards and Wilson, 2004), generating economic benefits (Herrero, Sanz & Devesa, 2011; Litvin & Fetter, 2006; Long & Perdue, 1990), stimulating the local tourism industry (Karabag, Yabuz & Berggren, 2011; Long & Perdue, 1990; Quinn, 2006), and expanding the tourism season (Getz, 1991).

The number of studies on festivals and special events has increased as the prevalence of events has increased (Backman, Backman, Uysal & Sunshine, 1995; Crompton & McKay, 1994; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001; Thrane, 2002). The focus of most these studies is either the economic impact these events have (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Gartner & Holecek, 1983; Uysal & Gitelson, 1994) or the motivational reasons for people to attend (Formica & Murmann, 1998;

Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). Research focusing on the economic impact of special events gave financial gain as the strongest motive or benefit for hosting or organizing the event (Gartner & Holecek, 1983; Kim, Scott, Thigpen & Kim, 1998; Thrane, 2002). Financial gain as the sole motive however overlooks the sociological aspect of events as building social cohesion within the community (Rao, 2001; Turner, 1982). Events represent a host community's sense of self, pride, cultural identity, cohesion, exchange of ideas, revitalization of local traditions, and improving the quality of life (Besculides, Lee & McCormic, 2002; Delamere & Hinch, 1994; Weikert & Kertstetter, 1996). Within the surge of research into festivals, there is strong evidence supporting the need and importance of volunteers for successful operation of event regardless of the objective for planning the event (Hardin, Koo, King & Zdriok, 2007; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). Volunteers provide event organizers the opportunity to compensate for the lack of skilled event employees, while cutting the operational cost for hosting the event. Ultimately volunteers "enable administrators...to complement and enrich...current services and expand both the quantity and diversity of services without exhausting the agency's budget" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 270). The 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta deployed up to 40,000 volunteers (Emmons, 1996) demonstrating the importance and necessity of volunteers. Marketing is at the root of volunteer recruitment and retention concerns (Green & Chalip, 1998; Herron, 1997; Kotler & Anderson, 1996) and understanding what motivates people to get involved in an organization of their own free accord is vital for a multitude of reasons. First, event organizers could design their marketing efforts in a way that could both persuade and appeal to potential volunteers (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Switzer, Switzer, Stukas, & Baker, 1999). Second, when volunteers' motives are courted, they tend to be more effective and more satisfied with the whole experience (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Switzer et al., 1999). Also, certain sets of motives

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have proven to be strong predictive indicators of volunteer retention (Clary & Miller, 1986; Clary & Orenstein, 1991). Finally, if the benefits from the experience align with their initial motives, volunteers are more inclined to offer their services again (Clary et al., 1998; Switzer et al., 1999). The foundation of motives to volunteer lies in understanding human nature and the need to care and help others.

Altruism & Volunteerism

One of the important aspects of human altruism is long-term and organized activity that benefits others i.e., volunteering. Every act of volunteering is not altruistic as every altruistic act is not volunteering; however, the connection between the concepts is such that to mention one requires discussing the other (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). Altruism, from the Latin root, means "for the other", caring for the "*alter*". In the book *The Altruism Question*, altruism is defined as "a motivational state with the ultimate goal of increasing another's welfare" (Batson, 1991, p. 6). In order for the goal to be considered "ultimate", it must be an end in itself and not a means to another goal. Altruism has many definitions and has also been defined as "behavior such as helping or sharing that promotes the welfare of others without conscious regard for one's own self-interest" (Hoffman, 1979, p. 2) and also as the inner tendency of a group or an individual, who focuses on giving meaningful service(s) to other persons, neither oneself nor one's family (Smith, 2000). In defining altruism, it has been claimed that pure altruism does not exist and that at the root of every altruistic act is ego (Smith, 1981). It is entirely debatable about whether an altruistic act has to include some self-sacrifice. Sigmund and Hauert (2002) claim that an act done for another will be considered altruistic if it benefits the recipient and harms the helper; however, if both benefit from the assistance, then it is considered cooperation and not altruism. Including self-sacrifice in the definition of altruism shifts the focus from motivations to

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consequences and ignoring the possibility that self-benefit may be greater, as the costs to the

helper increase (Batson, 1991).

Definitions of volunteerism have also focused on aspects of assisting without material

rewards, but also emphasized the nature of free will. The word volunteering is based on the Latin

words *voluns* (choose) or *velle* (want); the choice and the free will aspects are essential in

defining volunteerism. There is a lack of coerciveness in volunteering that makes "a helping

action of an individual that is valued by him or her, and yet is not aimed directly at material gain

or mandated or coerced by others" (Van Til, 1988, p. 6). Most definitions of volunteerism have

four main components: free will behavior, no monetary reward, aimed to help

strangers/beneficiaries, and on either a long-term basis or in a formal setting (Cnaan, Handy &

Wadsworth, 1996). Ellis and Noyes (1990) identified the importance of free will and saw

volunteering as a positive social action, performing an act without coercion and going beyond

one's basic obligations. To define volunteerism narrowly would entail that: the activity is done

completely of one's free will, with no material rewards whatsoever, to complete strangers, and

within an organization or as a long-term behavior (Haski-Leventhal, 2009).

The similarities between the definitions of altruism and volunteerism reflect the

relationship between the two. The major difference that appears is the concept of free will in

volunteerism. The lack of free will in the definition of altruism has been in part due to the fact

that in altruistic acts, the help given is perceived to be reflexive and a sense of duty based on

conscience or perceived social norms and duties (Monroe, 1996). It has been argued that in every

motivational theory (especially in the motivation to work) there are different perceptions of

human nature that will guide the theory and the subsequent managerial strategy (Schein, 1980).

The perception of humans as both rational and economical underlies most theories of altruism

and volunteerism in social sciences (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). The perception of economical man means that people are primarily motivated by economical incentives for their own needs, desires, satisfaction and survival (Schein, 1980). The egocentric approach claims that what motivates a person to volunteer or help another are the tangible and perceived benefits gained either directly or indirectly. This egocentric approach, however, rejects the idea that there lies an altruistic motivation to volunteer or to help, and only perceives satisfaction and benefits to the self as the "true" motives (Chlohesy, 2000; Khalil, 2004). Taking the egocentric approach ignores the emotional process of the person volunteering, including feelings of empathy and sympathy. Developmental psychology began on the basis that egoism and aggression shift with age (Piliavin & Charng, 1990) and that altruism is a byproduct of socialization as humans are "programmed" not only to be egoistic, but that under certain conditions altruism will present itself (Hoffman, 1978). Bandura's theory of social learning (1963, 1977) provides the foundation with which Piliavin (2000) emphasizes that altruism develops through practice and exposure. Exploring developmental psychology of altruism led to research on age and volunteering behavior (Pearce, 1993; Wilson, 2000). Leisure time and altruistic tendencies increase as people get older leading to the higher frequency of volunteering among older people (Putnam, 2000). In studying patterns of volunteering throughout the life cycle, the continuity theory of aging was developed (Atchley, 1971, 1989). This theory posits that people of an older age make decisions and behave according to patterns form from a younger age.

Social psychology explores the nature of prosocial behavior as a result of the interaction between a person and their environment (Bierhoff & Rohmann, 2004). Studies of this nature accentuate social norms and values, emotional reactions, situational factors, and social relations between helpers and receivers (Batson, 1991; Monroe, 1996). Delving further into social

psychology, studies examined personality traits and their impact on volunteering and found that empathic ability, self-efficacy, inner locus control, strong morality, and self image influence the propensity to volunteer (Bekkers, 2004; Penner, 2004; Piliavin & Chang, 1990; Smith, 1994;). Two factors have been found to be related to volunteering: a sense of helpfulness and other-oriented empathy, and feeling responsible for others' welfare (Penner, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). People with "prosocial personalities" have an inclination to volunteer twice as much when volunteering necessitates overcoming difficulties and obstacles (Herman & Usita, 1994; Lau et al., 2004; Spitz & McKinnon, 1993). Volunteering relates to a psychological sense of community in two ways: enhances the sense of community, and a strong sense of community predicts future volunteering (Okum & Michel, 2006). Cultural capital, human capital, and social capital have also been found to predict future volunteering (Wilson & Musick, 1998). Social psychology has also affected the study on volunteer motivations, which has been defined as "internal, psychological forces that move people to overcome obstacles and become involved in volunteer activity" (Clary et al., 1996, p. 486). With regards to volunteering, volunteer motivations has been the most studied as scholars aim to understand the gap between the egocentric approach and volunteering (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Fitch, 1987; Pearce, 1993; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Qureshi et al., 1983; Yeung, 2004; Zakour, 1994). Volunteerism and motives are innately linked as motives form the basis for: deciding to volunteer, when to volunteer, and how to volunteer.

Volunteers and Motivation

The concept of volunteerism as a personal sacrifice has long been of particular interest to social behaviorists (Batson, 1991; Eisenbert, 1986; Latane & Darley, 1970; Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981; Staub, 1978). Within the context of helping there are two types:

spontaneous helping and planned helping (Clary et al., 1998). Volunteerism falls under the type of planned helping as it "calls for considerably more planning, sorting out of priorities, and matching of personal capabilities and interests with type of intervention" (Benson et al, 1980). As a result, volunteers: actively seek out opportunities to be of assistance, deliberate for substantial amounts of time about whether to volunteer, decide their amount of involvement, and determine the amount to which certain activities fit with their own personal needs, and decide to make a commitment that may extend over a considerable amount of time and that may necessitate personal spending (Clary et al, 1998). Social exchange theory has served as the basis of explanation for many studies focused on volunteering (Black & DiNitto, 1994; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1999; Qureshi et al., 1983). Social exchange theory conjectures that people act for some future obscure benefit (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). With this, volunteers are seen as people who give their time to help others in order to receive benefits in return that are either intrinsic or extrinsic (Cnaan & Amrofel, 1994; Gidron, 1978). The voluntary aspect that defines and characterizes volunteerism suggests that undertaking a motivational perspective may be the productive approach to understanding volunteers. As motivation answers the question of what moves people to volunteer, exploring motives is the next logical step in developing an understanding of volunteer motives at Alabama events, the role motives may play in organization commitment, desire to repeat volunteer, intention to recruit additional volunteers, and the affect motives play on the event's ability to recruit.

One such tenet of understanding motives involves the psychological strategy of functional analysis, an approach that is explicitly concerned with the reasons and the purposes, and the plans and the goals, that underlie and generate psychological phenomena- or rather, the

personal and social functions being served by an individual's thoughts, feelings, and actions (Snyder, 1993). The themes of functionalism appear in varied perspectives emphasizing both the adaptive and purposeful strivings of individuals toward personal and social goals (Cantor, 1994; Snyder, 1993) such that people can and will do the same actions, while servicing different psychological functions. Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) and Katz (1960) present, by most accounts, the most familiar examples of functional theorizing in personality and social psychology pertaining to peoples' attitudes and persuasion; they propose that uniform attitudes could serve different functions for different people and that attempts to change attitudes would succeed to the extent that they addressed the functions served by those attitudes. One contribution of social psychology places emphasis on the concept that people adapt and alter their attitudes during their life to fulfill different psychological functions (Katz, 1960). However, the scope has broadened of functionalist theorizing to include cognitive, affective, behavioral and interpersonal phenomena (Cantor, 1994; Snyder, 1992, 1993). These phenomena serve to further unravel the complex motivational foundations of volunteer activity (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Snyder & Omoto, 1992). At the core of functional analysis of volunteerism is that while acts of volunteerism appear similar on the surface, underlying motivational processes may be distinctly different and that functions served by volunteerism manifest themselves in the continued unfolding dynamics.

Understanding the functions served by volunteers has been built on the classic theories of attitudes offered by Smith et al. (1956) and Katz (1960). Functional analysis studies reveal that people volunteer in order to satisfy one or more needs or motives (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder 1995, 2002). Identical volunteer work can provide different functions based on the individual. These reasons are not stagnant; they are living or changing

over time. The functional view maintains that people continue to help to the extent that their experience fulfills relevant motives (Davis, Hall & Meyer, 2003; Van Dyne & Farmer, 2005). Houle, Sagarin, and Kaplan (2005) found that individuals chose volunteer tasks that they perceived would satisfy the motives that were of upmost importance to them. Motive fulfillment correlates also with later volunteer activity. Numerous studies have evolved researching volunteer motives. Motives have been categorized through different models. A three dimensional model consisting of altruism, egoism, and social motivation (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) and an octagonal model built of four dimensions: getting-giving, action-thought, newness-continuity, and proximity-distance (Yeung, 2004) have both been designed to explore volunteer motives. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) compiled a list of 28 volunteer motives loading on a single factor indicating that volunteer motivation is one-dimensional. However, later studies have shown that volunteer motivation is multi-faceted (Gerstein, Anderson & Wilkeson, 2004; Okun, Barr & Herzog, 1998). One study identified six categorical factors that encompassed volunteer motives: values (expressing values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others), understanding (acquiring new learning experiences and/or exercise skills that might otherwise go unused), ego enhancement (growing and developing psychologically and increasing self-esteem), career (gaining career-related experience and increasing job prospects), social (strengthening social relationships and satisfying normative expectations) and ego protective (reducing negative feelings about oneself or addressing personal problems) (Clary et. al, 1998). From the six categorical factors, they then took a functionalist approach to arrange these factors into subscales creating the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). A study with an open ended probe approach for motivation determination further supported VFI and the subsequent categories; however, the

study revealed enjoyment, religiosity, and team building as additional motives (Allison, Okun & Dutridge, 2002).

Several studies of volunteerism have found varying degrees of relationship between the significance of individual motives and amount of involvement with volunteering. One study showed a positive correlation between the amounts of time spent volunteering and the values and understanding motives (Finkelstein, 2008). Yet, another study found a positive correlation between time and motive strength (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). Motives for volunteering also acts as a predictor in the amount of time individuals spent volunteering over an eleven month time span (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). However, as a predictor of amount of time, Finkelstein et al. (2005) found that the correlation was weak. An Independent Sector (2001) survey found that 44 percent of adult volunteers began to do so in their adolescent years and that those who as adolescents volunteered have twice the chance to volunteer later as adults.

Utilizing multiple motives is beneficial in both recruiting and retaining volunteers as it allows managers of volunteers to target persuasive communications, assign tasks, and structure experience to specific volunteers (Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1994). For example, if a volunteer's motives are for social opportunities the method that would be most successful in recruiting them could be social networking sites like Facebook or Twitter that let them see how many people are involved and can demonstrate the ability to satisfy the social need. Motives are constantly evolving and managers need to account for those shifts over time (Boling, 2006; Gidron, 1984). The initial motives for volunteers are not always the motives for continuing to volunteer (Finklestein, 2008; Okun & Schultz, 2003; Starnes & Wymer, 2001).

Volunteer management has traditionally taken a human resources perspective (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye & Darcy, 2006). This approach misses the core difference between volunteers and

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paid workers; volunteers construct their volunteering as a leisure activity (Stebbins, 1982; Williams, Dossa & Tompkins, 1995). The element of volunteerism as a leisure activity has led researchers to view volunteers as consumers (Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Volunteer managers must face the challenges from the realm of consumer behavior. Volunteering motives and leisure activity motives mirror each other as both are based on the construct that they are noncompulsory activities freely chosen by the individual as the way they wish to spend their spare time. Leisure studies have shown that past experience with an activity can influence perceptions of the resources available through the activity (Hammitt, Baclund & Bixler, 2004; McFarlane, 2004). Experience use history (EUH) has been coined to conceptualize past use experience and frequency of use (Schreyer, Lime, & Williams, 1984). Such that EUH conceives that an experience with an activity or an organization/setting seemed to expand participants' understanding of the potential benefits that can be obtained through participation (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). More experienced volunteers often identify different motives than less experienced volunteers do. Differences noted between experienced volunteers and inexperienced volunteers may be a function of the socialization process that naturally occurs in the course of interactions with the organization and the staff, constituents and fellow volunteers served by the organization (Warner, Newland & Green, 2011). The socialization process serves as a strong tool in transferring organizational norms and values (Bandura, 1977) thus greatly impacting volunteers' experiences. As the volunteer continues to interact with an organization and its culture, it may likely condition the volunteer to value different benefits or even discover new benefits.

The effect of socialization on motives lends itself to a slanted view of volunteer motives. Few studies like the one conducted by Eley and Kirk (2002), have the ability to conduct

volunteer motivation research before they have been exposed to significant interactions with the organization; most are conducted after (Costa et al., 2006; Farrell et al., 1998; Green & Chalip, 2004). The timing of the studies creates the challenge of knowing clearly that the motives identified have not already been affected by socialization process thereby creating a possibility that said motives may not map directly back to the original motives for volunteering. Socialization does not, however, create the only conundrum in understanding volunteer motives. Volunteers are compelled to participate by multiple motives. In studies of volunteer motivation, nearly all motives are identified as important (Eley & Kirk, 2002). Understanding volunteer motivations can be appealing to volunteer managers; however, it neither guarantees satisfaction nor a positive experience. Volunteers, if given an option, will choose tasks that they perceive as satisfying their most important individual motives (Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan, 2005). Multiple studies have shown that when volunteering met their objectives for helping, individuals reported greater satisfaction and stronger intentions to continue volunteering than when those motives were not met or irrelevant motives where met (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Stukas, Daly & Cowling, 2005). Volunteer managers would ideally like to cater to all motives, but that creates a serious drain on resources (Warner, Newland & Green, 2011). As addressing all motives is neither a practical nor viable option, choosing the motives that have the most impact is the clear route to go. However, the overlap of motives creates a challenge for volunteer coordinators to identify the motives that would prove most beneficial as it relates to volunteer outcomes. Looking at volunteers' satisfaction provides volunteer coordinators with a better look at which motives are more beneficial in meeting the desired volunteer outcomes.

Volunteers and Satisfaction

Satisfaction is a key component of the functional approach to the volunteer process. The fulfillment of motives, rather than their importance, is what sustains volunteerism (Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003; Van Dyne & Farmer, 2004). Central to functional analysis is the proposition that people continue volunteering if the experience satisfies or fulfills their initial reasons for helping (Clary et al., 1994; Clary et al., 1998). Implicit or explicit in functional analysis is the assumption that motives that are met serve as predicators for helping because fulfillment produces volunteers who are more satisfied. Satisfaction, in turn, sustains volunteer activity (Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Satisfaction has been defined as the difference between what one wants and what one obtains (Chelladuari, 2006). Volunteers are both customers and employees requiring understanding of both customer satisfaction and employee/job satisfaction. The concept of customer satisfaction was first introduced by Cardozo (1965) and has been the basis of many studies since (Oliver, 1980; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Barry, 1985; Yi, 2000). The American Customer Satisfaction Index and the National Customer Satisfaction Index are measured and announced annually since the 1990s as a base point of objective data. Theories of customer satisfaction have become increasingly more sophisticated in the last two decades (Kim & Han, 2013). Exploring the constructs of satisfaction for customers has shown that "customers' judgment about whether satisfaction state (cognitive judgment) was provided at a pleasant level (emotional judgment) (Oliver, 1997). Yi (2000) explored customer satisfaction as the result of outcomes and process. Outcomes as it relates to customer satisfaction are the cognitive state or emotional response of consumers in terms of the extent to which they perceive the price to be fair. Process focused satisfaction views customers' satisfaction as an evaluation that a given

experience is better than what was expected (Kim & Han, 2013). The benefits of customers'

satisfaction are reflected through repeat purchases (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1996) and

consumer loyalty (Fitzell, 1998; Reynolds & Beatty, 1999). Retaining existing customers, while

attracting new patrons serves at the core of business strategy, success and longevity as it is six

times more likely to reduce costs versus attracting new ones (Rosenberg & Czepiel, 1983).

Establishing customer loyalty effectively reduces costs and increases profit (Recicheld & Sasser,

1990; Lee & Hong, 2002), while increasing word-of-mouth communication (Zeithaml, Berry &

Parasuraman, 1996).

Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable explaining how individuals feel about their jobs

and a state of positive emotion resulting from the appraisal of individuals' experience (Locke,

1976). Locke (1976) divided job satisfaction into intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction.

Intrinsic satisfaction emphasized psychological and emotional aspects. Extrinsic satisfaction

places an emphasis on reward aspects. Intrinsic satisfaction means a sense of satisfaction from

the inherent value of the work itself, such as the diversity of the work, the importance of the

work and the challenges of the work. On the other hand, extrinsic satisfaction is impacted by

pay, working conditions, fringe benefits which are delivered externally according to job

performance. Various aspects such as social interaction, coworkers, self-esteem, career, work

details, and communication affect volunteers' job satisfaction. There is a tendency of volunteers

to evaluate the experience relative to motives for volunteering; therefore, a volunteer's

experience may be dissatisfying when expectations of the volunteer activity are not fulfilled

(Farrell et al., 1998).

The relationship connecting job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been

researched thoroughly (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2001;

Finkelstein, 2008). As job satisfaction correlates with decreased turnover (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) and organization commitment (Scwepker, 2001) the importance of job satisfaction is amplified. Volunteer managers must meet both the demands of the volunteer as a customer and as an employee. Their ability to limit turnover can free resources from recruiting and training and divert them towards furthering organizational objectives (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001, Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Organization commitment serves as a predictive indicator for turnover (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Volunteers with these high levels of commitment volunteer for longer periods (Finkelstein, 2008) and repeat their service (Coyne & Coyne, 2001). When volunteers are more satisfied, they are more likely to enjoy their experience, inspire others to volunteer and repeat volunteer (Finkelstein, 2008; Doherty, 2005; Coyne & Coyne, 2001).

Satisfaction for volunteers was also met if the organization managed to fulfill the needs of the individual (Finkelstein, 2008; Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007; Farrell et al., 1998). The degree to which volunteers' expectations were met by the organization directly correlated to the level of satisfaction experienced (Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). Studies have also revealed the importance of satisfaction as an influential factor in explaining behavior (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) found that group integration and participation efficacy are significantly correlated with volunteer satisfaction and often predict intent to remain. Matching tasks with volunteers' interests and providing the opportunity to learn new skills also helped in meeting the expectations of satisfied volunteers (Finkelstein, 2008). Volunteer scheduling, factoring in preferences for days, times and groups also plays a role in overall satisfaction (Gordon & Erkut, 2004).

Job satisfaction for volunteers also impacts service quality. Service quality has been linked to organizational performance and productivity (Park, 1995; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996).

Service quality as a concept has been of particular interest to the service sector since the 1980's (Lehtinen, 1982; Gronroos, 1984; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988). The concept of service quality has been defined as "an overall judgment or attitude in relation to excellence of service" (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988, p. 44). The degree of consumers' perceptions and expectations impacts perceived quality (Yi & Lee, 1997) and has been comprised of three components: technical/physical, interactive/functional, and image quality (Gronroos, 1984; Lehtinen, 1982). Of those three, the functional quality component serves to be the most important (Saleh & Ryan, 1991). The development of the SERVQUAL model was intended to measure service quality and identified ten factors that are dependent on each other: reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, knowledge of customer, and tangibles (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985). Subsequent work extended this model by classifying the factors into dimensions: tangibility, responsiveness, reliability, empathy, and assurance (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988). Job satisfaction and service quality have been found to be interrelated (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985; Bitner, 1990; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991). Employees' perception of job satisfaction and service ability was found to have a positive correlation with their perception of service quality and that service ability is an important factor increasing job satisfaction (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991). A low level of job satisfaction can also reduce the level of service performance, indicating that the higher the level of job satisfaction, the more likely the customer will receive attitudes and behaviors that are in line with their needs and wants as a customer (Lee, 2005; Oh & Yoon, 2011). While both motives and satisfaction are able to address volunteers, separately neither is able to provide a complete picture. Certain quality management

tools are able to establish the relationship between motives and satisfaction and provide a complete picture of the volunteers' experience.

Volunteers and Quality Management

The vast majority of volunteer satisfaction research is one-dimensional. The focus has been on aspects that have the potential to satisfy volunteers (Finkelstein, 2008; Green & Chalip, 2004; Farrell et al., 1998) instead of "hygiene factors" (Herzberg, 1966) that may not enhance satisfaction, but have the ability to dissatisfy. Volunteers are either asked to indicate their overarching satisfaction with the experience, or they are asked a series of questions aimed at measuring satisfaction with a variety of job satisfaction elements (Warner et al., 2011). Satisfaction studies focus on an element and ask participants to identify on a continuum scale from 'dissatisfied' to 'satisfied'. The one-dimensionality of satisfaction fails to provide an adequate picture of the volunteer experience as it falls short on identifying the quality of the experience. While satisfaction provides a more sufficient picture of understanding volunteer management in comparison to motivation, it still fails to provide an inclusive picture of the volunteer experience in its entirety.

To gain a complete picture of the quality of the organization's systems, Total Quality Management (TQM) serves as a beneficial framework. Total Quality Management has been used in a supporting role to explore and understand various service quality issues (Lentell & Morris, 1995; Van Hoecke & De Knoe, 2006), but does not account for volunteers as an integral part of the framework. Volunteers present a challenge in traditional TQM studies as they play a complex role as both consumers and providers ultimately creating difficulty categorizing them into traditional customer service models. The underlying goal of TQM is to motivate and satisfy everyone in the organization as top management implements a system where everyone can meet

or exceed the needs and expectations of their customers (Miller, 1996). Total Quality

Management is used in multiple industries from manufacturing to hospitality.

As TQM emphasizes continuous improvement and satisfaction, it lays the foundation for

improving volunteer management tools. Total Quality Management is an ongoing systematic

process utilized by an organization that takes whatever steps are necessary to enable everyone in

the organization to establish and achieve standards designed to meet or exceed the needs and

expectations of customers, both internal and external (Miller, 1996). As previously mentioned,

volunteers are both internal and external customers. While they work for the organization,

viewing them solely as internal customers falls short on the nature of the relationship between

organization and volunteer. Although there is a unique relationship between the organization and

the volunteers, the aspect of everyone in the organization enables TQM to serve as a useful tool.

The duality of volunteers as both an internal and external customer creates a sense of competing

needs as there has traditionally been one way to view external customers and one way to view

internal customers. As TQM takes an all encompassing look, the scope of "everyone" recognizes

the volunteers as both internal and external.

While TQM has served as an appropriate service managing tool, none have considered

volunteers as an integral part of their model (Warner, Newland & Green, 2011). The blend of

volunteers as providers and customers makes understanding and meeting their needs more

complex. Within TQM, the Kano Method is a tool that has been successfully used to delve into

the intricacies of customer satisfaction. Dr. Noriaki Kano developed the method as a primary

quality management and marketing tool. It is also beneficial as a way to evaluate internal and

external customer experiences. The focus on experiences serves as an applicable method in

understanding the leisure experience aspect of volunteers. As the leisure experience is what

differentiates volunteers from paid workers, the Kano Method provides an avenue into volunteer management that current measures of motivation and satisfaction fail to provide.

The Kano Method is based on the Two-Factor Theory or Motivation-Hygiene Theory proposed by Herzberg (1966) that was used to explain employee satisfaction. Herzberg made the distinction between factors that related to job satisfaction and factors that related to job dissatisfaction. Loosely explained, factors that made the job satisfying were not the same factors that made the job dissatisfying. In other words, the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction, not dissatisfaction. The Two-Factor Theory showed that intrinsic factors were associated with satisfaction and extrinsic factors were linked with dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; 1968). From Herzberg's work came the implication that satisfaction is not necessarily able to be measured on a single continuum scale, but rather that Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers were separate constructs.

Building on Herzberg's separate constructs theory, Kano built his model to assist in product development and act as a tool to understanding and evaluating customer satisfaction (Kano et al., 1968). Customer satisfaction is a prerequisite for competitiveness in the market and the Kano model serves as a beneficial tool (Chen, 2012; Chen & Chuang, 2008). Organizations make a consistent effort to improve their customers' satisfaction, but often find that they are constrained by limited resources (Chang, Hsiao, Huang, & Chang, 2011). The two-dimensional model has been adopted by a wide range of industries, including product design (Chen & Chuang, 2008), urban development (Llinares, Page, & Llinares, 2013), tourism (Fuller, 2007; Pawitra, 2003; Shahin, 2004), healthcare (Hejaili, 2009; Jane, 2003), and consumer products (Lee, 2009; Tontini, 2007; Wang, 2010; Yang, 2005). Volunteer management mirrors product development in industry in that the benefits emanate from understanding experiences and satisfaction of those experiences. Kano's Model (Figure 1) is created on customers' expectations

and preferences. Elements that are solely connected to satisfaction are the Attractive Elements.

Those elements that are entirely related to dissatisfaction are Must-Be Elements. Kano's Model

takes into account that some elements, while not reflected in Figure 1, do not have the ability to

either satisfy or dissatisfy and are known as Indifferent elements. This model advances past

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory because it also has One-Dimensional elements that depending on

their functionality can serve as satisfiers or dissatisfiers. Kano's Method further advances

Herzberg's in that the flexibility to adapt to evolving industries and markets exists (Matzler,

Fuchs, & Schubert, 2004).
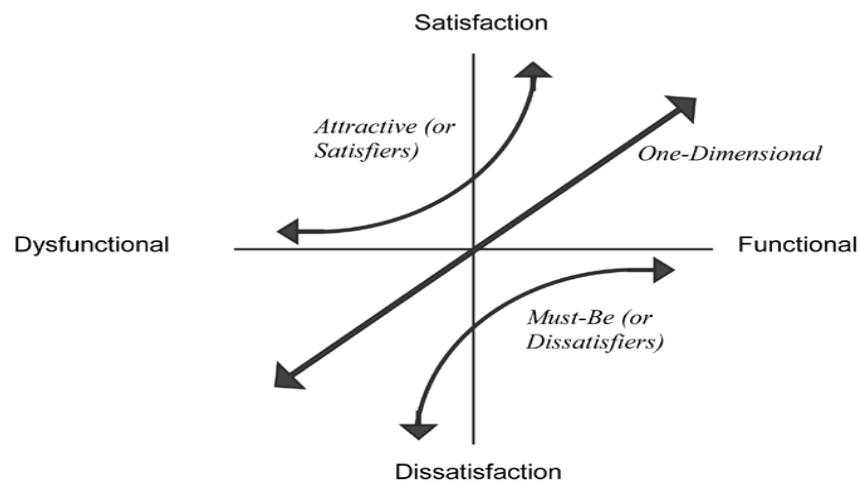
Note: Indifferent elements also exist, but do not satisfy or dissatisfy.

Figure 1. Kano Model

The flexibility offered in Kano's Method is particularly crucial in volunteer management

due to the amalgam nature of volunteers as employees and customers. The classification of

satisfiers and dissatisfiers affords managers a simpler method when evaluating and prioritizing

improvements to achieve a high reward with minimum negative impact. Must-Be elements are

categorized as the highest priority as the absence of these elements can only result in volunteer

dissatisfaction. One-Dimensional elements are recognized next as they too have the ability to

result in dissatisfaction. As Attractive elements only have the ability to add to satisfaction they

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are prioritized next. Indifferent elements neither contribute nor detract and therefore are not

relevant in factoring priorities. Accordingly, the Kano model should serve as a useful tool for

building and maintaining effective volunteer systems.

One of the primary contributions of the Kano model is that the relationship between

attributes and satisfaction has proven to be not always linear (Gregory & Parsa, 2012). Kano's

model addresses the linear shortcomings of SERVQUAL when looking to improve the

satisfaction of volunteers. SERVQUAL serves as a way to look at continuous process

improvement, but not improvement based on consumer preferences (Tan & Pawitra, 2001). The

Kano model also offers an understanding of the nature of customer feedback such that volunteer

managers receive: confirmation of choice when compromises are required and service

differentiation in an increasingly competitive and limited volunteer pool (Tan & Pawitra, 2001).

Ultimately, because the Kano model has demonstrated to be an appropriate approach to

developing expectation, performance, and improvement strategies (Emery & Tian, 2002; Emery

& Tolbert, 2003) it can be utilized with volunteer managers to improve volunteer satisfaction,

despite the complex nature of volunteers. The succeeding chapter outlines how this study utilized

existing research and methodology, as well as detailing the steps of the study.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Introduction

Creative thinking has been described as man's most fundamental human resource (Gebremedhin & Tweeten, 1994). The thought process forms the basis for communication as the quality of our communication is dependent on the quality of our thinking. However, creative thinking is not just a measurement of intelligence; it is a reflection of skills acquired through training. Beyond creative thinking is critical thinking that involves making judgments, evaluating procedures, and/or considering alternative actions. Scientific research, if it is to be valuable and effective, and technical writing reflects critical scientific thinking (Gebremedhin & Tweeten, 1994). It is worth clarifying that the use of the word "scientific" is a descriptive term, rather than a definitive term and thereby encompasses many methods (McGarry, 1936).

Ultimately, scientific thinking requires a foundation for understanding the scientific research method that must be undertaken in order to produce the desired end results. The first step in establishing that foundation is organization, such that a researcher's thoughts are in a logical pattern. The thought process is "closely related to the development of a professional background, the adoption of an organized program of reading, and a concentrated effort to understand the methods of observation, experimentation, and interpretation" (Gebremedhin & Tweeten, 1994, p.1). The study combined the researcher's experience and interest in event planning and operations, an extensive review of the existing literature, and coursework focusing on research methods to develop this research project. The purpose of this study was to examine

the relationship between volunteer motivation and volunteer satisfaction for volunteers at events in the state of Alabama.

This chapter serves to accomplish four goals: (1) describe the research methodology and steps taken, (2) explain the sample selection and process, (3) describe the procedure used in designing the instrument and collecting the data, and (4) provide an overview of the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

Overview

The increased complexity of business enterprises necessitated the need for quality management. Producers used to be able to compare customer requirements to their work and estimate the products value (Mauch, 2010). Studies defining quality and its evaluation are important in providing conceptual guidelines for quality planning and assurance activities (Schvaneveldt, Enkawa & Miyakawa, 1991). Traditional quality management focused on establishing procedures to determine product consistency, thus requiring fairness and objectivity to play an unequivocal role in the determination of the appropriate quality procedures (Mauch, 2010).

This study aimed to identify how events held in Alabama can optimize volunteer satisfaction, while minimizing dissatisfaction by utilizing the quality management tool, the Kano Model. By determining which elements serve as Attractive, Must-Be, One-Dimensional or Indifferent, events can effectively prioritize elements that will lead to continuous improvement, for both the event and the volunteers. Thus, this study was expected to:

(1) Investigate the relationship between satisfaction and key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal alignment) in Alabama events

(2) Examine potential satisfaction and motivation differences between differing types of events in Alabama (e.g. food, cultural, arts)

(3) Identify the degree to which motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events (i.e., organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal alignment)

(4) Investigate the relationship between satisfaction and key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal alignment) in Alabama events

Research Questions

As the thought process into a specific situation or phenomenon progresses, it is articulated as a problem and generally phrased as a question (Gebremedhin & Tweeten, 1994). The investigation then seeks to find a viable solution or goal to the question or questions asked. This study addresses four research questions based on the reviewed literature and intended outcomes of the study.

(1) Is overall volunteer satisfaction impacted by initial motives to volunteer? What is the relationship between motivation and satisfaction? Can volunteers have a satisfactory experience, if their motives were not met?

(2) Are volunteers working in each event category prioritize elements differently? Are the expectations of volunteers dependent on the festival type (e.g. art, food, culture)?

(3) To what degree do motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events? What is the role motives play in: developing organization commitment, desire to repeat volunteer, intention to recruit additional volunteers, affecting the event's ability to recruit volunteers?

(4) What relationship exists between volunteer satisfaction and key outcomes in Alabama

events? What level of satisfaction must be reached in order for events to achieve noted

key outcomes (organization commitment, intention to repeat volunteer, intention of

volunteers to recruit volunteers, ability of event to recruit volunteers, and goal

alignment)?

The nature of the research questions and the subsequent answers to those questions dictates the

researcher's thinking and the method of study best suited to address those questions.

Research Methodology

Research has been defined as the systematic and objective recording and analysis of

controlled empirical observations that may lead to the development of principles, laws, or

theories resulting in prediction and potential controlling of events (Best & Kahn, 1986). While

physical science experiments control all but one variable, in social sciences the same cannot be

done. Variables can rarely be held constant in an effort to isolate the impact of just one variable

on outcomes. Characteristics of research can be summarized as follows (Best & Kahn, 1986):

1) Research is directed towards either the problem's solution or its answer. The cause-and-

   effect relationship between measures is sought.

2) Research seeks to develop principles, laws, or theories in an effort to predict future

   occurrences.

3) Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence. It involves

   gathering new data from primary sources or utilizing existing data from published

   sources.

4) Research must have useful, factual observation and description, and that is accurate and

   measurable.

5) Research should be objective and logical. References are well documented, data is collected, results are analyzed, and conclusions are reached.

How the research is conducted though entails a specific research methodology. Over the past five decades, research methodology in the social and behavioral sciences has seen significant changes. Those changes are led by three methodological movements: the quantitative movement, the qualitative movement, and the mixed methods movement (Polit & Beck, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Quantitative research, with its philosophical basis of positivism, was the primary method throughout most of the twentieth century and especially the first half of the century (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In response to the dominance of quantitative research, the qualitative approach achieved its definitive breakthrough around 1970 having variants of constructivism (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). The disagreement between the two approaches has been illustrated as the "paradigm wars" (Gage, 1989). While many researchers continue to regard the two approaches as incompatible, the mixed methods movement sought to blend the two by "triangulating" information from different data sources (Campbell & Fisk, 1959; Denzin, 1978; Morse, 1991; Patton, 1990). Ultimately, the goals and objectives of the study dictate the best research method for the study.

Quantitative research methods have been defined as "explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods" (Aliaga & Gunderson, 1998). The goal of utilizing a quantitative method is to determine the relationship between one variable and another by classifying features, counting them, and constructing/exploiting statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed (Babbie, 2010). The use of a quantitative approach for this study facilitates the collection of data with a more structured

research instrument to generalize concepts more widely, predict future results, and investigate causal relationships (Babbie, 2010).

A correlational research method was employed for this study as this approach is best suited for determining the extent of a relationship between two or more variables. In this case, the variables are volunteer satisfaction and volunteer motivation. Variables are not manipulated and are only identified and studied as they occur. A survey instrument was distributed to a convenience sample of selected events and all of the volunteers working at those events were invited to participate.

Plan of research

The research plan included identifying and soliciting a sample group of volunteers from events around the state of Alabama that focused on different areas. Those areas of focus included: art, food, culture, education, sport and nature. Festivals and events were identified through the state's tourism website and by known contacts of the researcher. An individual from each organization served as the contact for their event and their volunteers. As this research was conducted as part of the requirement for degree completion at Auburn University, Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained before research began. The following sections will examine in detail the process leading to the research instrument being used.

Ethics

Protecting subjects from harm, both intentional and unintentional, necessitates extreme caution to be utilized to meet the proper procedures for conducting human research. The researcher and supervising faculty are all CITI trained and certified. The IRB of Auburn University reviewed all aspects of this study including the: study design, survey instrument, supporting literature, and potential for participant risk.

As the survey collected no identifying information and the third party electronic data collection site, Qualtrics, did not log identifying information, the risk to participants was miniscule. Ethical concerns in non-experimental designs, such as this study, pose a decreased risk with regards to harm or complexity. However, that decreased risk does not negate the investigators responsibility in providing full disclosure and consent. Full disclosure includes: the purpose of the study, intended use of the results, confidentiality of the study, rewards and/or benefits of the study, cost of participation, how long the data will be stored, and who will have access to the data.

Sample

Although sampling has, in some form, been a constant part of human history, the majority of sampling procedures in use today have relatively short history. Governments have long collected population data for taxation, military purposes, and other objectives. Those governments typically sought total enumeration, while private pollsters used availability sampling such as straw polling. Towards the end of the 19th century, United States governmental agencies began utilizing "scientific" procedures (Gallup, 1957). Sampling procedures continue to evolve, in large part because the modes of collecting data have changed.

Daniel (2012) identified six necessary steps in selecting a sample:

1) Prepare to make sampling choices.

2) Choose between sampling and taking a census.

3) Choose non-probability, probability, or mixed-methods sample design.

4) Choose the type of non-probability, probability, or mixed-methods sample design.

5) Determine the sample size.

6) Select the sample.

When preparing to make a sampling choice, specific preparation should be made. That preparation includes: a careful review of the purpose of the study, the nature of the population, available resources, research design considerations, and ethical and legal issues. It is important to note that not all guidelines are created equal or absolute. Sampling may require the researcher to balance competing and conflicting guidelines when deciding upon the appropriate sampling option (Daniel, 2012).

Choosing between sampling and taking a census requires the researcher to take proper preparation. A key part of that preparation is having a clear understanding of the risks of each option, mainly the various source of error (Daniel, 2012). The total error in a research study affects the validity of the study and is separated into two categories: sampling error and non-sampling error. Sampling error refers to the difference between a sample estimate and the true population value due to chance variation of multiple samples. When taking a census, a sampling error is avoided as the entire population was included. Sampling error when a sample design has been employed may be minimized by maximizing the sample size and sampling to optimize any homogeneity that may exist in a population. However, there are trade-offs to increased sample sizes such as costs and systematic error (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). Non-sampling error is the difference between a sample estimate and the true population value that results from factors other than random error. This type of error appears consistently higher or lower than the true population parameter (Daniel, 2012).

Once the decision to apply a sample design has been made, the researcher must choose between the two major types of sampling. There are two major types of sampling options: probability and non-probability. A third type of sampling is available that combines non-probability and probability, mixed-methods (Daniels, 2012). Probability samples provide the

most valid or credible result as they are representative of the population. However, when a researcher is unable to obtain a representative sample, the validity of non-probability samples can be increased by trying to approximate random selection, and by eliminating as many sources of bias as possible. Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling that makes use of sample populations that are easily accessible or "convenient" to the researcher (Lavrakas, 2008). Convenience sampling is used in exploratory research when the researcher needs an inexpensive approximation of the truth. Convenience sampling occurred for the majority of events used to work within budget and time constraints.

Alabama's tourism website provided the foundation of listings of events around the state. Suggestions for other potential event participants came from contacts familiar with the study and the researcher. Volunteers who participated in the survey also sent the link to acquaintances who were volunteers from other various events (88 respondents completed the survey that were not contacted directly by the researcher). There were twelve event organizers contacted by the researcher and either had an email or meeting outlining the study and objectives (Table 1).

Table 1
List of events contacted by researcher

Event Name/Organization	Event Type	Contact Method	Host City	# of Volunteers	# of Participants	Response Rate %
Children's Hands on Museum: Rubber Duck Derby fundraising event	Education	Email	Tuscaloosa	64	0	0
Mardi Gras: Series of events celebrating the time before Lent and Easter	Culture	Email	Mobile	72	0	0
Super 6: Alabama H.S. football championship	Sport	Email	Tuscaloosa	118	0	0
Tuscaloosa Half Marathon: Fundraising event with a 13.1 mile run	Sport	Email	Tuscaloosa	30	15	50
Dragon Boat Races: Boats racing on the river	Sport	Email	Tuscaloosa	60	6	10
Alabama Blues Project: Hosts multiple Blues events to get youth involved in music	Music	Email	Tuscaloosa	40	0	0
Board of Visitor's: Advisory board meetings with various events	Education	In Person	Tuscaloosa	21	4*	19
Chili Cook-off: Fundraising event	Food	In Person	Tuscaloosa	90	25	27
Al's Pals: Mentoring program pairing college kids with at-risk-youth	Education	In Person	Tuscaloosa	20	12	60
Hospice of West Alabama: 5k fundraising event	Sport	In Person	Tuscaloosa	45	30	66
UA Student Recruitment Team: Recruitment events for The University of Alabama	Sport	Email	Tuscaloosa	85	4	5
Druid City Arts Festival: Festival showcasing local artists and musicians	Art	Email	Tuscaloosa	82	4	4
			Totals	727	100**	13.7

*15 surveys were misplaced **The remaining 88 were told about this study

In an effort to protect their volunteers' anonymity and the organizations' list serve, organizations had two options for granting access to their volunteers. The first option was to

allow the researcher to come at a time convenient for the organization and distribute the survey to volunteers. The second option was to forward an email, containing the link to the electronic version of the survey, drafted by the researcher to their volunteers. Volunteers were then able to click on the link and take the survey at their convenience. The researcher has no actual knowledge that the email was in fact forwarded to volunteers. The anonymity of the survey prevents tracking whether a volunteer took the survey multiple times.

Event organizers who were contacted directly by the researcher would receive feedback on comments and suggestions from their volunteers as well as what the study revealed. The link was also passed along by participants who knew other event volunteers. A total of 188 usable results were obtained. A larger sample size reduces error and provides a more diverse population. To calculate the target sample number, the z-score for 90% with a 5% margin of error and a standard deviation of .5 resulted in a target number of 270. A higher z-score of 93% with a 6% margin of error and standard deviation of .5 created a target population of 228. The targeted ideal number of participants was 250, putting the number in the middle of 270 and 228. The total number obtained fell short by 62. Calculating a z-score of 90% with a 6% margin of error and standard deviation of .5 resulted in a target number of 188.

Instrument

The strategic importance of quality and quality management continues to become more and more evident for organizations (Anderson, Rungtusanatham, & Schroeder, 1994). Organizations of various sizes, types, e.g. manufacturing and service, and profit structures have made efforts to shape and improve their approach to quality management (Business Week, 1992). Quality management really gained popularity and traction after World War II and the rapid revitalization of the Japanese economy (Anderson, Rungtusanatham, & Schroeder, 1994).

At the head of that revitalization movement, was W. Edwards Deming, one of those credited with contributing to the revitalization (Deming, 1986; Walton, 1986; Yoshida, 1989). The Deming Management Method contained fourteen imperative statements designed to improve the quality of the organization. While the Deming Management Method outlined what should be done, it did not outline how to accomplish the end goals.

Over the past few decades, a range of quality management systems and standards have been implemented by various industries to accomplish goals such as the ones outlined by Deming (Yang, 2005). These systems aimed to achieve customer satisfaction and gain long-term trust by providing products and services that not only fulfill consumer requirements, but exceed their expectations as well (Kano et al., 1984; Kondo, 2001). Quality management systems such as TQM approach satisfaction in one-dimensional terms such that the greater the execution of desired quality features, the greater the level of customer satisfaction (Yang, 2005). However, some quality features are able to accomplish individual customer expectations without automatically assuming a higher level of customer satisfaction (Matzler & Hinterhuber, 1998). In addressing the limits of current one-dimensional approaches to concentrate on the topic of quality, several studies have endeavored to connect the physical and psychological aspects of quality in order to see how specific attributes of a product or service truly relate to customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Schvaneveldt, Enkawa & Miyakawa, 1991). The importance-performance analysis (IPA), first introduced in 1977 by Martilla and James, is one such approach that has been a popular quality tool among researchers and practitioners. The IPA is implanted by scoring the importance and performance of specific product or service attributes based on the voice of the customer (Chen, 2014). Companies are able to identify improvement priorities for services as IPA is simple and easy to use and the implications can be intuitively interpreted

(Chen, 2014). The flexibility of IPA makes it useful in various industries such as tourism and hospitality (Chang, Chen, & Hsu, 2012; Deng, 2007), health care (Yavas & Shemwell, 2001), and education (O'Neil & Palmer, 2004). Nonetheless, IPA has specific limitations as a two dimensional tool. For instance, various methods of calculating importance or performance may lead to varied interpretations and the subsequent means for correction (Bacon, 2003; Garver, 2003; Oh, 2001). Another critical problem of IPA is that the tool fundamentally ignores nonlinear and asymmetric relations between attribute performance and customer satisfaction and the flawed assumptions that the relationship between attribute performance and importance is independent could result in unnecessary changes and missed opportunities (Bacon, 2003; Oh, 2001).

Also within the approach of quality management beyond a one-dimensional scope, Kano et al. (1984) considered two aspects of any given quality attribute-"an objective aspect involving the fulfillment of quality and a subjective aspect involving the customers' perception of satisfaction". The Kano model addresses the flaw in IPA and explores the nonlinear and asymmetric relations between customer satisfaction and attribute performance (Kano et al., 1984). The performance level of differing quality attributes results in varying effects on the perception of customer satisfaction and customer dissatisfaction. When the customer satisfaction equals the level of performance it is categorized as a one-dimensional factor (Arbore & Busacca, 2011). On the other hand, the Kano model cannot identify relative importance of attributes in the same category, e.g. one-dimensional (Bi, 2012). In other words, there is no way to address which factors to prioritize that have been categorized the same, thus limiting the ability to identify improvement opportunities within a category (Tontini & Silverira, 2007).

The survey instrument (Appendix A) used in this study contained three sections (Table 2). Directions for each section appeared at the beginning of each section. The first section was designed to collect general information about the volunteer, their specific experience with this event, and ways to improve the event. This section included questions specific to the event for where they were volunteering and demographic information (age, education, income, gender, volunteer frequency and distance traveled). In an effort to better understand their particular event, a comment section was offered to solicit specific comments and suggestions.

Section two of the instrument was developed to measure general satisfaction and motivation simultaneously by asking the same paired questions for satisfaction and motivation. Existing literature revealed seven categories of potential Kano measures: rewards, education/career, skills, organizational factors, service/altruism, personal/social, and prestige. Warner et al. (2011) identified thirty-two specific items to represent each of those seven categories. After establishing those factors, an expert panel consisting of four volunteer managers evaluated the list for relevance, redundancy, and omissions. The panel labeled four items redundant and two as irrelevant within the volunteer context, thus leaving twenty-six factors. The functional and dysfunctional items were developed to establish the pairings. Upon completion of the collection of data, an error was noticed that one factor was left off of the survey and ten factors did not have complete pairings. The dysfunctional portion was not asked, thus reducing the total number of factors to be placed into Kano categories to fifteen factors.

The core focus of the Kano Method was the necessity for participants to answer paired questions that related to both the functional and dysfunctional inquiries of potential satisfiers/dissatisfiers and motivators/non-motivators. Paired responses have been answered in previous studies using the Kano Scale. Kano Scale offers five possible responses: "I like it that

way", "It must be that way", I am neutral", I can live with it that way", and "I dislike it that way". In an effort to clarify the possible responses for participants, the researcher modified the five potential responses to relate satisfaction from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and to measure motivation 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important).

Table 2
Sections of survey instrument

Section	Purpose	Sample items
Section 1	General Demographic and Volunteer Information	What is the name of the event where you are currently volunteering? What is your gender?
Section 2	To rate participants' motivating factors and level of satisfaction	I want to have a variety of tasks. I want to feel supported.
Section 3	To find the likelihood of the volunteer exhibiting any of the targeted five key outcomes	I am satisfied with my volunteer experience. I will definitely volunteer with this organization again.

In an attempt to simplify and shorten the survey, the researcher sandwiched the statements between the satisfaction responses and the motivation responses. Above both the motivation responses and satisfaction responses, there were further instructions on how participants were to answer the question. Placing further instructions in section two of the survey was done to limit confusion and prevent the possible risk of Questionable outcomes and the exclusion of further factors.

Section three of the instrument gauged five single-item outcome measures. Those items included: general satisfaction with their volunteer experience, intent to volunteer again, intent to encourage others to volunteer, commitment level to the sponsoring organization, and general belief in the goals and values of their organization. Participants' level of agreement was measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Data Collection

Upon receiving IRB approval, events were contacted and asked to allow their volunteers to participate. Distribution occurred from November 2013 to April 2014 to those organizations. Of the twelve organizations contacted directly by the researcher, four organizations (Tuscaloosa Exchange Club, Al's Pals, Board of Visitors, and Hospice of West Alabama) chose to allow the researcher to come and distribute the survey (Appendix B) in person.

Five other organizations (Tuscaloosa Half Marathon, Junior League of Tuscaloosa, UA SRT, Druid City Arts Fest, and Alabama Blues Project) distributed the email (Appendix C) to their volunteers. The link directed them to the online survey tool, Qualtrics. Qualtrics is a commonly used online survey software that allowed the researcher to custom build the survey, distribute the survey, view the results, and export the data.

Two organizations (Children's Hands on Museum and Mardi Gras) opted to receive a downloadable copy (Appendix D) of the email, print it off for their volunteers and then mail back completed surveys. Those two organizations decided that their volunteer pool would be less likely to utilize email and internet and that this method would work best. One event, Super 6 Championship, did not have email addresses for their volunteers and their volunteers were dispersed around the stadium, so a piece of paper with the link to the survey (Appendix E) was attached to the IRB approved consent letter.

Method of Analysis

The data was analyzed using IBM's SPSS, formerly Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Table 3). An evaluation table (Table 4.) adapted from Berger et al. (1993) classified each factor into one of the four Kano classifications (Attractive, Indifferent, Must-Be, and One-Dimensional). Classification is based, according to Kano, on the response with the highest

frequency (Table 5). There may be two other possible outcomes to look for, outside of the

intended four Kano classifications, Questionable and Reverse. Questionable outcomes occur

when the pairings are both answered with the same response. Case in point, a volunteer is

unlikely that the response "strongly agree" and would be used for receiving a free t-shirt and the

response "very important" would be used for not receiving a free t-shirt. This kind of response, if

infrequent, may indicate that the participant was responding randomly. If the factor was

answered like that frequently, than the question was unclear and warrants reevaluation. In this

study, Questionable outcomes must remain categorized that way as the anonymous nature of the

study prevents clarifying, changing and re-asking. Reverse outcomes identify incorrectly

categorized functions i.e. the functional pair was actually the dysfunctional. Both Questionable

and Reverse outcomes are artifacts of measurement not to be included as Kano classifications.

Table 3
Description of research questions and analyses used

Research Question	Independent & Dependent Variables	Analyses Used
Is volunteer satisfaction impacted by initial motives to volunteer?	IV: Initial Motives DV: Overall Satisfaction	Frequency, Kano Model
Is there an element priority difference among volunteers at different types of events?	IV: Event Type DV: Element Priority	Frequency, Kano Model
To what degree do motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events?	IV: Volunteer motives DV: Key outcomes	Principal Component Factor Analysis, Varimax Rotation, Rotated Component Matrix, Correlation, Multiple Regression, backward elimination
What relationship exists between volunteer satisfaction and key outcomes in Alabama events?	IV: Volunteer satisfaction DV: Key outcomes	Principal Component Factor Analysis, Varimax Rotation, Rotated Component Matrix, Correlation, Multiple Regression, backward elimination

Table 4
Description of Kano categories

Category	Description	Action Needed
Attractive	This feature provides extra product/service satisfaction when present, but does not cause dissatisfaction	Work to include the feature but prioritize after Must-be and One-dimensional
Must-Be	The absence of this feature causes dissatisfaction among consumers and diminish the frequency of use by consumers	This feature has to be included and is the number one priority
One-Dimensional	This feature can increase or decrease satisfaction. Its absence does not guarantee dissatisfaction	These features will lead to higher satisfaction but must be of quality in order increase satisfaction
Indifferent	The product/service does not provide satisfaction or dissatisfaction	Do not focus any action on features categorized as indifferent

Table 5
Kano Evaluation Table

		Dysfunctional				
		Like (1)	Must-Be	Neutral	Live With	Dislike (5)
Functional	Like (1)	Q	A	A	A	O
	Must-Be (2)	R	I	I	I	M
	Neutral (3)	R	I	I	I	M
	Live With (4)	R	I	I	I	M
	Dislike (5)	R	R	R	R	Q

A=Attractive M=Must-Be O=One-Dimensional
I=Indifferent R=Reversal Q=Questionable

In order to answer the first research question, the frequencies for the motivation variables with both the functional and dysfunctional pairings (fifteen total pairings) were found. Each frequency type (mean, median, and mode) was calculated for the variables. They were then categorized according to the appropriate Kano evaluation table. Then, the frequencies for the satisfaction variables with both the functional and dysfunctional pairings (fifteen total pairings) were found. Each type of frequency was calculated for the variables and then categorized

according to the appropriate Kano classification. To identify the relationship between motivation and satisfaction, the variables with the same classification were identified.

The second research question followed much of the same path for research question one. The frequencies for each variable within an event type were calculated. They were then classified with the corresponding Kano classification. The difference in element categorization between volunteers at differing events types was then identified.

To answer the third research question, the researcher ran the forty factors for motivation (twenty-five functional and fifteen dysfunctional) through a factor analysis with varimax rotation to reduce the total number of factors. Eigenvalues greater than one were accepted, leaving left ten components with an eigenvalue greater than one. A large number of predictor values will distort the regression analysis. The scree plot revealed that there were two possible cutoff points, three and seven. The researcher opted for three components as the degree of change between components four and seven were small. The components were then classified according to the established Kano measures. Cronbach's alpha was used as a measure of internal consistency of the scale. Upon confirmation of the components' validity, a multiple regression was conducted on each of the five targeted outcomes. A backward elimination regression was then run on the models to further provide insight into the outcome model's predictive ability.

The same process was taken for the forty satisfaction factors to answer research question four. The researcher ran the forty factors for satisfaction (twenty-five functional and fifteen dysfunctional) through a factor analysis with varimax rotation to reduce the total number of factors. Eigenvalues greater than one were accepted, leaving left twenty-five components with an eigenvalue greater than one. A large number of predictor values will distort the regression analysis. The scree plot revealed that there was one possible cutoff point, component four. The

components were then classified according to the established Kano measures. Cronbach's alpha was used as a measure of internal consistency of the scale. The results revealed by using the Cronbach's alpha confirmed the components' validity. A multiple regression was then conducted on each of the five targeted outcomes. A backward elimination regression was then run on the models to further provide insight into the outcome model's predictive ability.

Chapter 4

Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and findings from the data collected from the survey. This chapter is separated into four sections. The first section presents a detailed breakdown of the demographics of the volunteers. The second section presents the findings from the analyses run to address research question one and two, which explored the relationship between motives and satisfaction and targeted key outcomes. Next, the third section addresses the findings and results from the analyses for research question three, which looked to see if event type impacted how elements were prioritized. The fourth section summarizes the analyses for research question four, if overall volunteer satisfaction was impacted by initial motives to volunteer. As much as possible, the reporting of the results have been split from the discussion and interpretation of the results, which will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

Demographics

The first section of the survey collected basic information about the volunteers' such as age and education level, as well as their participation history as a volunteer such as frequency of volunteering and distance travelled to volunteer (Tables 6 and 7). Age was asked as an open-ended question. The minimum age for participation was 19. Ages were clustered in ten year groupings, with the exception of the under 21 group, providing a clear break point despite the fact that the first two groupings (under 21 and 21-30) were skewed with nearly two-thirds (62.8%) of the respondents falling into those clusters. Volunteer frequency was a closed-ended

question with the options: 0, 1-3, 4-5, and 6+ as possible responses. Over half (51.6%) of the participants had volunteered more than six times in the last five years, followed by 1-3 times at 34.9%, 12.4% volunteered 4-5 times and 1.1% volunteered zero times.

Education level attained had four options: High School, Associates Degree/Certificate, Bachelor's Degree, or Graduate Degree. High school completion at 39.8% had the highest majority of volunteers. The breakdown of age and education level was reflective of the number of college students who were participating. A bachelor's degree had 31.2%, graduate degree at 23.1%, and associate's degree/certificate followed at 5.9%. The high percentage of high school degrees correlated to the age demographic where 29.5% were between the ages of 19-21. The amount of volunteers under the age of thirty may have been attributed to the nature of the sampling from a college town. The sampling may be reflective of this market, but not applicable to all volunteer segment pools.

Respondents were also asked how far they travelled from home to volunteer with options: <15 miles, 15-25 miles, 26-35 miles, and >36 miles. The large majority (65.3%) stayed close to home travelling a distance less than 15 miles, followed by 15-25 miles at 19.5%. Twenty-four participants travelled over 36 miles. Respondents were also asked for the average household income with five available options: <$25,000, $25,001-$35,000, $35,001-$45,000, $45,001-$55,000, and >$55,001. In contrast to the younger age and lower education level, the majority (70.7%) of respondents had an average household income greater than $55,001. The overwhelming majority (97.3%) of respondents would volunteer again at the event they were currently volunteering and 96.3% would recruit others to their current event.

Table 6
Volunteer Demographics

	N	Percent
Volunteer frequency		
0	2	1.1
1-3 times	65	34.9
4-5 times	23	12.4
6 or more time	96	51.6
Total	186	100
Educational level		
High School	74	39.8
Associate degree/certificate	11	5.9
Bachelor's degree	58	31.2
Graduate degree	43	23.1
Total	186	100
Age		
<21	54	29.5
21-30	61	33.3
31-40	13	7.1
41-50	11	6.0
51-60	12	6.6
61-70	14	7.7
71-80	14	7.7
>80	4	2.2
Total	183	100
Distance traveled to volunteer		
<15 miles	124	66
15-25 miles	37	19.7
26-35 miles	3	1.6
>36 miles	24	12.8
Total	188	100
Willingness to repeat as a volunteer		
Yes	183	97.3
No	5	2.7
Total	188	100
Willingness to recruit others		
Yes	181	96.3
No	7	3.7
Total	188	100
Household Income		
>$25,000	17	13.8
$25,001-$35,000	8	6.5
$35,001-$45,000	5	4.1
$45,001-$55,000	6	4.9
<$55,001	87	70.7
Total	123	100

Table 7
Additional Volunteer Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
How many times have you volunteered at an event in the last 5 years?	186	3	1	4	3.15	.945
How far did you travel from your primary place of residence to volunteer?	188	3	1	4	1.61	1.020
What is the highest level of education you have attained?	186	3	1	4	2.38	1.225
What is the average household income for your house?	123	4	1	5	4.12	1.502
What is your age?	183	75	19	93	35.04	20.821

Measurement instrument properties

The measurement instrument used in this study was based on an existing instrument (Warner et al., 2011). The initial instrument underwent sampling validity to measure relevance, redundancy, and omissions. The instrument used in this study excluded some variables due to researcher error, so reliability was tested for the remaining variables. Using Cronbach's alpha to test for internal consistency reliability, the analysis produced a score of .835 which indicated that the instrument retained internal consistency. Internal consistency explained the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same construct and thus it was connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Having tested for sufficient internal consistency, a new variable was computed that summarized all functional scale items for satisfaction. Bivariate correlation was run to test for predictive validity. Using the new satisfaction variable, the correlations between each of the variables was statistically significant,

confirming the instrument had predictive validity with regards to measuring satisfaction. A new variable was also computed from all motivation functional scale items. A bivariate correlation was run with the new motivation variable revealing that all motivation variables were statistically significant and that predictive validity was present.

Relationship between Motivation and Satisfaction

Research question 1 looked to see: if overall volunteer satisfaction is impacted by initial motives to volunteer and what the relationship is between motivation and satisfaction. The Kano Model was used to address this question. The original Kano evaluation table (Table 8) asked participants to answer questions as: 'I like it that way', 'It must be that way', 'Neutral', 'I can live with it', and 'I dislike it'. The score from the paired response was matched to the coordinating classification.

Table 8
Original Kano Evaluation Table

		Dysfunctional				
		Like (1)	Must-Be (2)	Neutral (3)	Live With (4)	Dislike (5)
Functional	Like (1)	Q	A	A	A	O
	Must-Be (2)	R	I	I	I	M
	Neutral (3)	R	I	I	I	M
	Live With (4)	R	I	I	I	M
	Dislike (5)	R	R	R	R	Q

The concern that the answers would be too confusing to participants prompted the responses to be changed to a likert-type scale where motivation based responses ranged from Very Unimportant (1) to Very Important (5) and satisfaction based responses ranged from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). This change meant the answers did not translate exactly onto the Kano evaluation table (Table 9) and needed to be adjusted. For example, in the original Kano evaluation, 'I like it that way' had a value of 1 on the likert-type scale, whereas the modified response placed 'Strongly Disagree' at the 1 value on the scale.

Table 9

Kano response options adjusted

Original Kano Responses	Responses for Clarity
Must-Be	Very Important Strongly Agree
Like	Important Agree
Neutral	Neutral
Live With	Unimportant Disagree
Dislike	Very Unimportant Strongly Disagree

The frequencies for each satisfaction variable were calculated and categorized according to the modified Kano evaluation table (Table 10): Attractive, Must-be, One Dimensional, or Indifferent. As mentioned earlier, there were ten variables without a dysfunctional pairing so they were not able to be classified.

Table 10

Modified Kano evaluation table for Satisfaction Variables

		Dysfunctional				
		Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
Functional	Agree (4)	Q	A	A	A	O
	Strongly Agree (5)	R	I	I	I	M
	Neutral (3)	R	I	I	I	M
	Disagree (2)	R	I	I	I	M
	Strongly Disagree (1)	R	R	R	R	Q

Utilizing the different frequencies for the satisfaction variables produced different classifications. The mean satisfaction scores (Table 11) for the variables: 'Exciting Experience', 'Sense of Belonging', and 'Existing Skill' categorized as Attractive, 'Good Communication' categorized as One-Dimensional, and the remaining variables fell into the Indifferent category.

Table 11

Mean Satisfaction Classifications

Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
			Variety of Tasks
			Leadership Role
			Challenging Tasks
Exciting Experience			
			Seeing Inside
			Working Independently
			Making Career Contacts
			Making New Friends
Developing Existing Skill			
			Feeling Supported
Sense of Belonging			
			Qualified for Tasks
		Good Communication	
			Input Valued
			Training & Orientation

Looking at the median and the mode (Table 12) of the satisfaction variables all but one variable, 'Working Independently', registered as Attractive according to the Kano Model. 'Working Independently' categorized as an Indifferent element.

Table 12

Median & Mode Satisfaction Classifications

Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
Variety of Tasks			
Leadership Role			
Challenging Tasks			
Exciting Experience			
Seeing Inside Organization			
			Working Independently
Making Career Contacts			
Making New Friends			
Developing Existing Skill			
Feeling Supported			
Sense of Belonging			
Qualified for Tasks			
Good Communication			
Input Valued			
Training & Orientation			

The different frequencies for each motivation variable were calculated and categorized variables

according to the modified Kano evaluation table (Table 13) differently.

Table 13

Modified Kano Evaluation table for Motivation

		Dysfunctional				
		Important (4)	Very Important (5)	Neutral (3)	Unimportant (2)	Very Unimportant (1)
Functional	Important (4)	Q	A	A	A	O
	Very Important (5)	R	I	I	I	M
	Neutral (3)	R	I	I	I	M
	Unimportant (2)	R	I	I	I	M
	Very Unimportant (1)	R	R	R	R	Q

The mean motivation scores (Table 14) for all variables classified as indifferent.

Table 14

Mean Motivation Classifications

Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
			Variety of Tasks
			Leadership Role
			Challenging Tasks
			Exciting Experience
			Seeing Inside Organization
			Working Independently
			Making Career Contacts
			Making New Friends
			Developing Existing Skill
			Feeling Supported
			Sense of Belonging
			Qualified for Tasks
			Good Communication
			Input Valued
			Training & Orientation

When looking at the median and mode (Table 15) of the fifteen paired motivation variables, four variables classified as Indifferent. Those four variables included: 'Challenging Tasks', Leadership Role', 'Working Independently', and 'Making Career Contacts'. The remaining eleven variables classified as Attractive.

Table 15

Median & Mode Motivation Classifications

Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
Variety of Tasks			
			Leadership Role
			Challenging Tasks
Exciting Experience			
Seeing Inside Organization			
			Working Independently
			Making Career Contacts
Making New Friends			
Developing Existing Skill			
Feeling Supported			
Sense of Belonging			
Qualified for Tasks			
Good Communication			
Input Valued			
Training & Orientation			

Tracking the overlay of categorizations of the median and mode for the motivation and satisfaction variables (Table 16), the relationship between motivation and satisfaction that volunteers placed on each individual variable became evident. Of the fifteen paired responses, only three variables (Leadership Role, Challenging Tasks, and Making Career Contacts) did not categorize as the same classification.

Table 16

Median and Mode Motivation and Satisfaction Kano Classifications

Variable	Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
Variety of Tasks	Mot & Sat			
Leadership Role*	Sat			Mot
Challenging Tasks	Sat			Mot
Exciting Experience*	Mot & Sat			
Seeing Inside Organization	Mot & Sat			
Working Independently				Mot & Sat
Making Career Contacts	Sat			Mot
Making New Friends	Mot & Sat			
Developing Existing Skill	Mot & Sat			
Feeling Supported	Mot & Sat			
Sense of Belonging	Mot & Sat			
Qualified for Tasks	Mot & Sat			
Good Communication	Mot & Sat			
Input Valued	Mot & Sat			
Training & Orientation	Mot & Sat			

*Multiple modes exist. The smallest value was used. Motivation (Mot) & Satisfaction (Sat)

The Kano Model looks at how variables have the ability to impact a volunteer's experience with regard to satisfaction. Looking at the motivation and satisfaction variables separately had significance, which will be discussed in the subsequent chapter. Finding the variables that matched motivation and satisfaction categorizations showed the relationship between motivation and satisfaction.

Variable differences by event type

Research question 2 looked to see if volunteers working in each event category prioritize motivation elements differently and if expectations of volunteers were dependent on event type. The modified Kano Model of classification for motivation was used to identify the variables that impacted how volunteers within an event type were motivated. For this question, ten variables were not included as they were missing the dysfunctional pairing. The different frequencies were

calculated for each variable and were classified within a category based on the corresponding

Kano Classification. The mean scores (Table 17) showed less elemental priority differences

between the event types.

Table 17
Mean Motivation Classification by Event Type

Variable	Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
Variety of Tasks	Education			Art, Community, Food, Sport
Leadership Role				All
Challenging Tasks				All
Exciting Experience				All
Seeing Inside Organization	Education		Art	Community, Food, Sport
Working Independently				All
Making Career Contacts				All
Making New Friends	Art, Education			Community, Food, Sport
Developing Existing Skill	Art, Education			Community, Food, Sport
Feeling Supported	Education			Art, Community, Food, Sport
Sense of Belonging	Art, Education			Community, Food, Sport
Qualified for Tasks				All
Good Communication	Education		Art	Community, Food, Sport
Input Valued				All
Training & Orientation				All

Seven variables of the fifteen had some variation between the categories in the

classification of importance. It is important to note that the categories that exhibited variation

were the two smallest groups, Education had eleven respondents and Art had seven. The median

and mode scores (Table 18) produced a greater variety in elemental categorization.

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Table 18

Median and Mode Motivation Classification by Event Type

Variable	Attractive	Must-be	One-dimensional	Indifferent
Variety of Tasks	Education, Sport Community, Food			Art
Leadership Role	Education, Sport			Art, Community, Food
Challenging Tasks	Education			Art, Community, Food, Sport
Exciting Experience	Education, Sport Community, Food			Art
Seeing Inside Organization	Education, Community, Sport		Art	Food
Working Independently				All
Making Career Contacts	Food			Art, Community, Education, Sport
Making New Friends	All			
Developing Existing Skill	Art, Education, Food, Sport			Community
Feeling Supported	All			
Sense of Belonging	All			
Qualified for Tasks	Art, Education, Sport			Community, Food
Good Communication	Education, Sport Community, Food		Art	
Input Valued	Education, Food, Sport			Art, Community
Training & Orientation	Education, Food, Sport			Art, Community

Using the median and mode numbers revealed twelve variables that were prioritized differently between event types compared to only seven from the mean. The median and mode scores did not impact solely the smallest groups as the mean did. The median and mode frequencies showed that volunteers at different types of events do prioritize elements differently.

Motivation Outcomes

Research question 3 looked to find to what degree do motives predict key outcomes in Alabama events and what role motives play in those key outcomes? Again, those key outcomes were: developing organization commitment, belief in organization's goals and values, desire to repeat volunteer, intention to recruit additional volunteers, and satisfied experience. Reducing the total number of variables was necessary in order to conduct the regression analysis needed to determine to what degree motives played in the targeted outcomes. The researcher conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) with a varimax rotation using all of the motivation variables, forty in total, to identify the underlying grouping of variables. PCA is used when variables are highly correlated and allows the researcher to examine the interrelations among a set of variables in an effort to identify the underlying structure of those variables. Conducting a PCA reduces the number of observed variables to a smaller set of principal components that comprises the majority of the variance from the observed variables. Factor rotation obtains a cleaner and more reliable interpretation of the data (Thurstone, 1947; Cattell, 1978). Varimax rotation is one of the most commonly used rotations available (Abdi, 2003). Varimax looks for a linear combination of the original factors so that the variance of the loadings is maximized. Utilizing PCA requires having sampling adequacy. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy for the overall motivation data set was conducted to check for sampling adequacy. They KMO value was .801, which signals there was sampling adequacy for conducting a PCA. There were ten principal components (Table 19) with an eigenvalue greater than one.

Table 19
Motivation Eigenvalue

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.650	23.537	23.537	9.650	23.537	23.537
2	6.018	14.678	38.214	6.018	14.678	38.214
3	2.749	6.705	44.919	2.749	6.705	44.919
4	2.341	5.709	50.628	2.341	5.709	50.628
5	1.966	4.795	55.423	1.966	4.795	55.423
6	1.750	4.269	59.692	1.750	4.269	59.692
7	1.537	3.749	63.441	1.537	3.749	63.441
8	1.237	3.016	66.457	1.237	3.016	66.457
9	1.193	2.909	69.366	1.193	2.909	69.366
10	1.070	2.610	71.976	1.070	2.610	71.976

The scree plot (Figure 2.) showed the principal components' relative importance. There were two possible break points on the scree plot: component three and component seven. Initially, the degree of change between components four and seven was deemed to be less distinct so three components were retained.

Figure 2
Motivation Scree Plot
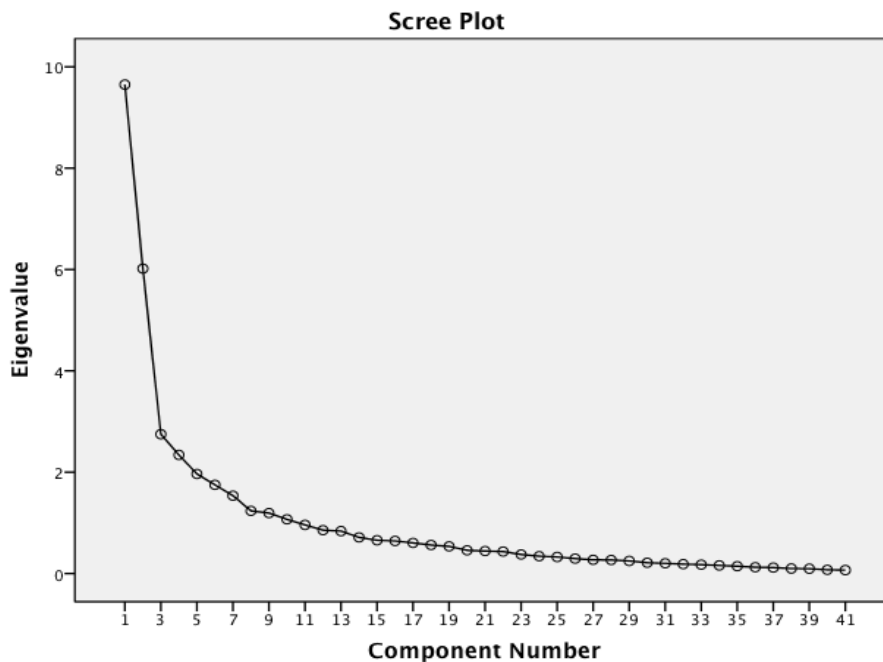
However, that left some concern that too many variables did not load onto those three components so the point was moved further out to seven components. With seven factors left, the varimax rotation for motivation (Table 20) showed the loading of each variable into the retained components. Loadings less than .500 were suppressed to make the table easier to read. Reducing the loadings any lower than .500 resulted in some variables loading onto multiple components.

Table 20
Motivation Rotated Component Matrix

Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MFVarOfTasks	-	-	.627	-	-	-	-
MFLeadRole	-	-	.591	-	-	-	-
MFChallTasks	-	-	.861	-	-	-	-
MFExcitingExp	-	-	.679	-	-	-	-
MFInsideOrg	-	-	-	-	-	.514	-
MFCareerCont	-	-	-	-	-	.660	-
MFNewFriends	-	-	-	-	-	.689	-
MFExistingSkill	-	-	-	-	-	.682	-
MFFeelSupport	-	-	-	.786	-	-	-
MFSenseBelong	-	-	-	.838	-	-	-
MFGoodComm	-	-	-	.516	-	-	-
MRecForService	-	-	-	-	.501	-	-
MFTrainOrientation	-	-	-	-	-	-	.538
MClearDirection	-	-	-	-	-	-	.857
MFreeFood	-	-	-	-	.798	-	-
MTangibleReward	-	-	-	-	.867	-	-
MPrestigeStatus	-	-	-	-	.711	-	-
MDVarOfTasks	-	.544	-	-	-	-	-
MDChallTasks	-	.802	-	-	-	-	-
MDLeadRole	-	.713	-	-	-	-	-
MDChallTasks2	-	.795	-	-	-	-	-
MDExcitingExp	-	.700	-	-	-	-	-
MDInsideOrg	-	.644	-	-	-	-	-
MDWorkIndp	-	.690	-	-	-	-	-
MDNewFriends	.866	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDExistingSkill	.813	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDFeelSupport	.835	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDSenseBelong	.894	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDQualifiedForTask	.799	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDGoodComm	.850	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDInputValued	.885	-	-	-	-	-	-
MDTrainOrientation	.845	-	-	-	-	-	-

Component 1 included the Motivation Dysfunctional variables for: making new friends,

developing existing skill, feeling supported by the organization, feeling a sense of belonging,

being qualified for tasks, receiving good communication, having their input valued, and

receiving training and orientation. Component 2 included the Motivation Dysfunctional variables

for: variety of tasks, receiving challenging tasks, having a leadership role, having an exciting

experience, seeing inside the organization, and the ability to work independently. Component 3 included the Motivation Functional variables for: variety of tasks, having a leadership role, receiving challenging tasks, and having an exciting experience. Component 4 contained the Motivation Functional variables: feeling supported by the organization, having a leadership role, receiving challenging tasks, and having an exciting experience. Component 5 had the Motivation Functional variables: recognized for service, receiving free food, looking for tangible rewards, and having prestige/status. Component 6 comprised the Motivation Functional variables: seeing inside the organization, making career contacts, making new friends, and developing existing skill. The final component, component 7, encompassed the Motivation Functional variables: receiving training and orientation, and being provided with clear direction. It is important to note, that the dysfunctional pairing of a variable is not the opposite of the functional version of the same variable. Although this difference is identified, five variables that did not have the dysfunctional pairing did not load onto the seven components. The researcher cannot make a claim that the dysfunctional variable of those pairings would have loaded.

There are seven categorical factors of potential Kano measures identified based on the volunteer literature: rewards, education/career, skills, organizational factors, service/altruism, personal/social, and prestige. While the pairings used in this study were designed to represent each of those categories (Warner et. al, 2011), the factor reduction produced components that did not completely align with each of the established Kano categorical factors. As the dysfunctional of a variable is not the same, the classifications included dysfunctional or functional in their label. Using the established Kano measures as the basis, the seven motivation components (Table 21) were able to be classified based on the variables that loaded onto each component. Having identified the variables for each of the seven components, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to

measure internal consistency of the scale. The alpha scores for each of the components scored above the accepted minimum of .600 indicating the scale has reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Table 21
Summary of Motivation Components

Motivation Component	Sample Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Component 1: Dysfunctional Service/Altruism (DF Ser/Alt)	Dysfunctional variables: career contacts, new friends, existing skill	.952
Component 2: Dysfunctional Education/Career (DF Ed/Career)	Dysfunctional variables: variety of tasks, challenging tasks, see inside organization	.883
Component 3: Functional Education/Career (F Ed/Career)	Functional variables: variety of tasks, leadership role, input valued	.802
Component 4: Functional Service/Altruism (F Ser/Alt)	Functional variables: feeling support, good communication	.809
Component 5: Prestige/Status (F Pre/Stat)	Functional variables: recognition for service, prestige/status	.789
Component 6: Functional Skills (F Skills)	Functional variables: inside organization, new friends	.739
Component 7: Functional Organization Factors (F Org Fac)	Functional variables: clear direction, training/orientation	.732

Motivation Outcomes Regression

Having identified and classified the seven motivation components, Cronbach's Alpha (Table 22) was calculated to test for internal consistency of scale for each outcome. The Alpha scores for each of the outcomes and the seven motivation components scored above the accepted minimum, .600, indicating the scale had reliability.

Table 22
Cronbach's Alpha for Targeted Outcomes

Outcome	Cronbach's Alpha
Overall Satisfaction	.848
Volunteer Again	.850
Encourage Others to Volunteer	.851
Committed to Organization	.851
Believe in Goals and Values	.848

A multiple regression of the five targeted outcomes from research questions three was conducted by the researcher. Multiple regression is used when there are more than three measurement variables. Multiple regression also serves as a predictor tool for an unknown

dependent (Y) variable corresponding to a set of independent (X) values. Participants were asked on a five point likert-type scale from 'Strongly Disagree' (1) to 'Strongly Agree' (5) for each of the outcomes. The initial p-value for one of the five outcomes (volunteer again) was statistically significant at the .05 level. A backwards regression was then run to remove the factors that were not statistically significant. Backwards elimination was chosen as it will identify if a set of variables have considerable predictive capability even though any subset of the variables may not. The backward elimination regression produced three more models that reached statistical significance. The regressions (Table 23) for the five outcomes: satisfied with volunteer experience, definitely volunteer again, definitely encourage others to volunteer, committed to the organization, and believe in the goals and value of the organization outline model fit.

Table 23.
Motivation Regression Outcomes

	Model 1 Overall Satisfaction		Model 2 Volunteer Again		Model 3 Encourage Others to Volunteer		Model 4 Committed to Organization		Model 5 Believe in Goals and Values	
	Full Model	Restrct Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model
R^2	.037	.025	.136*	.114*	.069	.050*	.092	.088*	.075	.072*
F (Sig)	.646 (.717)	3.131 (.079)	2.633 (.015)	5.184 (.002)	1.223 (.296)	3.184 (.045)	1.698 (.116)	2.301 (.049)	1.360 (.229)	3.107 (.029)
Var	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
DF Ser/ Alt	.086		.098		.056		.095	.095	.043	
DF Edu/ Car	.050		.071		-.006		.094	.094	.041	
F Edu/ Car	.008		.027		.053		.061		.010	
F Ser/ Alt	-.357		.161		.104		.141	.141	.108	.108
F Pre/ Stat	-.003		-.179*	-.179*	-.169	-.171	-.018		-.206	-.206*
F Skills	.033		.082		.040	.143	.150	.150	.010	
F Org Fac	-.092	.158	.236*	.236*	.143		.167	.167	.132	.132

*Statistically significant

In the first targeted outcome, 'Satisfied with Volunteer Experience' the regression produced an R^2 = 0.037, F(7) = .646, and p-value = 0.717. This initial model would be rejected. Restricting the model provided a model that had an R^2 = 0.025, F(7) = 3.131, and p-value = 0.079. Even restricting this model failed to create a model with a p-value that was significant. In the second targeted outcome, 'Volunteer Again', the regression produced an R^2 = 0.136, F(7) = 2.633, and p-value = 0.015. Of the seven components, Functional Prestige/Status and Functional Organization Factors were the only components that have a beta (-.179 and .236 respectively) that are significant. Restricting the model provided a model with an R^2 = .114, F(7) = 5.184, and

p-value = .002. Of the two remaining components, Functional Prestige/Status and Functional

Organization Factors both remained with a beta (-.179 and .236 respectively) that were

significant. In the third targeted outcome, 'Encourage Others to Volunteer' the regression

produced an R^2 = 0.069, F(7) = 1.223, and p-value = 0.296. This initial model would be rejected.

Restricting the model provided a model that had an R^2 =0.088, F(7) = 3.184, and p-value =

0.045. Of the two remaining components, neither had a statistically significant beta. In the fourth

targeted outcome, 'Committed to Organization' the regression produced an R^2 = 0.092, F(7) =

1.698, and p-value = 0.116. This initial model would be rejected. Restricting the model provided

a model that had an R^2 =0.088, F(7) = 2.301, and p-value = 0.049. None of the five remaining

components had a beta that was significant. The fifth targeted outcome, 'Believe in goals and

values' This regression produced an R^2 = 0.075, F(7) = 1.360, and p-value = 0.229. This initial

model would be rejected. Restricting the model provided a model that had an R^2 =0.072, F(7) =

3.107, and p-value = 0.029. Of the three remaining components, the Functional Prestige/Status

component was the only component that had a beta (-.206) that had significance.

Three of the outcome models did not have a component that despite being statistically

significant, had no variable predictors. Of the two outcome models (volunteer again and believe

in goals and values) Functional Prestige/Status was the only component that was in both. This

component included the recognition for service and prestige/status variables. Volunteers find that

these variables have the greatest impact on different levels of their opinion of their time spent

volunteering. This showed that volunteer managers were most likely to have the greatest affect

by managing those four variables.

The Functional Organization Factors component was found to be statistically significant in one of the outcomes, believe in goals and values. This component measured the variables: training/orientation and receiving clear direction.

Satisfaction Outcomes

Research question 4 looked to identify the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and these key outcomes: developing organization commitment, belief in organization's goals and values, desire to repeat volunteer, intention to recruit additional volunteers, and satisfied experience. A PCA with a varimax rotation was used for data reduction in order to run the regression analysis to determine the relationship between satisfaction and the targeted key outcomes. The KMO for the satisfaction variables was below the .800 level at .786. However, Norman & Streiner (1994) still consider a KMO level above .700 as evidence of adequate sampling. Eleven components (Table 24.) scored an eigenvalue greater than one. The researcher acknowledged that leaving unused data that may be statistically significant was a risk; however, the large number of components to include in a multiple regression dictated that the total number of components be reduced.

Table 24
Satisfaction Eigenvalue and Variance

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.982	24.956	24.956	9.982	24.956	24.956
2	3.340	8.350	33.306	3.340	8.350	33.306
3	2.716	6.790	40.096	2.716	6.790	40.096
4	1.937	4.843	44.939	1.937	4.843	44.939
5	1.815	4.537	49.476	1.815	4.537	49.476
6	1.601	4.003	53.479	1.601	4.003	53.479
7	1.407	3.516	56.995	1.407	3.516	56.995
8	1.303	3.258	60.253	1.303	3.258	60.253
9	1.195	2.987	63.241	1.195	2.987	63.241
10	1.137	2.843	66.084	1.137	2.843	66.084
11	1.001	2.503	68.587	1.001	2.503	68.587

The scree plot (Figure 3.) showed the best place to make the reduction from eleven was at component four. The degree of change between component four and five was small, and the line remained fairly flat from component five on out.

Figure 3
Satisfaction scree plot
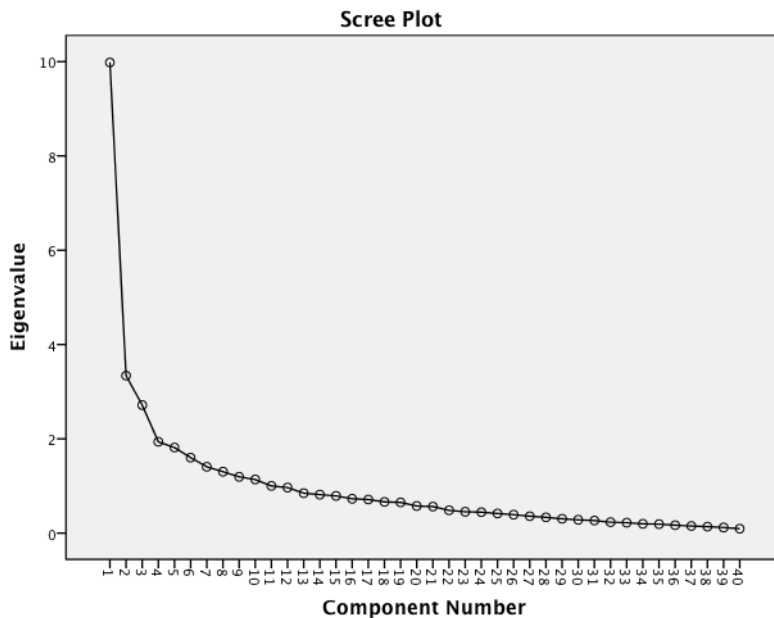
With four factors retained (Table 25), the varimax rotation for satisfaction showed the loading of each variable into the remaining components. The initial loadings were for variables

above .500. The concern was that this left too many variables out. Loadings greater than .300 and

less than .430 were considered except it caused numerous variables to load onto multiple

components.

Table 25
Satisfaction Rotated Components

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
SFVarOfTasks	-	-	0.774	-
SFLeadRole	-	-	0.569	-
SFChallTasks	-	-	0.816	-
SFExcitingExp	-	-	0.503	-
SFInsideOrg	-	0.609	-	-
SFNewFriends	-	0.729	-	-
SFExistingSkill	-	0.694	-	-
SFFeelSupport	0.471	-	-	-
SFSenseBelong	-	0.611	-	-
SFQualifiedForTask	-	-	-	0.430
SFGoodComm	-	0.538	-	-
SFInputValued	-	-	-	0.639
SFTrainOrientation	-	-	-	0.608
RecForService	-	-	-	0.727
PrestigeStatus	-	-	-	0.435
SDNewFriends	0.624	-	-	-
SDExcistingSkill	0.757	-	-	-
SDSupported	0.707	-	-	-
SDSenseOfBelong	0.845	-	-	-
SDQualifiedTask	0.721	-	-	-
SDGoodComm	0.732	-	-	-
SDInputValued	0.687	-	-	-
SDTrainOrientation	0.762	-	-	-

Component 1 included the Satisfaction Dysfunction variables for: making new friends,

developing existing skill, feeling supported, feeling a sense of belonging, being qualified for

tasks, receiving good communication, having their input valued, and receiving training and

orientation. While the dysfunctional is not the opposite of the functional variable pairing,

component one contained both the functional and dysfunctional pairing for feeling supported. It

was only after lowering the factor score to below .500 that allowed a functional pairing of a

variable to load with dysfunctional variable pairings. Component 2 contained the Satisfaction

Function variables for: seeing inside the organization, feel support, making new friends, developing existing skill, feeling a sense of belonging, and receiving good communication. Component 3 held the Satisfaction Function variables for: variety of tasks, having a leadership role, receiving challenging tasks, and having an exciting experience. Component 4 loaded the Satisfaction Function variables for: having their input valued, qualified for tasks, prestige status, receiving training and orientation, and recognition for service. Again, it is important to note that the dysfunctional pairing of a variable is not the opposite of the functional version of the same variable. Although this difference is identified, the functional variables "recognition for service" and "prestige status" did load onto one of the four components. The researcher cannot make a claim that the dysfunctional of that pairing or any other pairings would have loaded.

The seven Kano measure categories previously mentioned, provided the classification (Table 26) of the four satisfaction components. The labels for these components also reflected that there is a difference between the functional and dysfunctional of a variable pairing. Having identified the clusters, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to measure internal consistency of the scale. The alpha scores for each of the components scored above the accepted minimum of .600 indicating the scale had reliability.

Table 26
Summary of Satisfaction Components

Satisfaction Component	Sample Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Component 1: Dysfunctional Service/Altruism (DF Ser/Alt)	Dysfunctional variables: sense of belonging, input valued, feel supported	.832
Component 2: Functional Personal/Social (F Per/Soc)	Functional variables: good communication, new friends, existing skill	.794
Component 3: Functional Education/Career (F Edu/Car)	Functional variables: variety of tasks, leadership role, exciting experience	.748
Component 4: Functional Prestige/Status (F Pre/Stat)	Functional variables: training/orientation, recognition for service, prestige status	.666

Satisfaction Outcomes Regression

      Having identified and classified the four satisfaction components, Cronbach's Alpha

(Table 27) was calculated to test for internal consistency of scale for each outcome. The Alpha

scores for each of the outcomes scored above the accepted minimum, .600, indicating the scale

has reliability.

Table 27
Cronbach's Alpha for Targeted Outcomes

Outcome	Cronbach's Alpha
Overall Satisfaction	.645
Volunteer Again	.651
Encourage Others to Volunteer	.649
Committed to Organization	.653
Believe in Goals and Values	.643

      A multiple regression for the five targeted outcomes (Table 28) from research question

four was conducted by the researcher. Participants were asked on a five point likert-type scale

from 'Strongly Disagree' (1) to 'Strongly Agree' (5). The p-value for four of the five outcomes

(overall satisfaction, volunteer again, committed to organization, and believe in goals and values)

were statistically significant at the .05 level. A backwards regression was then run to see if

removing the factors that were the least statistically significant would present a model that fit for

the remaining outcome, encourage others to volunteer. The backwards regression produced a

restricted model that was statistically significant.

Table 28
Satisfaction Regression Outcomes

	Model 1 Overall Satisfaction		Model 2 Volunteer Again		Model 3 Encourage Others to Volunteer		Model 4 Committed to Organization		Model 5 Believe in Goals and Values	
	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model	Full Model	Restrict Model
R^2	.069*	.060*	.071*	.052*	.067	.049*	.045	.033*	.071*	.058*
F	2.486	8.786	2.552	7.482	2.390	7.031	1.593	4.694	2.558	8.403
(Sig)	(.046)	(.004)	(.042)	(.007)	(.054)	(.009)	(.182)	(.032)	(.042)	(.004)
Var	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta
Df Ser/ Alt	-.245*	-.245*	-.228*	-.228*	-.221*	-.221*	-.182	-.182*	-.240*	-.240*
F Per/ Soc	.057		.076		.092		.075		.018	
F Edu/ Car	.071		.081		.086		.064		.112	
F Pre/ Stat	-.023		.082		.043		-.049		.018	

*Statistically significant

In the first targeted outcome, 'Satisfied with Volunteer Experience' the regression produced an $R^2 = 0.069$, F(4) = 2.486, and p-value = 0.046. Of the four satisfaction components, the Dysfunctional Service/Altruism component was the only component that had a beta (-.245) that was significant. Restricting the model provided a model that had an $R^2 = 0.060$, F(4) = 8.786, and p-value = 0.004. This reduced the components down to, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a statistically significant beta (-.245). In the second targeted outcome, 'Volunteer Again', the regression produced an $R^2 = 0.071$, F(4) = 2.552, and p-value = 0.042. Of the four components, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism was the only component that had a beta (-.228) that was significant. Restricting the model provided a model that had an $R^2 = 0.052$, F(4) = 7.482, and

p-value = 0.007. This reduced the components down to, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a statistically significant beta (-.228). In the third targeted outcome, 'Encourage Others to Volunteer' the regression produced an $R^2 = 0.067$, $F(4) = 2.390$, and p-value = 0.054. This initial model would be rejected. Restricting the model provided a model that had an $R^2 = 0.049$, $F(4) = 7.031$, and p-value = 0.009. This reduced the components down to, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a statistically significant beta (-.221). In the fourth targeted outcome, 'Committed to Organization' the regression produced an $R^2 = 0.045$, $F(4) = 2.558$, and p-value = 0.182. This initial model would be rejected. Restricting the model provided a model that had an $R^2 = 0.033$, $F(4) = 4.694$, and p-value = 0.032. This reduced the components down to, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a statistically significant beta (-.182). The fifth targeted outcome, 'Believe in goals and values' This regression produced an $R^2 = 0.071$, $F(4) = 2.558$, and p-value = 0.042. Of the four components, the Dysfunctional Service/Altruism component was the only component that had a beta (-.240) with a significant level. Restricting the model provided a model that had an $R^2 = 0.058$, $F(4) = 8.403$, and p-value = 0.003. This reduced the components down to, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a statistically significant beta (-.240).

Only one of the components, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, affected all five of the outcomes. Volunteers found that these variables had the greatest impact on different levels of their opinion of their time spent volunteering. This showed that volunteer managers were most likely to have the greatest affect by managing those eight variables.

Summary

This chapter summarized the data and subsequent analyses from volunteers throughout the state of Alabama. An examination of the demographics such as: age, gender, education, and volunteer habits from the respondents were outlined. Motivation and satisfaction variable

frequencies were categorized into the Kano categories to identify their impact on volunteers' satisfaction, as well as explore their existing relationship. This chapter also explored the effect of motivation and satisfaction on the five desired outcomes through a PCA analysis and regression analyses. The following chapter further explains the impact of these results and their applicability to volunteer management at events.

Chapter 5

Discussion

  The reduced rate of volunteering has created a void in event management. Understanding the factors that go into attracting and retaining volunteers is more vital than ever before. This study looks at numerous variables and targeted outcomes to identify ways to not only attract volunteers, but to retain them as well. The importance of the volunteers' role at events makes it imperative to not only stop the reduction of the overall volunteer rate, but to increase the rate of volunteers.

Overview

  This chapter is divided into six sections. First, a brief description of the study and the interpretation of the results are presented. Next, the contributions of the study are presented followed by the research instrument performance. The implications stemming from the results are presented next. Limitations from this study are included. The fifth section addresses future research opportunities designed to improve and subsequently advance the research. Finally, a brief conclusion is presented to both summarize this chapter as well as this study in its entirety.

Description and interpretation of the research

  As outlined in Chapter I, this study sought to identify a relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer satisfaction. Research question 1 looks to identify the relationship between motivation and satisfaction and if volunteers can have a satisfactory experience, if their motives were not met. To address this question, the Kano Model was used to classify each motivation and satisfaction variable as either: Attractive, Indifferent, Must-be, or One-dimensional. This was accomplished by finding the frequencies for each variable pairing and

finding the corresponding Kano classification. The motivation variables that categorized the same as the satisfaction variables were deemed to have a relationship as the variable influenced the volunteer in the same way. The different types of frequency measures (median, mode, and mean) produced different classifications. As the mean is most susceptible to outliers, the results for each variable differed from the median and mode. Using the mean, all of the motivation variables classified as 'Indifferent'. However, when applying the median and mode, more information is gained from the data. The majority of the variables classified as 'Attractive' while the remaining four variables: 'Leadership role', 'Challenging tasks', 'Working independently', and 'Making career contacts', each fell into the 'Indifferent' category. The use of median, and more particularly mode, shows the variables that are most likely to impact volunteers' decision to volunteer.

The satisfaction variables' mean scores also differed from the median and mode scores. The mean score for the satisfaction variable for 'Good communication' categorized as a One-dimensional element. Again, One-dimensional elements have the potential to satisfy or dissatisfy a volunteer. Among all of the frequency types between both satisfaction and motivation, 'Good communication' is the only variable that has the ability to directly cause dissatisfaction. The mean for satisfaction variables for 'Exciting experience', 'Developing existing skill', and 'Sense of belonging' catalog as 'Attractive' elements. The remaining variables were all characterized as 'Indifferent'. Utilizing the median and mode shows the variables that are more likely to impact a volunteers' satisfaction level with their experience. The only variable to not be classified as 'Attractive' was 'Working independently', which fell under the 'Indifferent' category. The median and mode scores present as the best frequencies for categorizing the motivation and satisfaction variables and for exploring the relationship between motivation variables and

satisfaction variables. Out of fifteen variables, only three ('Leadership role', 'Challenging tasks', and 'Making career contacts') are not designated by the same category. Eleven of the twelve common variables were classified as 'Attractive' emphasizing the importance of focusing on those variables. Those variables include: 'Variety of tasks', 'Exciting experience', 'Seeing inside the organization', 'Making new friends', 'Developing existing skill', 'Sense of belonging', 'Feeling supported', 'Qualified for tasks', 'Good communication', 'Input valued', 'Training and orientation'. The categorization of the variables indicates that there is a relationship between motivation and satisfaction as volunteers are both motivated and satisfied by the same variables.

Research question 1 also looked to see if volunteers can have a satisfactory experience if their motives were not met. According to Kano's classifications, elements that classify as 'Must-be' or 'One-dimensional' are the only elements that negatively impact a volunteer's experience. None of the motivation variables classified as either of those categories. Furthermore, the three motivation variables that did not classify the same as the satisfaction variables were coded as 'Indifferent'. Having distinguished a relationship between motivation and satisfaction and as none of the motivation variables fell under the designations that impact satisfaction, volunteers can have a satisfactory experience, if their motives were not met.

Research question 2 of this study looked to see if volunteers are motivated differently depending on the type of event they volunteer for. The frequencies for the motivation variables were calculated and then categorized according to the appropriate Kano classification. As with research question 1, the mode and median provided the biggest insight for establishing differences among event types. The mean scores for the motivation variables among event types showed eight out of the fifteen variables were alike across all five event types implying that there is not much overall difference between elements among the different event types. Taking the

median and mode frequencies for the event types, the results show there is a difference in the prioritization of variables. Only four elements were classified the same across the five different types of events. 'Working independently' registered as 'Indifferent' across the five types of events. 'Making new friends', 'Feeling supported', and 'Sense of belonging' were all classified as 'Attractive'. Volunteers at art events identified two variables, 'Seeing inside organization' and 'Good communication', as 'One-dimensional'. These two variables were the only elements classified as 'One-dimensional'; all others fell under the 'Attractive' or 'Indifferent' classification.

The results from the Kano classifications among event types demonstrates that volunteers are motivated differently. Education and sport events had the most variables that were similar to each other. Ten of the fifteen variables shared a commonality between education and sport. Sport and community had six common variables, while there were eight shared variables between sports events and food events. Four variables were common between sport and art. Of all of the types of events, volunteers at sporting events shared at least one variable with another type of event. Five variables were the same between education events and community events as well as between art and community. Volunteers with education events were the only ones to find 'Challenging tasks' as 'Attractive'. Volunteers at food events were the only group of volunteers who found 'Making career contacts' as 'Attractive' and 'Seeing inside the organization' as 'Indifferent'.

Research questions 3 and 4 address the additional objective of this study. The secondary objective of this study was to recognize the motivation and satisfaction factors that affected the five key outcomes. This was accomplished by running a principal component analysis with a varimax rotation to condense the variables into a smaller set of composite dimensions, with a

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minimum loss of information. The PCA was conducted individually for the motivation variables and the satisfaction variables to ascertain which variables were related to each other. Seven new motivation factors emerged from the data reduction. Four new satisfaction variables developed from the data reduction. The new factors were measured to check for internal consistency and reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. Having measured as reliable, each new factor was labeled according to the variables that comprised the component. The targeted outcomes were checked using Cronbach's Alpha. The newly identified factors were then regressed for each targeted outcome. Initial regressions determined if the model for each outcome was statistically significant. Models for each outcome were also subjected to a backwards regression to reduce factors that were not statistically significant.

The new motivation factors were regressed for each of the five outcomes. The model for the outcome 'Overall Satisfaction' failed to reach a statistically significant level both in the full model and the restricted model. The failure to reach statistical significance using the motivation components indicates that motivation factors are not good measures of predicting volunteers' overall satisfaction levels. The second outcome, 'Volunteer Again', produced predictive models, both initially and restricted, that were statistically significant. The regressions for the second outcome revealed two components that were statistically significant, Functional Prestige/Status and Functional Organization Factors. The Beta weight did not change even using the restricted model indicating the variables' importance. The next outcome, 'Encourage Others to Volunteer', failed to produce a statistically significant variable in the initial regression. The restricted model reached statistical significance. However, there were no components within the model that registered as important based on their Beta weight. Regression of the fourth outcome, 'Committed to Organization', also did not produce an initial predictive model. Restricting the

regression did work with regards to establishing a model that was statistically significant, but did not reduce the components down to one that had a Beta weight that statistically significant. The final outcome, 'Believe in Goals and Values', only had a model that was statistically significant once the model was restricted. The component, Functional Prestige/Status, had a Beta weight that showed as important.

Among the variables that had statistically significant Beta weights, the component Functional Prestige/Status appears to be the factor most proficient for predicting key outcomes. Functional Organization Factors, had importance for one outcome. Based on the results of this study, motivation has little impact on predicting the five targeted key outcomes. While four models were established that had predictive power based on their significance levels, only two models had variables that were deemed important.

The new satisfaction factors were regressed for each of the five outcomes. The model for the outcome 'Overall Satisfaction' reached a statistically significant levels both in the full model and the restricted model. Within those two models, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism had a beta weight that indicated that the component was important. The second outcome, 'Volunteer Again', produced predictive models, both initially and restricted, that were statistically significant. The regressions for the second outcome revealed the component, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, as being statistically significant. The Beta weight did not change even using the restricted model indicating the variable's importance. The next outcome, 'Encourage Others to Volunteer', failed to produce a statistically significant variable in the initial regression. The restricted model reached statistical significance. Again, the component within the model that registered as important based on Beta weight was Dysfunctional Service/Altruism. Regression of the fourth outcome, 'Committed to Organization', also did not produce a predictive model

initially. Restricting the regression did work with regards to establishing a model that was statistically significant revealing one variable, Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, with a Beta weight that was statistically significant. The final outcome, 'Believe in Goals and Values', had a model that was statistically significant before and after the model was restricted. The Dysfunctional Service/Altruism, had a Beta weight that showed as important.

As the only variable that had statistically significant Beta weights, the component Dysfunctional Service/Altruism appears to be the factor most proficient for predicting key outcomes. Dysfunctional Service/Altruism included variables like: Making New Friends, Feeling Supported, and Sense of Belonging. Based on the results of this study, satisfaction has significant impact on predicting the five targeted key outcomes. All five models established that there was predictive power based on their significance levels.

Research instrument

The findings from this study merit understanding the performance of the research instrument both in support of the findings, as well as looking at future implications. The research instrument looked at two main objectives: the use of the Kano Model to understand motivation and satisfaction as it relates to volunteers and the impact motivation and satisfaction have on targeted outcomes. The reliability of the instrument was tested and shown to be reliable. Reliability testing continued throughout the analysis of the results to ensure that there was internal consistency. Those tests revealed that the instrument included variables that were able to measure the two main objectives.

Implications

There are numerous practical and theoretical implications and applications for non-profits, industry, and academics revealed from the results of this study. The scarcity of

volunteers and the reduced volunteer rate necessitate understanding what is driving volunteers.

The demographics of this study show that younger volunteers are prevalent. Over half of the

participants were thirty years old or younger and nearly two-thirds were under the age of forty.

Targeting volunteers under the age of forty and getting them involved early on, may increase the

current volunteer rate. The expansion and reliance on social media is one way to target younger

volunteers. Partnering with organizations, universities, and/or classes may get their attention and

get them connected to events' social media posts. Most volunteers will find events closer to them

as over sixty percent travelled less than fifteen miles to volunteer. Volunteer managers should

market volunteer opportunities to local residents. These volunteer opportunities could be

marketed in the local newspaper, at the local convention and visitors' bureau, as well as on

billboards.

Having identified a relationship between variables that satisfy as well as motivate

volunteers, volunteer managers have a starting point on what to focus on. The eleven variables

that scored as 'Attractive' indicate that volunteers are motivated by each variable, as well as find

satisfaction from the presence of those variables. Volunteer managers need to incorporate each

variable and highlight the presence of that variable. For example, 'Seeing Inside the

Organization' was an element that had the ability to motivate and satisfy. Volunteer managers

can promote on their social media sites about the opportunity to see behind the curtains and see

how it all comes together. Another example would be highlighting the social aspects of

volunteering by talking about the friendships that have been made over the years and the sense of

belonging past volunteers have felt. Both of those elements could be conveyed through pictures

of people hanging out, laughing, and enjoying themselves on a billboard with catchy phrases like

"make new friends" and "build lasting relationships". Identifying a relationship between

elements that have the ability to motivate and satisfy shows that the focus for people responsible for volunteers do not have to focus on either elements that satisfy or elements that motivate. Instead, they can accomplish two goals at one time by focusing on the elements that address both.

The study also shows that volunteers working at different event types are motivated by different variables. Volunteer managers at art events will need to focus on 'Good Communication' and 'Seeing inside the organization' as those variables have the ability to positively or negatively impact their decision. Art event volunteers were also the group of volunteers who were 'Indifferent' to eight variables. Volunteer managers at education type events will find that their volunteers scored ten of the fifteen variables as 'Attractive'. Volunteers at sporting events found twelve of the fifteen variables as attractive. The type of event will have some bearing on what elements need to be included and what can be left off. When working with a limited budget, understanding the volunteers' preferences allows the financial focus to be placed where it has the most impact.

The event industry can also use the results of this study when training people responsible for the volunteers. When volunteer managers are better able to connect with their volunteers, they may be able to convey key information to volunteers in a way that the volunteers are able to understand. The high dependence on volunteers for event success requires taking volunteers needs and wants into consideration during the planning process. When event planners factor in what motivates and satisfies volunteers early on in the process, attracting and retaining volunteers becomes easier. Event planners have long focused on the economic benefits of events, as well as visitor satisfaction at their events and the labor force that has gone into executing the

event has been more of an afterthought. Event organizers can take the variables that matter to volunteers and show the value that volunteers have on the success of their event.

While this study focused on volunteers at events, there are applications for volunteer managers in other types of industries. As healthcare expands and contracts and hospitals make budget cuts to adjust, volunteers will become even more important for non-medical components of the healthcare industry. The aging population will also increase the use of hospice care and the need for volunteers (National Hospice & Palliative Care Organization, 2014). Volunteers are also important to K-12 education. All industries, areas, and practices that utilize volunteers as part of their system can utilize the Kano Model and the relationship between motivation and satisfaction to improve their volunteer management systems.

The five key outcomes from this study are also useful to volunteer managers. Each outcome impacts volunteer retention and volunteer managers who are able to positively impact those impacts are more likely to retain their volunteers. Understanding the implications from the outcomes and the variables that relate to those impacts gives volunteer managers somewhere to focus in on. Overall, motivation variables do not create useful models for impacting those outcomes. Motivation component Functional Prestige/Status was the consensus factor that impacted two outcomes: 'Volunteer Again' and 'Believe in Goals and Values'. Volunteer managers who want to positively affect the key outcomes should look at the satisfaction variables. Satisfaction variables are useful in establishing a predictive model for each outcome. The component Dysfunctional Service/Altruism is the consistent component for directly influencing each outcome. Zeroing in on the variables that comprise the Dysfunctional Service/Altruism component will allow volunteer managers to produce positive results on each key outcome.

As there are many practical implications for those working with volunteers, there are also theoretical implications. The use of the Kano Model outside of the product development industry has implications that are applicable to multiple disciplines both within the hospitality industry and outside of the hospitality industry. Many studies focusing in on motivation and satisfaction have relied on one-dimensional models to provide the framework for addressing needs. However, that relies on looking at the underpinning theories from an either/or perspective. The Kano Model provides a way to look at them simultaneously instead of separately.

Within the hospitality industry, researchers studying turnover issues and employee satisfaction in the hospitality industry can determine the relationship between factors that lead to turnover, and look at that relationship from a two-dimensional standpoint. The high turnover rate in the hospitality industry has been attributed to many factors such as: unqualified hires, low wages, no benefits, and working environment to name a few. Understanding what variables directly impact satisfaction by, may allow businesses within the industry the opportunity to focus more specifically. High turnover rate has long been accepted as part of the industry, but that may be because it has not been studied in a way that provides long-term solutions. The hospitality industry is also a service industry where the focus is on the customer. Researchers interested in improving customer satisfaction can also find application of this study to determine how customer motivation and satisfaction as well as service quality relate and impact their purchasing decision. Fluctuating economic stability has many areas looking for ways to increase revenue and employment. Tourism development can use this study to understand what traits and characteristics tourists need and want and then use those variables to develop and create tourism opportunities. As well as creating a marketing plans.

Outside of the hospitality industry, the Kano Model also has theoretical implications. In marketing research into the relationship between variables impacting decision choices has a different way of being explored. In higher education, the struggle between measuring instructors' effectiveness and student bias has long been a challenge among higher education pundits. The Kano Model provides an avenue into understanding the variables that students need and incorporating them into the end of semester evaluations. This provides a measure that does not factor in outside influences such as expected grade in the class, ease of tests, amount of homework, etc. In short, while intended for product development and customer satisfaction, the Kano Model as quality tool has numerous avenues that benefit from looking at relationships two-dimensionally.

Limitations

Every effort was made to limit the number of limitations for this study. Ultimately, limitations still remain and restraint must be taken in attempting to explain and generalize the results. This section is the acknowledgement of the numerous limitations to this study in the attempt to improve the conceptualization of the construct for future researchers desiring to build upon this study.

One such limitation involves the absence of all variable pairings. The variables with missing pairings were not able to be classified under the Kano classifications. This research does not present all of the variables that could impact the relationship between satisfaction and motivation nor does it identify individual variables that could be useful in the management of event volunteers. The missing dysfunctional variables were also not able to load onto any of the components identified from the PCA. The absence of these variables may change the results of the components and variables best fit for predicting the targeted outcomes.

Another limitation to this study is the sample group. While the targeted sample was from volunteers within the state of Alabama, the vast majority of the respondents were volunteering at events in one city. This research does not directly reflect all volunteers outside of the city, nor does it reflect all volunteers within the city. Additionally, the sample size was smaller than determined prior to beginning the study. The sample size reflects the poor response rate. While different events were contacted to participate, the response rate from volunteers outside of the researcher's immediate area were significantly lower than the response rate within the researcher's immediate location.

The survey was self-administered and that includes potential ramifications such as failing to be objective in responses and misunderstanding of the questions. This survey was distributed both electronically and manually. The researcher directly spoke to the volunteers that received the manual copy of the survey and that may have impacted the participants' responses. The access to the internet was required to complete the survey electronically and that may have excluded willing participants who were not given the paper version of the survey. Additionally, the survey design was constructed to maximize space. Thus, the survey placed each variable in between the responses addressing motivation and satisfaction. The layout may have caused confusion as respondents had to answer the same question in two different ways.

Future research

The first clear step with regards to future research would be to revise the survey to include the missing dysfunctional pairings. The missing variables from this study may reveal variables that are 'Must-Be' or 'One-dimensional' that would take priority over the variables already classified as 'Attractive'. While making corrections to the variables used in this survey, it may also be useful to test additional variables beyond the twenty-five that were to be used.

Having tested both the missing variables, as well as any other additional variables, expanding this study beyond one state and making it a study including volunteers around the country would be the next logical step for future research. As the volunteer rate around the world is declining, this study should also be replicated internationally.

As the results of this study have implications in event planning, researching how event planners implement volunteer management into the planning process is also an area that needs to be researched. While it is beneficial to understanding what volunteers want and need, the system has to be structured to accommodate those wants and needs while maintaining additional objectives. Volunteers are just one piece of the puzzle in the event planning process and researching what methods are successful in implementation and understanding what some hurdles may be in implementation is vital. Events have numerous objectives and hurdles and more research into the event planning process and its relationship with volunteer management is necessary.

Another avenue for future research would include studying how the Kano Method can be used to improve various avenues within the hospitality industry. As competition continues to grow within the industry and economic fluctuations impact decision making at various management levels, a two-dimensional tool like the Kano Model could be beneficial. Research into the Kano Method with customer satisfaction, human resource management, and product development may provide answers previously unattainable with other well utilized one-dimensional tools.

Future research into using the Kano Method in an academic setting could also be beneficial. Understanding students' needs and whether they were met could alter course designs, program designs, and instructor delivery. The rising costs of higher education and increased

competition among colleges and universities have administrators seeking to continually improve their products. The Kano Method offers another way to explore the quality dimensions within academe.

Conclusion

This study sought to look at volunteers at events in Alabama and not only connect motivation and satisfaction variables, but to see how motivation and satisfaction impacted key outcomes. Not only did this study reveal that there is a relationship between motivation and satisfaction, but it identified at what points that relationship exists. Satisfaction factors serve as a better predictor of key outcomes than motivation. Incrementally, this study expanded the understanding of volunteer motivation and satisfaction and provided another source for researching and understanding volunteers.

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Appendix A

Alabama Event Volunteer Survey

Section 1: This section is designed to collect general information about you as a volunteer, your specific experience with this event and ways to improve your experience.

1) What is the name of the event where you are currently volunteering?_____

2) How many times have you volunteered at this particular event before? _____

3) Would you volunteer at this particular event again?   YES   NO

4) Would you help recruit your friends and family to volunteer at this event?   YES   NO

   Why or why not?

   [ ]

5) Recommendations/comments/suggestions on improving your volunteer experience:

   [ ]

How many times have you volunteered at an event in the last 5 years?
- ○ 0
- ○ 1-3
- ○ 4-5
- ○ 6+

How far did you travel from your primary place of residence to volunteer?
- ○ Less than 15 miles
- ○ 15-25 miles
- ○ 26-35 miles
- ○ 36+ miles

What is the highest level of education you have attained?
- ○ High School
- ○ Associates Degree/Certificate
- ○ Bachelors degree
- ○ Graduate degree

What is your age? _____

What is the average household income for your house?
- ○ Less than $25,000
- ○ $25,001.00 -$35,000.00
- ○ $35,001.00- $45,000.00
- ○ $45,001.00 - $55,000.00
- ○ $55,001.00 +

What is your gender?
- ○ Male
- ○ Female

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Section 2: The following questions are designed to understand how certain aspects of the volunteer experience affect your experience as a volunteer and to understand what motivates you to volunteer.

Satisfaction: Select the answer that best reflects hit affects your satisfaction with your volunteer experience						Motivation: Select the answer that best reflects how important an item is at motivating you to volunteer				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree		Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important
O	O	O	O	O	I want to have a variety of tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to serve in a leadership role	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want challenging tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to have an exciting experience	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to see inside the organization/event	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to work independently	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to make career contacts	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to make new friends	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to use existing skills	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to feel supported	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want a sense of belonging	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I volunteer because I am qualified for tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	When I volunteer, I need good communication	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	When I volunteer, I need recognition for service	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want my input to be valued by the organization	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I expect to have training and orientation	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I expect to be provided clear direction	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I expect to receive a job description	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I expect to learn new skills	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I expect free food	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I am looking for tangible rewards	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I am looking for prestige/status	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want convenience when I volunteer	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to make a major time commitment	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I want to make a contribution to the organization	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I don't want a variety of tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I don't want to get challenging tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I don't want to serve in a leadership role	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I don't want to get challenging tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I am not looking for an exciting experience	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I am not interested in seeing inside the event/organization	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I don't want to work independently	O	O	O	O	O

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree		Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important
O	O	O	O	O	I am not looking to make career contacts	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I am not looking to make new friends	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not want to use my existing skills	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not need to feel supported by the organization	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not need to feel a sense of belonging	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not volunteer because I am qualified for tasks	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not need to receive good communication from those in charge	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not need to have my input valued by the organization	O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O	I do not expect to have training and orientation	O	O	O	O	O

Section 3: In this section, select the answer that corresponds to the statement that best reflects your level of agreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my volunteer experience	O	O	O	O	O
I will definitely volunteer with this organization again	O	O	O	O	O
I will definitely encourage others to volunteer with this organization	O	O	O	O	O
I am very committed to this organization	O	O	O	O	O
I believe in the goals and values of this organization	O	O	O	O	O

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