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**Why do administrators volunteer for provincial and club
rugby in New Zealand?**

**An application of Clary et al.'s (1998) Volunteer
Functions Inventory (VFI) to understand the motivations
and commitment of volunteer administrators.**

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presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
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AMY MARIE DUNLOP

99223251

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Abstract

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the validity and reliability of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) as a tool for measuring the motives of administration volunteers involved in provincial and club rugby in New Zealand. The secondary aim was to investigate the demographics, motives, benefits, satisfactions and intentions to continue to volunteer of participants.

The study was conducted with a sample of 604 volunteer administrators from provincial and club rugby in New Zealand. Data was collected via a self-administered questionnaire that was posted to participants, and was then analysed using SPSS (version 12.0).

Factor analysis indicated six functions that are served by volunteering for this sample and, these motives differ from those discovered by previous studies. In particular, a new motive, Cause, was revealed where an individual volunteers because of their passion for the particular cause they are involved with. This new function was the most important motive for volunteering for this sample. Volunteers were generally satisfied with their experience and intended to be volunteering in at least one years time. Multiple regression analysis indicated that individuals who volunteer for the Cause and Understanding motives, and, volunteers that felt the work they did was appreciated, were more likely to be satisfied with their experience. There were no substantial differences in the results between provincial level and club level volunteers.

The paper concludes that further work is required to develop the VFI into a valid and reliable tool to measure the motives of volunteers for this population. In particular, investigation of the Cause motive, and development of the questions is required to enable the VFI to be more relevant to rugby in New Zealand.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism is an intriguing subject and, one on which multiple studies have been completed. Such studies range from investigations of the affect of motives, personal tendencies and situational variables on volunteering (Clary & Miller, 1986; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen & Miene, 1998; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), to the link between demographics, personality and religion to volunteering (Benson, Dehority, Garman, Hanson, Hochschwender, Lebold, Rohr & Sullivan, 1980) and the effect of age on volunteering activity (Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998; Omoto, Snyder, & Martino, 2000). Many researchers have also employed meta-analytic techniques to compare previous literature and studies on volunteering in an attempt to explain and condense the multitude of differing findings and theories on volunteering (Carlson, Charlin, & Miller, 1988; Eisenberg, 1991; Parker, 2000; Penner, 2002; Stukas & Dunlap, 2002; Wilson, 2000).

This particular study resulted from the researcher's observation of her father as a volunteer administrator for provincial and club rugby within New Zealand for the past 25 years. Admiration for the selfless giving of so much time over such a long period, combined with a curiosity to understand the reasons why men and women volunteer, were the underlying reasons for completing this research.

A real story of a volunteer

Tony Dunlop is in his 50s, married with two adult daughters and two grandchildren. He is employed as a civil engineer for a local body in New Zealand. He works Monday to Friday, from 7am to 5pm, completing various practical and administrative tasks to ensure the rivers under his charge are as well maintained and managed as they can be within the bounds of what 'Mother Nature' throws at him. During a flood, his work hours will increase to 20 hours per day at the floods peak, will reduce to approximately 12 hours per day for a few weeks after the event, and eventually down to the normal hours of 7am to 5pm.

In addition, Tony also spends a large portion of his spare time volunteering for rugby in New Zealand. He currently works as a referee selector at regional level, and is a member of a referee management group at provincial level. He has held many previous roles from an active referee to president of the local referees sub-association. During the season he will spend an average of 9 hours per week on administrative tasks at home in the evening, and will spend almost every Saturday at a rugby field somewhere in New Zealand. He estimates he would spend a total of 19 hours per week involved in some task to do with rugby, whether it be writing up reports, attending weekly meetings, travelling to a game, watching a referee or having a chat with the referee after the game.

Tony has been volunteering for 25 years, the latter 8 as an administrator, and when he was asked why he does it, he simply said "for the love of the game". When asked how long he will continue to volunteer his time for rugby in New Zealand he answers "for as long as I am still enjoying it and am able to". This is one example of the people that the New Zealand Rugby Union are fortunate enough to have as volunteer administrators, without them, surely the game as we know it today could not continue.

1.1 Significance

The significance of this study is twofold; firstly the criticality of volunteers to the survival of the various organisations that rely on them has been widely acknowledged in the literature and secondly, the economic value of the volunteer labour force is highly significant and is not something that should be overlooked.

A reality that has been acknowledged both in the literature and by national volunteer bodies (both sporting and general) is that volunteers are a vital factor for the survival of the community and sporting agencies that rely on them, (Auld & Cuskelly, 2001; Nichols, Gratton, Shibli, & Taylor, 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Stukas & Dunlap, 2002; New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003).

In a study of volunteers involved in the leisure industry in Australia, Auld and Cuskelly (2001) stated that "despite such a significant contribution [to the leisure services industry], comparatively little is known about

volunteering in Australia. It is only recently that there has been a growing realisation of the need to study the behaviour of volunteers" (p. 29). This dearth of research into volunteers involved in sport and leisure is not just an Australian phenomenon, as shown by Coleman (2002) in his study which provided the first detailed empirical evidence relating to the characteristics of volunteers involved in UK cricket. Coleman's (2002) research was conducted to build on the first major study into UK volunteers completed by the Leisure Industries Research Centre in 1996. Although numerous studies have been located for Canadian sports volunteers (Auld & Godbey, 1998; Doherty & Carron, 2003), Beamish (1985) states that "since the overwhelming majority of sport opportunity in Canada is enjoyed, organised and administered by voluntary associations, it is surprising that so little research has been done in this area" (p. 218).

Auld and Cuskelly (2001) acknowledge that not only is there a shortage of volunteers, but it is critical to study volunteer behaviour in order to understand volunteer motivation and retention. This kind of information is essential for the survival of the multitude of sporting organisations that rely on volunteer labour.

No specific studies on volunteers involved in rugby in New Zealand have been located and, as previous literature has acknowledged, this information is essential for the survival of rugby in New Zealand.

The economic significance of volunteers is not something that should be overlooked. Beamish (1985) observed, a nation's economy is larger than the world of wage labour; a highly significant part of the economy is the production and distribution of resources based upon non-remunerated work. The size of the voluntary sector for UK sports was estimated to be equivalent to over 108,000 full time workers (FTE), which is a significant number when compared to the reported 81,000 paid employees of the

recreation, parks and bath departments in England and Wales (Nichols et al., 1998). Similarly, Auld and Cuskelly (2001) reported that an estimated 1.5 million Australians volunteered for sport and recreation organisations in 1989, which equated to an estimated economic value of \$2 billion per annum.

In New Zealand in 1998, approximately 245,000 administration volunteers were involved in the physical leisure arena, with an estimated economic value of \$703 million per annum¹ (Goodchild, Harris, Nana, & Russell, 2000). Specific information regarding which sport the volunteer administrators were involved in was not reported, therefore it was difficult to accurately allocate these administrators into the various sports and to identify what proportion were involved in rugby. However, the Goodchild et al. (2000) report estimated that 145,000 people aged 17 and over played rugby in 1998, and Sport and Recreation New Zealand (2002) estimated that 10% of those involved in rugby were also involved as an administrator. Using these estimates of the numbers, the number of volunteer administrators involved in rugby could potentially be 14,500, which is 6% of the 245,000 volunteer administrators reported by Goodchild et al. (2000).

Alternatively, Sport and Recreation New Zealand reported that 6% of adults participate in rugby as opposed to other sports (Sport and Recreation New Zealand, 2002), therefore we could assume this proportion of the 245,000 volunteer administrators in New Zealand are involved in rugby. This would equate to 14,700 of volunteer administrators being involved in rugby, which is very close to the number estimated above by using the Goodchild et al. (2000) and Sport and

¹ Based on an average of 3.2 hours per week per volunteer and the average wage rate of the cultural and recreational sector of \$17.25 per hour (Goodchild et al., 2000)

Recreation New Zealand (2002) reports. The estimated economic value of these 14,000 volunteer administrators is \$42 million ².

However, after discussions with the NZRU, the researcher considered that 14,700 may have been an overstated estimate of the number of volunteer administrators involved with rugby in New Zealand. The NZRU estimated that each club has approximately 10 volunteer administrators and each province between 20 and 50. Given there are 27 provinces and approximately 400 rugby clubs in New Zealand, their estimate of the number of volunteer administrators was 5,000 (35 per province and 10 per club). This is 2% of the number of volunteer administrators reported by Goodchild et al. (2000) and is substantially less than the numbers estimated by the two previous methods.

The conservative estimate of the economic value of volunteer administrators, based on the NZRU's approximation that 2% of the volunteer administrators would be involved in rugby, was \$14 million. The prudent researcher, however, would state that the economic value contributed by volunteer administrators involved with rugby in New Zealand was somewhere between \$14 million and \$42 million.

1.2 Objectives and hypotheses

In 1998, Clary et al. completed a series of studies to discover why people volunteer and what sustains voluntary helping. The central idea of Clary et al.'s (1998) study was that people perform the same actions to satisfy different motivational factors, therefore functionalist theory was applied to investigate the underlying reason why each person volunteered their time. The studies were concerned with developing and validating the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) as a tool to measure the functions hypothesised to be served by volunteering.

² Based on an average of 3.2 hours per week per volunteer and the average wage rate of the cultural and recreational sector of \$17.25 per hour (Goodchild et al., 2000)

The overall hypothesis for this study was that the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) developed by Clary et al. (1998) was a valid assessment tool of the motivation factors of volunteer administrators involved in provincial and club rugby in New Zealand.

If the VFI was shown to be valid, the following questions were also posed for administrators of New Zealand rugby at provincial and club level:

- Was one of the motivation factors as measured by the VFI a more common reason for volunteering than the other five?
- What benefits did volunteers receive from volunteering?
- Did volunteers who received more functionally relevant benefits find their volunteer experience more satisfying than those who received fewer functionally relevant benefits or functionally irrelevant benefits?
- Did volunteers who received more functionally relevant benefits have a greater intent to continue to volunteer than those who received less functionally relevant benefits or functionally irrelevant benefits?
- Did volunteer administrators at a provincial level have different motivations, benefits, satisfaction levels and intentions to continue to volunteer than those at the club rugby level?

1.3 Research method

Consistent with previous studies completed into volunteer motivation (Clary et al., 1998; Coleman, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) the data was collected via self-administered questionnaires. The research strategy was to systematically replicate the collection and analysis method utilised by Clary et al. (1998), but to extend it to volunteers from a specific sector rather than general volunteers. The research population was all systematic volunteer administrators involved in rugby in New Zealand either within a province or a club, where a systematic volunteer is one who has "a clearly defined role and who gave a regular commitment to the club" (Coleman, 2002, p. 221).

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is presented in three further parts:

- Chapter Two presents a review of the literature which resulted in the development and completion of this study. This literature review provides an outline of previous research including a general overview of helping behaviour and volunteering. Various approaches to studying volunteering are explained and the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) is described. In the final section of the literature review, literature relevant to volunteering in New Zealand sport and in particular, rugby, is introduced
- Chapter Three discusses the research strategy, design and analysis procedures. It also includes an ethical evaluation of the research and the measures that were undertaken to protect participants rights and provide informed consent
- Chapter Four presents the analysis and results and discusses the implications of the main findings
- Chapter Five summarises the main conclusions and provides an overview of research limitations along with opportunities for further research. In particular, recommendations and opportunities relevant to the New Zealand Rugby Union are highlighted

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Helping behaviour and volunteerism

When a person completes an action which benefits another party without expecting or receiving any kind of reward or recognition, it is commonly recognised that person has engaged in helping behaviour (Benson et al., 1980). Many studies have been completed on helping behaviour, and as a result of this, researchers have recommended that this behaviour be classified into two distinct categories – spontaneous and non-spontaneous helping. Spontaneous helping is where someone answers an unexpected cry for help, for example when someone stops to assist at a car accident. Non-spontaneous helping however, is planned and, requires the helper to spend time matching their needs with the requirements of a chosen benefactor (Benson et al., 1980). It is generally agreed that volunteering is part of the general cluster of helping activities, and given it is “typically proactive rather than reactive, and entails some commitment of time and effort” (Wilson, 2000, p. 216), volunteering can be viewed as a classic form of non-spontaneous helping.

There is an extremely large researched body of knowledge on volunteering and multiple definitions of the term ‘volunteerism’ exist which are the subject of much debate (Parker, 2000). The debate concerns whether the dimensions of (a) who benefits from the action and, (b) the setting in which the volunteerism takes place, should be included in the definition. For example Morris (1969, cited in Parker, 2000), disagreed that the setting was important and stated that volunteers are “people who undertake unpaid work for the community as a whole or for individual members of it” (p. 148), and went on to specifically exclude the setting as a factor in volunteering. Wilson (2000) supported this view and stated that “volunteering means any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group or organisation” (p. 215). In contrast, Penner (2002) defined volunteerism as “long-term, planned, prosocial

behaviours that benefit strangers and occur within an organizational setting" (p. 447). This stance was supported by Grube and Piliavin (2000) whose study into volunteer performance focussed on the individual and the influence the organisation had on their performance.

For the current study a combination of the dimensions of these definitions of volunteerism were appropriate. In particular the fact that the work is unpaid, the behaviours are planned and they occur within an organisational setting. This study was focussed on volunteers within the specific setting of rugby in New Zealand and specific administrative roles within that setting. Therefore the concept of the 'systematic volunteer' as developed by the 1996 Leisure Industries Research Centre (LIRC) study (as cited in Coleman, 2002) was used.

The LIRC study was conducted on behalf of the United Kingdom Sports Council and its objectives were to determine the size of the voluntary sector in British sport and to identify the problems faced by this sector and possible solutions (Nichols et al., 1998). The research was completed in three phases firstly, interviews with volunteers involved with sports national governing bodies. The second phase was focus groups of 12 selected sports, and thirdly, interviews with 16 organisations which had given support to sports clubs such as local authorities.

For the purposes of their study, LIRC defined sports volunteers as "people contributing time to a sports club or organisation for which they receive no payment (except for expenses)" (Coleman, 2002, p. 221), and went on to define a systematic volunteer as a person with a clearly defined role and who gives a regular commitment to their club.

In the current study the tasks completed by the administrators were unpaid, the behaviours were planned and they occurred within an organisational setting. This study was focussed on volunteers within

rugby in New Zealand who held specific administrative roles, therefore the systematic volunteer definition was used - a person with a clearly defined role and who gives a regular commitment to their club.

2.2 Studies into volunteerism

Researchers have long tried to understand the many facets of volunteering from how people are recruited to volunteer, the reasons why they volunteer, how to increase their participation and how to make them more comfortable giving their time (Stukas & Dunlap, 2002).

2.2.1. Positive mood and volunteerism

The link between positive mood and volunteerism was investigated by Carlson et al. (1988) who completed a mega-analysis of published literature. The researchers tested six theories for a link between positive mood and helping behaviour, and posited that a good mood will increase a persons helpfulness in certain situations. Firstly when the task is pleasant to perform, and secondly when an average level of positive mood is induced (Carlson et al., 1988). Criticisms offered on this research by Eisenberg (1991) are that the authors chose to test certain hypotheses (and not others) and devised analytic techniques that may be subsequently questioned by other investigators, and therefore this study may be subject to bias.

2.2.2. Age and volunteerism

Okun et al. (1998), Okun and Schultz (2003) and Omoto et al. (2000) studied the relationship between age and motives for volunteering. Okun et al. (1998) tested four models of senior's motivations to volunteer by using confirmatory factor analyses and correlational analyses. The participants of the study were 409 adults aged over 50 who volunteered at health care facilities and 372 adults aged over 55 who were part of a volunteer agency that matched individuals with organisations. The models they tested were firstly the unidimensional model of motivation to volunteer which postulates that "volunteers act not from a single motive

or a category of motives but from a combination of motives that can be described overall as 'a rewarding experience'" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, P. 281 cited in Okun et al., 1998, p. 610). Secondly, a bipartite model that posits "that people are motivated to volunteer by concerns for others (altruistic motives) and self (egoistic motives)" (Frisch & Gerrard, 1981, cited in Okun et al., 1998, p.610). The third model tested was the multifactor model proposed by Clary et al. (1998) which is the model that is being used by the current researcher. This multifactor model proposes a functional theory of motivation to volunteer. The final model tested was a second-order factor model which posits that "there are several interrelated dimensions of motivation to volunteer" (Okun et al., 1998, p. 4).

Okun et al. (1998) not only found that the multifactor model proposed by Clary et al. (1998) was the best fit for the motives of volunteering, but also that older volunteers are generally motivated to volunteer by three of the six reasons proposed. Firstly to act on their belief that it is important to help others, secondly to have the opportunity to learn more about themselves and the world they live in and finally, to enable themselves to feel useful and to feel good about themselves.

The limitations of the Okun et al. (1998) study were that the study focused on active volunteers, and therefore it is unknown whether the results would have been different for those being recruited but not actually active. A second limitation was that the volunteers were asked to rate how important or accurate statements were to them to measure their motives, which assumes volunteers know the real reasons why they volunteer.

Omoto et al. (2000) studied the purpose, expectations and outcomes of adult hospice volunteers of varying ages. Participants were asked to complete a series of mailed questionnaires, one prior to them beginning

their volunteer training, and another six months after they began their volunteering. The researchers found that “younger volunteers tend to be motivated by outcomes related to interpersonal relationships, whereas older volunteers tend to be motivated to a greater extent by service or community obligation concerns” (Omoto et al., 2000, p. 181). This supported some of the findings by Okun et al. (1998), in particular, that one of the reasons older adults were generally motivated to volunteer was to act on their belief that it is important to help others. Omoto et al. (2000) also found that “even though volunteerism may be sustained and stable over long periods of time, there may be evolving and shifting motivational agendas for such civic participation” (p. 195). Such shifting motivational agendas may cause volunteering to change over time.

The Omoto et al. (2000) study overcame the active volunteer limitation faced by Okun et al. (1998) by surveying individuals who had approached an organisation about volunteering but weren't actively participating. However, motives for volunteering were sought in a similar fashion to the Okun et al. (1998) study with respondents being asked to indicate how accurate or important each statement was to them in terms of their motives for volunteering.

The investigation by Okun and Schultz (2003) into the effects of age on volunteer motives was performed on 523 active volunteers from Habitat for Humanity who completed a self-administered mail survey. In contrast to the Omoto et al. (2000), this study found that age was not related to the values motive. That is, older adults were generally not motivated to volunteer in order to act on their belief that it was important to help others, rather they found that they were generally motivated by the opportunity to make friends (social).

This study faced the same limitation as the Okun et al. (1998) study as only active volunteers were surveyed. In fact, the researchers listed this

as one possible reason for the differing results found between theirs and Omoto et al.'s (2000) study.

2.2.3. Dispositional and structural variables and volunteerism

In an attempt to explain the initial decision to volunteer and long term volunteerism, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) investigated the structural and dispositional variables that affect volunteerism in 65 volunteers involved in serving people who were infected and affected by HIV. The approach used was twofold, firstly they studied how the constructs from two models, Volunteer Process Model and Role Identity Model, were related to the four operational aspects of length of service, amount of time spent volunteering, attendance at organisational meetings and contact with the primary beneficiaries of the organisations services. Secondly they investigated the relationship between personality variables and volunteers behaviour.

The first construct studied was from the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). This model is based on the functional analysis proposed by Clary and Snyder (1991, cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) and investigated the affect of the individuals past history of volunteering and what happened to volunteers over time.

In addition to the concept that organisations need to understand what particular function of the individuals is being served by the volunteering, Omoto and Snyder (1995) also found that satisfaction with the organisation, positive feelings about being a volunteer, commitment to the organisation and the match between the experience and the individual's personal and social motives all directly affected the length of time a person spends as a volunteer.

Also, interestingly, they found that "having a helping disposition (one marked by relatively empathetic, nurturing, and socially responsible attributes) did not guarantee a longer life as an active volunteer" (Omoto

& Snyder, 1995 , p. 682). The other key finding of this model was that a desire to do good on behalf of others was not what kept volunteers involved, rather, it was the opportunity to have selfish functions served that kept the individuals volunteering.

The second construct studied was from the Role Identity Model, which "de-emphasises dispositional variables, and uses role theory and the social structure within which volunteerism occurs to explain the behaviour" (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998, p. 526). The model posits that as people continue to volunteer for a given organisation, their attachment to that organisation increases, and this in turn, increases the contribution of the volunteer to the organisation. This then affects the way the volunteer sees themselves and their role in the organisation becomes part of their identity. The model states that "the best predictor of future volunteer activity should be past levels of activity" (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998, p. 526).

Both models place significant importance on organisational commitment and Penner & Finkelstein (1998) found that two of the three dimensions of organisational commitment; importance of attending activities and organisational acceptance, were significantly associated to volunteer activities (time spent, meetings attended, contact with primary beneficiaries) . This suggested people were willing to work on behalf of organisations to which they felt committed (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). The third measure of organisational commitment, desire for additional involvement, was not positively associated. This was explained by the fact that most of the volunteers surveyed were already heavily involved in volunteering and therefore would not wish to increase their involvement further.

When investigating what relationship personality variables have to volunteer behaviour, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) used the Prosocial

Personality Battery (PSB) which measures whether an individual has the "enduring tendency to think about the welfare and rights of other people, to feel concern and empathy for them, and to act in a way that benefits them" (p. 526). The PSB has two correlated factors, Other-Oriented Empathy and Helpfulness. The Other-Oriented Empathy dimension is the tendency to think about the welfare of others, and the Helpfulness dimension is "the self-reported history of engaging in helpful actions" (p. 526).

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found a significant association between the Other-Oriented Empathy (prosocial thoughts and feelings) dimension and volunteer activity. This finding was consistent with previous studies completed in the workplace (Midili, 1996; Midili & Penner, 1995, cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), and was confirmed by Penner (2002) in an online study of 1,100 general volunteers.

The Helpfulness (prosocial behaviour or actions) dimension had a much less consistent and less significant association. "People who scored high on Helpfulness did not necessarily experience satisfaction from volunteering and were apparently not motivated by altruistic considerations" (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998, p. 534). A further conclusion reached was that each dimension of prosocial personality had unique motives associated with it. This finding was in agreement with Clary and Snyder (1991, cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) that the major premise of the functional analysis of volunteerism is quite true – volunteering may serve different factors for different people (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found that the "values motive was consistently and positively associated with subsequent volunteer activity and significantly positively related to length of service" (p. 534), however in contrast to Omoto and Snyder's findings in 1995, the only link was to altruistic motives and not to self-centred motives.

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) also found that level of volunteer activity in the initial stages of the study affected the volunteers' role identity and the volunteers "subsequently acted in a manner consistent with these new role identities" (p. 535). This finding was consistent with previous studies by Deaux and Stark (1996) and Grube and Piliavin (1996, cited in Penner and Finkelstein, 1998), and further supported the hypothesis that "a volunteer role identity may play a critical role in maintaining long term volunteer activity" (p. 535).

The Role Identity Model was also used as the basis for Grube and Piliavin's (2000) study that tested multiple hypotheses to do with the effect of role identity, the organisation and the volunteers experience with the organisation on the performance and retention of volunteers. The participants in the study were 559 volunteers involved with the American Cancer Society who completed a self-administered questionnaire.

The study found that "role identity was the most important factor in predicting the amount of time given [to ACS] and intent to leave the organisation" (Grube & Piliavin, 2000, p. 1116). This was also consistent with the previous findings by Penner and Finkelstein (1998), and supported the idea that the volunteer's role identity plays a significant role in maintaining volunteer commitment. Also consistent with Penner and Finkelstein (1998) was the finding by Grube and Piliavin (2000) that past volunteer behaviour was a noteworthy predictor of role identity and future volunteer activity.

The organisational variables that were found to affect the role identity, and thus intentions to continue to volunteer were feelings of personal importance to the organisation, the prestige of the organisation, agreement with the use of donated funds and the social networks associated with volunteering. The overall result was that role-identity

was able to predict not only hours worked for the organisation, but also the effect of hours worked for other organisations and it can also predict intent to leave (Grube & Piliavin, 2000).

The limitations of both Grube and Piliavin (2000) and Penner and Finkelstein (1998) studies was the self-reporting of the volunteers behaviour which may introduce some bias into the results.

It should be noted that the Role Identity Model that both the Grube and Piliavin (2000) and Penner and Finkelstein (1998) studies were based on has been applied in limited settings. As Grube and Piliavin (2000) state, "the main type of volunteer activity that has been studied to date using the role-identity perspective is blood donation" (p. 1109), which could limit the generalisability of the findings.

In a review of selected literature Penner (2002) found that there are two kinds of organisational variables that have an effect on sustained volunteerism. Firstly, "an individual's perceptions of and feelings about the way he or she is treated by the organisation" and secondly, "the organisation's reputation and personnel practices" (Penner, 2002, p. 7). Penner clearly believes these variables interact as he states that "volunteers who are satisfied with their job, committed to the organisation, have a positive affect while on the job and believe they are being treated fairly should display a higher level of volunteer activity" (Penner, 2002, p. 7).

2.2.4. Religiosity and volunteerism

A study to examine the relationship between religious involvement and volunteering was completed by Becker and Dhingra (2001). Data was collected via survey from 1,006 community residents and from 38 follow-up interviews. The objectives of the study were to investigate what role congregational involvement has in leading people to volunteer, how

church members chose a site at which to volunteer and, whether congregations played any role in generating social service.

Becker and Dhingra (2001) found that church attendance and visible religiosity were significant predictors of participation in volunteer activities, which also reflected Penner's (2002) findings that "people who belonged to an organised religion were more likely to be volunteers than those who did not" (p. 5). Wilson (2000) suggested this could be explained by the social networks theory, where it is posited that "extensive social networks increase the chances of volunteering" (p. 223), and those that attend church regularly are actively participating in social networks. This idea is supported by Becker and Dhingra (2001) who found that "social networks, rather than beliefs, dominate as the mechanism for leading to volunteering, and it is the social networks formed within congregations that make congregation members more likely to volunteer" (p. 329). They also found that social ties to other congregational members are what encourages them to volunteer not their denomination.

The in-depth interviews conducted as part of the studies showed that liberal and conservative denominations interpret the meaning of their volunteering differently. Becker and Dhingra (2001) found that liberals considered their volunteering to be a civic duty, whereas conservatives believed it to be a "spiritual act expressing their religious beliefs" (p. 330). This link between liberal and conservative beliefs and volunteering has also been shown in Wilson's (2000) study which suggested that "members of conservative religious denominations in the United States think of volunteer work in terms of a sacrifice; liberals think of it in terms of self-improvement" (p. 219).

Penner (2002) also found that "the stronger people said their religious beliefs were, the more organisations they worked for, the longer their

tenure as a volunteer, and the more time they spent working as a volunteer” (p. 5). However, in contrast to these findings, Becker and Dhingra (2001) found that the importance of a persons religion did not significantly predict involvement in volunteer activity.

The main limitation of the Becker and Dhingra (2001) study was that the sample was not representative of the nation, in particular the race demographic was not illustrative of the national ethnicity spread with 94% of the respondents being white, and the sample was more educated than the national average.

The limitation of the Penner (2002) study was that the data was collected via the internet, with individuals invited to participate via an article published in a USA Sunday supplement magazine. A self-selection bias would more than likely be evident in those who opted to complete the online survey.

2.3 Why volunteer?

A large number of studies have been completed into the motives for volunteering and they found that people volunteer for many different reasons, and the same volunteering experience may or may not satisfy many different needs for the volunteer (Allison, Okun, & Dutridge, 2002; Carlson et al., 1988; Clary et al., 1998; Cuskelly, 1995; Katz, 1960; Omoto et al., 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Snyder, 1993; Stukas & Dunlap, 2002).

2.3.1. The symbolic approach

There are two main approaches to understanding the underlying reasons why someone volunteers. The first method is the symbolic approach which is mainly used by sociologists - academics that study the development, organisation, functioning and classification of human societies. This approach focuses on the idea that a person attaches a

justification to a certain behaviour, an interpretation of the reason why they have completed a particular action.

Some sociologists dismiss the idea of motivation altogether from the topic of volunteerism and these people are described by Wilson (2000) as being "sceptical of the existence of any identifiable drives, needs or impulses that might inspire volunteerism" (p. 218). Other sociologists believe that motives are one part of volunteering and that they provide one part of influencing a persons behaviour (Wilson, 2000).

Rosenthal, Feiring, and Lewis (1998) completed a longitudinal study of 105 youths in the United States and their involvement in political volunteering. The researchers found that adolescents were involved in political activities and that their involvement increased as they get older. They also found that if a youth had a family member who volunteered or were a member of an organisation that encouraged volunteering, that youth was more likely to volunteer because someone had taught them a positive way to think about volunteer work (Wilson, 2000). Rosenthal et al. (1998) urged researchers to explore this area with further study, especially in the area of "the development of a particular behaviour, attitude or belief being examined from the perspective of an organismic model" (p. 8) because early events may be critical in this complex process.

2.3.2. The functional approach

The second method to understanding the underlying reasons for volunteering is the functional approach, which is mainly used by psychologists – academics which study all forms of human and animal behaviour. This approach is "concerned with the reasons and purposes, the plans and the goals, that underlie and generate psychological phenomena – that is, the personal and social functions being served by an individuals thoughts, feelings and actions" (Snyder, 1993, p. 253). The

approach focuses on how motivations are a representation of the function that is served by the action (Allison et al., 2002).

In early functional theorising, two classic theories of attitudes were offered by Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) and Katz (1960). Smith et al. (1956) stated that the foundation of functionalist theory is man's opinions, and "those opinions are an integral part of man's personality and are part of man's attempt to meet and to master his world" (p. 1). An intensive study of the personalities and attitudes of ten adult men was conducted by Smith et al. (1956) in an attempt to understand the "functioning of opinions in personality" (p. 48). The men were subject to multiple interviews and procedures administered by seventeen different investigators.

Smith et al. (1956) found four dimensions to the formation of man's opinions. Firstly the expressive nature of opinions, "where a man's opinions inevitably bear his personal stamp" (p. 259). The second dimension is object appraisal where "each person is constantly trying to size up the world around him, and to place it in relation to his major interests" (p. 259). Thirdly, social adjustment which concerns "maintaining relationships with other people" (p. 266). Finally, externalisation where "a person has responded to an external event in a way that is coloured by unresolved inner problems" (p. 271).

The "impression generally left by the series of intensive case studies is one of almost boundless individual variation" (Smith et al., 1956, p. 241). Essentially what Smith et al. (1956) found is that the same attitudes could serve different functions for different people.

The limitation of this study was that it was completed on a very small number of male subjects, which is not representative of the human population.

In an attempt to understand the public opinion process Katz (1960) completed a review of previous literature and studies on attitudes and opinions. Through the review, he sought to understand the "nature of the organisation of attitudes within the personality and the processes which account for attitude change" (p. 163). These dimensions were viewed to be critical in the formation of public opinion.

Two opposing schools of thought existed in early attitudinal studies. The first was that man was an irrational being and was incapable of reasoning and reflection, had minimal capacity to discriminate, had limited self-insight and very short memories (Katz, 1960). The second approach was that man was rational and "that he seeks understanding, that he consistently attempts to make sense of the world about him, that he possesses discriminating and reasoning powers and that he is capable of self-criticism and self-insight" (Katz, 1960, p. 164). Despite the obvious difficulties that arose with two very different ideas about attitudes, the results of the research on both theories, "pointed towards elements of truth in each approach" (Katz, 1960, p. 165).

It is this idea that formed the basis for Sarnoff, Katz and McClintock's (1954, cited in Katz, 1960) early theorising on the functions that attitudes perform for the personality. In this theorising the basic assumption was "that both attitude formation and attitude change must be understood in terms of the needs they serve and that, as these motivational processes differ, so too will the conditions for the attitude change" (Katz, 1960, p. 167). It is acknowledged by Katz (1960) that the findings of their study were similar to Smith et al.'s (1956) and "both groups present essentially the same functions" (p. 167).

Katz (1960) reports four functions which attitudes perform for the individual. These are presented next with Smith et al.'s (1956) in

parentheses. The first is Ego-Defensive (externalisation) in which "the person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truths about himself or the harsh realities in his external world"(p. 170). The Value-Expressive function (expressive nature of opinions) where "the individual derives satisfaction from expressing attitudes appropriate to his personal values and to his concept of himself" (p. 170). The Knowledge function (object appraisal) where "the individual needs to give adequate structure to his universe" (p. 170). Katz (1960) also reports an Adjustment function where "people strive to maximise the rewards in their external environment and to minimise penalties" (p. 170). This last function differs from Smith et al.'s (1956) final function, social adjustment, which concerns "maintaining relationships with other people" (p. 266).

Stated simply, the finding of Katz (1960) was that the functional approach to attitudes firstly illustrated that the same attitude expressed by different individuals may not perform the same function for all the people that express it. Secondly, that attitudes may serve more than one purpose for the individual.

The suitability of the functionalist approach to the study of volunteers has been highlighted by Snyder's (1993) statement: "a functional analysis of volunteerism is concerned with the needs being met, the motives being fulfilled, and the functions being served by engaging in volunteer work" (p. 254). This fit has been reiterated recently by Stukas and Dunlap (2002) who believe that "no area of behaviour better exemplifies the usefulness of the functional approach than the study of volunteerism" (p. 415).

2.3.3. Altruism

Regardless of whether a study is based on the symbolic approach or the functional approach, the aim is generally the same, to understand why people volunteer. The most common reason that is given for volunteering is altruism, which is a phenomenon for which the various disciplines are

yet to agree on a single definition. In a review of the theory and research into altruism, Piliavin and Charng (1990) presented a wide variety of definitions of altruism. One of which was "a self-destructive behaviour performed for the benefit of others" (Wilson, 1975, cited in Piliavin & Charng, 1990, p. 29). The more recent definition offered by Chelladurai (1999) was altruism is "an unselfish concern for the welfare of others" (p. 25), or is the performance of an unselfish act Parker (2000).

The variations in these definitions centred on whether the person was performing a task to the detriment of themselves or whether it was simply for the betterment of others. Given the quite opposite bases for these definitions of altruism, it appears that one definition or even similar definitions will not exist in the near future. Therefore researchers need to decide which type of definition they will accept for their situation.

There has been continuing debate about what role altruism plays as a motivator for volunteering. Piliavin and Charng (1990) reported that "volunteers generally give altruistic reasons for becoming involved, such as feelings of obligation to the community and wanting to help others" (p. 55). There is however, an opposing school of thought which believes that the main reasons for volunteering are egoistic. The debate is whether the volunteer is looking for reward and satisfaction for others (altruistic) or looking for reward and satisfaction for themselves (egoistic). Piliavin and Charng (1990) also reported that "self-oriented reasons are also very common, such as interest in the activity, perceived benefits to those they know, getting job experience, enhancing social status, or simply having social contacts" (p. 55). Stukas and Dunlap (2002) observed that it would "be a mistake to assume individuals are always trying to satisfy individual egoistic goals, individuals often chose to get involved in their communities because of the benefits that will be provided to other people or to the community itself" (p. 415). Although the debate continues, it is now generally agreed that people are driven to volunteer by a combination of

altruistic and self-interested motives (Henderson & Silverberg, 2002; Parker, 2000).

2.4 The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI)

In 1998, Clary et al completed a series of six studies to discover why people volunteer and what sustains voluntary helping. The central idea of Clary et al.'s (1998) study was that people perform the same actions to satisfy different motivational factors, therefore functionalist theory was applied to investigate the underlying reason why each person volunteered their time.

In an extension of functional analyses previously completed on individual and social behaviour, Clary et al. (1998) hypothesised the existence of six functions that are served by volunteering. Snyder (1993) notes that although the functions hypothesised are highly compatible with those proposed by the attitude theorists Katz (1960) and Smith et al. (1956) the researcher should be aware that "this set of functions may or may not be *the* set (or for that matter, an exhaustive set) of the functions served by volunteerism" (p. 255).

The six functions proposed by Clary et al. (1998) are:

- Values - the opportunity for individuals to express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns
- Understanding – the opportunity to permit new learning experiences and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities that may otherwise go unpracticed
- Social - reflects motivations concerning relationships with others, where volunteering may provide opportunities to be with ones friends or to engage in an activity viewed as important by others
- Career – benefits which can develop and enhance the volunteers career

- Protective – centres on protecting the ego from negative features of oneself or to reduce guilt of being more fortunate than others, or to address one's own personal problems
- Enhancement – centres on personal development and growth and increasing self-esteem, the positive aspects of the ego

The first four studies completed by Clary et al. (1998) were concerned with developing and validating the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) as a tool to measure the six functions hypothesised to be served by volunteering. The VFI comprised of a total of 30 questions, 5 assessing each of the 6 proposed functions and were answered by the volunteer by indicating on a 7-point Likert scale how accurate or important each statement was to them.

In Study 5 and 6 Clary et al. (1998) further hypothesised that if the volunteer received benefits relevant to the function that was being served by their volunteering they were likely to be more satisfied with their experience, and it was more likely that their volunteerism will be sustained. A series of six questions were developed to assess the level of functionally related benefits received, and three questions were developed to measure satisfaction with the volunteering experience. These items were answered by the volunteer indicating on a 7-point Likert scale how accurate or inaccurate each of the statements was. In addition, three questions were developed to measure intentions to continue to volunteer which were also answered by the volunteer indicating on a 7-point Likert scale how likely or unlikely each of the statements was.

2.4.1. Subsequent applications of the VFI

The studies completed by Clary et al. (1998) suggested the VFI was a reliable and valid method for assessing the motivations, benefits, satisfactions and intentions to continue of general volunteers. In a comparison between an open-ended probe (sociologist approach) and the completion of the VFI (psychologist approach) to identify motivations in a group of general volunteers, Allison et al. (2002) supported the use of the

VFI to assess volunteer motives. The study tested both tools on 195 volunteers involved with an organisation that recruits individuals for episodic volunteering within their community. Participants were asked to complete a mailed self-administered survey that included the VFI and open ended questions about their motivations for volunteering.

Allison et al. (2002) found the VFI simple to administer and to score and that both internal and external psychometric analyses found that "items behave in a way consistent with theoretical expectations" (p. 253).

The open-ended probe was less convincing as a method to assess motives as, almost one-third of respondents did not complete it, coders had to be trained for several hours to score the protocols and, the coding took a substantial amount of time to complete. However, one advantage of the open-ended probe was that "volunteer recruiters can identify motives among potential volunteers that are not measured by the VFI" (Allison et al., 2002, p. 254). Three such motives that appeared and were not covered by the VFI were religiosity, team building and volunteering because it is enjoyable.

Allison et al. (2002) clearly believed that the VFI represented the most comprehensive set of Likert rating scales for assessing motives for volunteering. Also, the analysis illustrated intentions to continue to volunteer was a function of the joint effect of the VFI motive scores and the potential needs that can be fulfilled by volunteering.

The limitations of the study were that it had a relatively low response rate of 30%. One-third of those that did respond did not complete the open-ended probe and, the sample was recruited from one volunteering organisation rather than many. These limitations may affect the generalisability of the study to potential volunteers. Also, the VFI and the

open-ended probe used assumed the potential participants respond accurately to the types of questions included.

In a comparison of competing measurement models, Okun et al. (1998) applied the VFI, and three other models of senior's motivations to volunteer on 409 adults aged over 50 who volunteered at health care facilities and 372 adults aged over 55 who were part of a volunteer agency that matched individuals with organisations.

Okun et al. (1998) not only found that the VFI model proposed by Clary et al. (1998) was the best fit for the motives of volunteering, but also that older volunteers were generally motivated to volunteer by three of the six reasons proposed. Firstly to act on their belief that it is important to help others, secondly to have the opportunity to learn more about themselves and the world they live in and finally, to enable themselves to feel useful and to feel good about themselves.

The limitations of the Okun et al. (1998) study were they focused on active volunteers, therefore it is unknown whether the results would have been different for those being recruited but not actually active. A second limitation was that the volunteers were asked to rate how important or accurate statements were to them to measure their motives, which assumes volunteers know the real reasons why they volunteer.

Schrock (1998) applied the VFI to a group of 282 Master Gardner volunteers. The study aimed to confirm the VFI as a valid and reliable measure of the motives of Master Gardner volunteers.

The study suggested the 6 functions that could be served by volunteering that were developed by Clary et al. (1998) existed for Master Gardner volunteers. Schrock (1998) found that respondents did volunteer for a

variety of reasons, however they rated the Understanding and Values functions as the most important for them in their volunteering experience.

He also found that "the most active volunteers in the Master Gardner program are most likely to respond favourably to the benefits provided by the programme" and "volunteers who received benefits related to their primary functional motivations also intended to continue as a volunteer in the future" (p. 68).

The main limitation of the study was that the VFI assumes the potential respondent can respond accurately to the types of questions included. Also the respondents were not all active volunteers, therefore they were asked to answer the questions to "the best of their recollection of when they were involved as a Master Gardner volunteer" (p. 28). In addition, the sample was recruited from one volunteering organisation rather than many which may affect the generalisability of the study to volunteers from other areas.

The most recent example where the VFI was applied was by Okun and Schultz (2003) who used it to assess 523 volunteers involved with Habitat for Humanity in the USA. The aim of the study was to understand what effect age has on volunteer motives using Socioemotional Selectivity Theory which posits "that as people age, there is a shift in the goals of social interaction" (Okun & Schultz, 2003, p. 237).

Okun and Schultz (2003) reported that age was not related to the values motive. That is, that older adults were generally not motivated to volunteer in order to act on their belief that it is important to help others, rather they found that they were generally motivated by the opportunity to make friends (social).

The limitations of this study were that only active volunteers were surveyed and, secondly, the volunteers were involved in building houses which may indicate they were especially active and these may affect the ability to generalise these findings to volunteers who "provide other types of service" (Okun & Schultz, 2003, p. 238).

The VFI is one means of assessing the various motivations of volunteers (Schrock, 1998), and, as evidenced from the applications of it outlined here, appears to be widely regarded as an acceptable and comprehensive method to measure the reasons why an individual volunteers.

2.5 Retention of volunteers

The retention of volunteers is a large subject area and "many of the studies completed have provided a practical basis from which to successfully plan and manage a volunteer program, and these volunteer programs mention the importance of retaining volunteers, but most are silent on *how* to retain them" (Cuskelly, 1995, p. 8). The application of retention models for paid employees may be useful in investigating and explaining the retention of unpaid workers, and indeed has been broached by other researchers (Schrock, 1998), however this type of investigation was outside the bounds of the current study.

The initial development and subsequent applications of the VFI attempted to explain sustained volunteering as a function of motives and benefits received (Clary et al., 1998; Okun & Schultz, 2003; Schrock, 1998). Stated simply, by applying the VFI, researchers are attempting to understand why individuals are interested in volunteering, then, that research can be applied in a practical setting by volunteer coordinators. The information can be used to organize recruitment and retention efforts around themes that are focused on fulfilling the specific needs of their target group (Allison et al., 2002).

Studies completed by Cuskelly (1995), Cuskelly and Boag (2001) and Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag (1998) on volunteer sports administrators demonstrated that volunteers commitment to the organisation was a significant predictor of sustained volunteering. Firstly, understand what motivates a person to become committed to an organisation, and then, what makes them increasingly likely to stay with the organisation. This is consistent with the research that has been completed under the umbrella of 'general volunteering'.

Cuskelly et al. (1998) completed a longitudinal study on 328 volunteers from various non profit sporting organisations. Participants were asked to complete two surveys, six months apart, questioning organisational commitment, behavioural commitment, perceived committee functioning and the perceived benefits of volunteering.

The aim of the study was to understand what effect structural attributes of an organisation, perceptions about experiences and personal characteristics have on the organisational commitment of sports administration volunteers. One of the three characteristics of organisational commitment identified was "a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 7) – which can be translated into an intent to continue to volunteer.

Cuskelly et al. (1998) found that organisational commitment developed as a result of an individual's perceptions about their experiences within the organisation and their personal characteristics. This finding was supported by Omoto et al. (2000) who found during a study into age-related agendas for volunteering that motivational agendas may change over time, and thus so will the benefits the volunteer hopes to gain from the activity, however as long as those changing benefit requirements are met the volunteering will continue. In a similar vein, Auld and Godbey (1998) in a study of 244 national sporting committee members also found

that even if some volunteers found themselves in a situation where they had less control than they would have liked, as long as they perceived their most important needs were being met, the volunteer activity would continue.

Although the present study uses a functionalist approach and investigates the motives that underlie volunteering, it is acknowledged that volunteering does not occur in a vacuum. In particular the work that has been completed by Cuskelly and others into committee functioning and the organisational commitment of volunteer sports administrators is extremely relevant in this instance.

Given the large number of volunteers that are involved in committees, an investigation into these aspects in New Zealand, and, in rugby in New Zealand, would be beneficial. However, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether the VFI was an applicable tool for the NZRU to use in the recruitment and subsequent retention of its volunteer force, and an investigation into the aspects covered by Cuskelly (1995), Cuskelly et al. (1998) and Cuskelly and Boag (2001) was outside the bounds of the present study.

2.6 Volunteers in New Zealand

New Zealand's voluntary sector is well established and incorporates well over 60,000 organisations involved in emergency services, social services, human rights, education, sports, community development and health (Toonen, 2001). The giving of time to help others and support their communities is a long-standing tradition in New Zealand (Toonen, 2001) however information about the total number of volunteers involved in the various organisations within New Zealand is not available as a combined picture.

Information on unpaid work is collected by Statistics New Zealand via the national census and time-use data is also being collected for New Zealand as part of an international initiative of a core group of mostly OECD countries (New Zealand Federation of Voluntary Welfare Agencies, 2004). The time-use survey involves participants recording what activities they complete in a 48-hour time diary that is divided up into time intervals. These activities are then summed and coded according to a classification system. The total time all participants spend on particular activities is then used to calculate the average time per head of population spend on each activity.

The first time-use survey was completed between 1 July 1998 to 30 June 1999 and collected data from 8,500 New Zealanders, aged 12 years and over, who each completed a two-day diary detailing what activities they spent their time on. Based on the data collected from those 8,500 people, statisticians then calculated the average number of hours per week each person in New Zealand spends on specific activities (Statistics New Zealand, 2001a). Using the time-use data, the economic value of the hours that residents spend completing tasks they are not paid for was estimated at \$39,637 million (Statistics New Zealand, 2001b).

This substantial total of unpaid work did not fit with the definition of volunteering we adopted for the current study because it included all tasks within the household and outside the household that were completed and not paid for. We were studying systematic volunteers who completed a particular role and gave a regular commitment, therefore, to get a better understanding of the economic value of systematic volunteers in New Zealand, it was necessary to investigate a further break down of the data.

Statistics New Zealand separated the unpaid work into tasks completed within a household, for example cooking the family meal and housework, and those completed outside a household. The time use survey showed

that each person spent approximately 1.7 hours per week completing formal unpaid work outside the household. Using the same method to calculate as used above, the estimated economic value of individuals that complete formal unpaid work outside the household was \$2,433 million. However, it is important to note that this figure is also an overstatement of the true economic value of systematic volunteers because it includes childcare, caring for a sick or elderly person outside a household and any form of formal study. Despite these limitations, this figure is still an excellent indication of what volunteers contribute to society, and which is not included in GDP figures and other measures of the economic wellbeing of a society.

The above economic value calculation assumes that every person in New Zealand complete formal unpaid work however, the actual number of residents completing unpaid work was collected via the 5 yearly national Census in 2001. A total of 428,403 people volunteered their time for an organisation, group or marae (Statistics New Zealand, 2004). It is difficult to translate this into an economic value as data on how many hours each of these people actually completed is not available. However if the findings from the time-use survey are used assuming 1.7 hours per week each, then the economic value of all volunteers within New Zealand in 2001 was \$363 million.

2.7 Volunteers in sport

Multiple studies have been completed in past years in an attempt to understand volunteering in general however, as Wilson (2000) stated, more focussed studies need to be completed on specific forms of volunteering to investigate whether generic theories can be applied.

Although many sports now have professional management at the higher levels, "community based, non-profit amateur sport organisations continue to rely almost exclusively on volunteers" (Doherty & Carron,

2003, p. 116) as the key to the success of their sport. Amateur sport organisations need volunteers to survive. Volunteers run the majority of club and school sports and contribute to the coaching, managing and refereeing of the sports. Parents are also key volunteers for sport and many fulfil mundane tasks such as washing the uniforms and running the canteen. Although it is widely recognised that without volunteers these 'grass-roots' sports would not survive, most of the sporting organisations do not gather data on their volunteers and are not able to quantify the number of volunteers involved in their sport.

Sport and Recreation New Zealand (SPARC), formerly known as the Hillary Commission, regards volunteers as "a core component of the physical leisure industry's survival and success" (Goodchild et al., 2000, p. 2). Consequently data is collected by SPARC on volunteers involved in sport and leisure activities in New Zealand.

In 2000, SPARC commissioned a report to understand the size of the sports industry in New Zealand and how it has changed over time. Employment data from Statistics New Zealand for 1998 was compared to the Census 1997, to ascertain what changes had occurred in the leisure industry in New Zealand. They found that the number of volunteers involved in the physical leisure sector increased by 32,000 to 540,652 or 19.6% of the adult population (Goodchild et al., 2000). Caution should be exercised however in the apparent significant increase in the number of volunteers during this one year period. Given varying data sources were employed for the analysis, the increase could be attributed to measurement differences. The data indicated that 245,000 or 9% of the adult population were involved in sport as an administrator (Goodchild et al., 2000), and that on average, each volunteer spent 2.7 hours per week in each role they volunteer in, and that people do perform multiple roles.

Goodchild et al. (2000) calculated the economic contribution of all individuals who volunteer for sport in New Zealand as \$1,896 million. This equated to 77% of the total labour input into the physical leisure sector (includes paid and non-paid roles). Based on the same calculation method, the estimated economic value of volunteer administrators is \$703 million.

Sport England commissioned a report in 1996 on the scale and value of volunteering in UK sport, which was subsequently updated in 2003 (Taylor, Nichols, Holmes, James, Gratton, Garrett, Kokolakis, Mulder & King, 2003). The report indicated the total number of volunteers involved in sport in the UK was 14.8%, which is lower than the 19.6% of the New Zealand adult population. Information on roles held by the UK volunteers was not gathered, therefore it was not possible to estimate what percentage of the population was involved in administration.

The researched body of knowledge into volunteering is growing, with several studies having been completed into general volunteering, i.e. not focussed on a specific sector. However, limited research has been completed on volunteers involved in sports, and even less into volunteer sports administrators. Aside from the time-use data collected by Statistics New Zealand, and the Goodchild et al. (2000) report produced for SPARC, no specific research on volunteers involved in sport in New Zealand has been located.

2.8 Rugby in New Zealand

Rugby is a \$91.2 million game in New Zealand (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2002) and is referred to by most as our national game. Rugby has the largest number of registered players for any sporting code in New Zealand, commands the highest television audiences and continues to receive the greatest sport media attention (McConnell, 1996).

The origins of the game of rugby date back to ancient Greece, but the first reported games in Australasia were not played until 1829 (McConnell, 1996). Different variations of the game existed at that time and the game as we know it today developed over the ensuing years. Rugby is played at many levels and in various forms in New Zealand, a few of which are mentioned in this excerpt from chairman of the New Zealand Rugby Union (NZRU) in 2002, Jock Hobbs:

"The All Blacks won back the Phillips Tri-Nations Series Trophy, the Sevens team won gold again at the Manchester Commonwealth Games and retained their IRB World Sevens Series title, the Black Ferns won back-to-back World Cups and the New Zealand Under-19 side won the IRB FIRA-AER World Championship" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2002, p. 1).

Mr Hobbs also highlighted specific successes of other representative teams such as the New Zealand Maori side, the New Zealand Maori Under-21 side, the New Zealand Divisional XV, the Telecom Super 12, the Air New Zealand NPC and the Lion Foundation Women's NPC.

Until the early 1990s the game was traditionally amateur until the NZRU, recognising the need for change, engaged the Boston Consulting Group to outline some strategic options for the sport in New Zealand. The report published in March 1994 paved the way for the professionalism of rugby in New Zealand (McConnell, 1996). As a result of the strategic options implemented by the NZRU the organisational structure today sees professional management in all key positions at National and Provincial levels, however volunteer administrators are still involved in some areas of the provincial unions and in all areas of the clubs. The exact number of volunteers involved in the administration of rugby in New Zealand is unknown, however, a best guess by the NZRU puts the figure well in excess of 5,000 active volunteers (B. Anderson, Personal Communication, 21 April, 2004).

Chairman of the NZRU in 2002, Jock Hobbs, acknowledged and thanked the "countless volunteers who in 2002 coached and managed teams, ran the clubs and refereed the matches so that others could enjoy the game. It is that commitment and sacrifice that continue to make rugby New Zealand's game" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2002, p. 5). The NZRU recognised that "given the increasing time commitments in all sectors of New Zealand society, people are finding themselves more reluctant to volunteer for roles" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003, p. 14). Volunteers within rugby in New Zealand complete many roles with the more visible of those being team coaches and referees. However, many other roles exist within rugby that do not have the visibility attached to them, one of which is administrators, the people who deal with the 'business' of the club or province.

The NZRU reported that "having insufficient administrators and coaches is a major concern" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003, p. 18) and a further concern is that administrators feel increasingly burdened by having to "provide higher levels of service and deal with increasing complex functions and issues" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003, p. 23).

It was this acknowledgement of the many volunteers involved in rugby that led the NZRU to include the quality, quantity and workload of volunteer administrators as a focus point in their Community Rugby Plan released in 2002. The Community Rugby Plan was developed and introduced to achieve a number of key strategic initiatives for the NZRU (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003). The issue of volunteers is being addressed through various strategic approaches from information sharing amongst clubs to training and volunteer appreciation schemes. At the completion of the implementation of the plan, the NZRU anticipates that volunteer administrators will feel "resourced, respected and rewarded for their efforts" (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2003, p. 23). The NZRU has also increased the funds available for volunteer appreciation schemes for

the provinces to recognise those at a local level who contribute to the game (New Zealand Rugby Union, 2002). It is reported that prior to 2004 the NZRU spent a total of \$30,000 on volunteer appreciation, this figure is set to increase over the next three years to \$70,000.

2.9 Summary

In summary, the research into general volunteering, sports volunteering and sports administration volunteering has found that a combination of the motivational factors and whether the experience meets the individual's needs affects a volunteers decision to continue working with an organisation. The research has also highlighted the importance of motivational factors which vary for each individual and the level at which the volunteering is taking place at.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research strategy

The purpose of this research was primarily to validate the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) as a measurement tool for provincial and rugby volunteer administrators in New Zealand. The secondary aim of the research was to investigate the underlying attributes of the volunteers that were involved in the administration of rugby in New Zealand. The researcher systematically replicated and extended two of the studies completed in Clary et al. (1998).

3.2 Research design

3.2.1. The subject organisation

This study was conducted with volunteers who were involved with the game of rugby union in New Zealand, at both provincial union and club level.

3.2.2. Contact strategy

Initial contact was made with the New Zealand Rugby Union (NZRU) via a phone call to Brent Anderson, Manager Community Rugby. As a result of this phone call the NZRU's support for the research was obtained, along with a list of contacts for each of the provincial unions and a list of clubs via their website (www.nzrugby.net.com).

The provincial unions were telephoned and advised that the research was taking place. The unions were asked for their support and asked to provide a representative through which the research process could be negotiated. Twenty-two of the 27 provincial unions agreed to participate and the representative was given the choice of two research protocols. The first was self-distribution by the provincial representative. If they chose self-distribution, they were sent the survey packs along with a letter of instruction (See Appendix A for a copy of the instruction letter). The

representative then distributed the surveys to all volunteers, and ensured they were returned, confidentially sealed and posted back to the researcher in the reply-paid, addressed, envelope. The second research protocol involved the researcher distributing the survey packs and in this case the union provided a list of names and addresses and the survey packs were posted direct to the participants.

The clubs were not telephoned, instead a survey pack was posted with a covering introduction and instruction letter to the club secretary at the address retrieved from the NZRU web-site (See Appendix B for a copy of the instruction letter).

3.2.3. Population and sample

The population for this study was deemed to be all systematic volunteers who held an administrative role within provincial or club rugby in New Zealand (approximately 5,000). A systematic volunteer was defined as one who has "a clearly defined role and who gave a regular commitment to the club" (Coleman, 2002, p. 221). For the purpose of this study, administration was defined as all roles that dealt with the business of the club or province.

After discussion with Brent Anderson (Manager Community Rugby, NZRU), the roles that were included in the study were:

- Junior rugby management board members
- Council of club delegates representatives
- Provincial board members and chairpersons
- Provincial age-grade representative rugby board members
- Club presidents, vice-presidents and chairpersons
- Club captains, treasurers and secretaries
- Sub-union delegates
- Team managers
- Gear custodians
- Committee members

- Provincial and club referee management roles

The roles of coach, referee, and player were specifically excluded from the study given these roles are mainly involved with participating in the sport, rather than the administration of it. Also, anyone receiving payment in the form of a salary or wage for their services was excluded.

In choosing a relevant sample size, the minimum sample size required for meaningful factor analyses and multiple regression analyses was considered. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1995) state that at least five times as many cases as there are variables to be analysed are required for factor analyses, but they also noted "the researcher should always try to obtain the highest cases per variable ratio to minimize the chances of over-fitting the data, in this case deriving factors that are sample specific with little generalisability" (p. 373). Likewise for multiple regression analysis, small samples are only appropriate for simple analyses, however large sample sizes, greater than 1,000, can make the statistical tests overly sensitive. Hair et al. (1995) go on to say that "any time the sample size exceeds 200 to 300 respondents, the researcher should examine all significant results to ensure they have practical significance due to the increased statistical power from the sample size" (p. 22).

The aims of the data collection centred on yielding the largest sample size possible, whilst remaining within the bounds of cost. The sample size for the provincial unions was drawn from the numbers advised by each representative spoken to. The sample for the clubs was drawn by randomly selecting 172 clubs from the 549 on the list provided by the NZRU. The total number of packs posted was 2,491 (771 to provincial unions and 1,720 to clubs).

3.2.4. Survey instrument

The survey instrument was a self-administered mail questionnaire comprised of five parts (See Appendix C for a copy of the questionnaire).

Part One collected information about the participants current volunteering activities. The questions collected information about what level they volunteered at, how long they had been a volunteer, how many hours per month they spent volunteering, and what role they held as a volunteer.

Part Two was the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The participant was asked to indicate how accurate or important each of the 30 statements was for them in doing their volunteer work. The responses were assessed with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1=not at all accurate/important to 7=extremely accurate/important).

Part Three looked at the benefits the participant perceived they obtained from volunteering and explored how satisfied they were with their volunteering experience. Benefits were assessed with six questions, one related to each factor, and were measured with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1=not at all accurate to 7=extremely accurate). The participant's satisfaction was assessed by a series of three questions using the same 7-point Likert scale.

Part Four collected data on the participant's intentions to continue to volunteer for rugby in New Zealand. The intentions were assessed by three questions measured by the same 7-point Likert scale above.

Part Five collected demographic information about the participant. The participant was asked to indicate age, gender, marital status, family situation, annual household income, occupation, schooling, length of residence, and level played rugby to. The participant was also invited to write any additional comments.

Participants either received the survey via the representative from their Provincial Union, or directly from the researcher through the mail. A number of surveys were returned due to addressing errors or the participant choosing not to participate (N=102). This reduced the potential size of the sample to 2,389. A total of 638 surveys were received back, a response rate of 27%. However, a number of invalid surveys were received back (N=34), where the participant held a role that was specifically excluded from the study, for example a coach or referee, which reduced the number of valid surveys to 604, a response rate of 25%.

The pack sent to participants included a covering letter/information sheet introducing the researcher and the chief supervisor, explaining the purpose of the study and, the participants role and rights (See Appendix D for a copy of the information sheet). A letter of support from the NZRU was also included (See Appendix E for a copy of the letter). Given that the questionnaire was self-administered and anonymous, separate consent forms were not required. However the information sheet included a statement that explained that completion of the questionnaire implied consent. Each participant also received a reply-paid return addressed envelope to return the survey to the researcher.

3.3 Research considerations

3.3.1. Data collection method

The majority of the studies into volunteering used a questionnaire as the data collection method (Auld & Cuskelly, 2001; Auld & Godbey, 1998; Benson et al., 1980; Clary et al., 1998; Coleman, 2002; Cuskelly, 1995; Cuskelly et al., 1998; Doherty & Carron, 2003; Omoto et al., 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). A smaller number of studies used either interviews alone (Omoto & Snyder, 1995) or a combination of interviews and a questionnaire (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Rosenthal et al., 1998).

The data collection instrument used in the current study was an adaptation of the questionnaire used in the sixth study completed by Clary et al. (1998), and in the interests of timeliness and cost, interviews were not completed. It was considered by the current researcher that the single data collection method would be sufficient to answer the research questions, given the study was a systematic replication of the study completed by Clary et al. (1998) who also used only one data collection method - a questionnaire.

3.3.2. Ethics

The Massey University Human Ethics Committee Code of Ethical Conduct for Research, Teaching and Evaluations involving Human participants was read and the screening questionnaire checklist was completed. Although the screening questionnaire indicated a full ethics application was not required, the researcher felt that the study would benefit from completing the full ethics committee approval process due to the size of the study being completed and the potential high profile of the results. The full ethics application was submitted and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee on 27 May, 2004 (See Appendix F for a copy of the ethics approval letter).

Full disclosure of the method and purpose of the research was achieved via the information sheet that was attached to the questionnaire. This information sheet identified the researcher as a Massey University student, what the survey was for and, what would happen to the results of the questionnaire. Participants were informed that all responses would be kept confidential and the information sheet explained that by completing the questionnaire, the respondents were consenting to participate in the study. Given the questionnaire was self-administered and anonymous, separate consent forms were not required. As a result of the disclosure, all participants completed the questionnaire by their own choice and it was an informed choice. A report on the outcome of the study will be sent to the NZRFU, all Provincial Unions and, made available to the clubs.

3.3.3. Data analysis

The data analysis process was a systematic replication of the analyses from the first and sixth studies completed by Clary et al. (1998). The researcher also completed different and additional techniques where considered appropriate.

The data were subjected to quantitative analysis using SPSS (version 12.0). The validity of the VFI and the six factors for this situation was explored by completing a principal components analysis and principal-axis factor analysis.

Two separate multiple regression analyses were used to test the two moderating relationships that were hypothesised. The first between motives for volunteering, benefits received, and satisfaction with volunteering. The second between motives for volunteering, benefits received, and intentions to continue volunteering. Canonical correlation was not considered an appropriate method in this instance given the current study was not hypothesising a link between the multiple predictors and dependant variables. Additionally, from an exploratory perspective, multiple regression is routinely employed to explore moderating relationships (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The results obtained were compared to Clary et al.'s (1998) study to ascertain whether the finding that "volunteers who receive benefits relevant to their primary functional motivations were not only satisfied with their service but also intended to continue to volunteer in the long-term future" (p. 1526) was true for volunteer provincial and club rugby administrators. Thus, in part, this aspect of the study could be considered a systematic replication and tentative sample generalisation of the Clary et al. study.

A t-test was used to ascertain whether different motives, levels of benefits received, levels of satisfaction, and intentions to continue to volunteer existed for provincial and club rugby respondents. More substantive studies may have employed multivariate techniques, such as logistic regression or discriminant analysis, to study the data. This technique was not employed here given that the investigation of differences between provincial and club level volunteers was an auxiliary analysis in this study. Multivariate techniques were, however, employed in other sections of the study, as those investigations were the main focus of the current research.

3.3.4. Potential limitations of the study

The reader is cautioned that the following potential limitations may have existed for the current study due to issues associated with the survey instrument, the data collection method, the sample, or the data analysis:

- Self-selection bias - the questionnaires were posted to participants who chose whether or not to respond. It was not possible to ascertain whether there were any differences in characteristics between those that responded and those that chose not to
- Self-reporting of volunteers behaviour - this may have introduced some bias into the results in the form of over or under statement of behaviour
- Questions included in the survey instrument may not have been entirely applicable to volunteers involved in rugby in New Zealand. If the questions were considered inapplicable, the participants may have been confused, which may have resulted in two issues. Firstly, a large number of missing values may have been reported if participants chose not to answer the question. Secondly, there may have been difficulty in interpreting the results if the participants were confused about the question
- Volunteers were asked to rate how important or accurate statements were to them in terms of assessing their motives. This assumes that volunteers knew the real reasons why they volunteer

- Self-reports of rates of volunteering and the time spent volunteering may not necessarily equate to actual work done (Chelladurai, 1999). This may have lead to an overstatement of the number of hours spent volunteering

CHAPTER 4. ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Demographics

Demographic information about the respondents was collected by nine questions in Part 5 of the questionnaire. Volunteers were asked to indicate which of the options presented was the most correct answer to the question.

4.1.1. Summary demographics

The majority of the participants were males over 40 years of age (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2). Most were married with adult children and had lived at their current address for at least 5 years (see Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5). Trade/Technical and Business/Financial constituted the largest occupational categories, with an annual household income of at least \$40,000 (see tables 4.6 and 4.7). Interestingly 43% of participants had achieved school certificate or less as their highest level of education (see Table 4.8). As expected 84% of the sample had played rugby to some level, with 80% having played to at least provincial level representative (any age-grade) (see Table 4.9).

4.1.2. Detailed demographics

Table 4.1 Gender of participants

	Number	Percentage
Male	497	83
Female	104	17
Missing values	3	

Table 4.1 shows the gender of the participants, with 497 (83%) of the participants being male. This result differed from other applications of the VFI where the majority of the volunteers were female (Schrock, 1998; Clary et al., 1998), however it was a similar result to the 1998-99 time-use survey completed by Statistics New Zealand which indicated that males spent more time on voluntary leisure and recreation work than females (Statistics New Zealand, 2004). This result was also expected given the game of rugby is historically a male domain, where "the

exclusion of women from most of rugby's social rituals swiftly became a deeply rooted phenomenon" (McConnell, 1996, p. 10).

Table 4.2 Age of participants

	Number	Percentage
20s	34	6
30s	101	17
40s	194	32
50s	186	31
60s	66	11
70s or older	20	3
Missing values	3	

Table 4.2 shows that the majority of the volunteers (77%) were aged 40 or over. This supported the findings of the 1998-99 time-use survey completed by Statistics New Zealand which indicated that people aged 45 years or older consistently spent more time volunteering outside the home than those younger than 45 years (Statistics New Zealand, 1999). The findings of Schrock's (1998) study into master gardener volunteers also found that 87% of the volunteers were aged 40 or over.

Table 4.3 Relationship status of participants

	Number	Percentage
Single, Never Married	57	10
Married	448	76
Divorced	12	2
Separated	14	2
De-Facto	62	11
Missing values	11	

The majority of the participants (76%) were married with the next largest category being those who were in a de-facto relationship (11%) as reported in Table 4.3. This result was supported by Schrock's (1998) study which found that 83% of those participants were married. De-facto relationship was not a category in that study, and the next largest category was divorced at 7%.

Table 4.4 Ages of participants children

	Number	Percentage
No children	73	12
Pre-school	63	11
Primary school	148	25
Secondary school	155	26
Tertiary	61	10
Adult	294	50

Note: Total percentages is greater than 100% because participants may have had children in more than one age bracket.

Table 4.4 shows that the bulk of the volunteers had children (88%), with only 12% not having any. This is consistent with Schrock's (1998) previous application of the VFI where 14% of the participants did not have children. The Census 2001 result indicated 61% of families in New Zealand had children (Statistics New Zealand, 2004), however direct comparison with the current study was not possible as the Census 2001 result was based on three family types existing in New Zealand, and does not include single-person households who may have responded to this survey.

A relatively small percentage of participants indicated they had pre-school age children (11%), and relatively speaking, the percentage who had primary school age children was also small (25%). Fifty percent of participants indicated they had children who were adults. This result was also supported by Schrock's (1998) study where it "was evident that most children of Master Gardeners were adults, whereas very few were of pre-school age" (p. 22).

Conceptually this was an expected result as volunteers who have young children would most likely have less surplus time available to spend volunteering.

Table 4.5 Years participants lived at present address

	Number	Percentage
Fewer than 5	171	29
5 – 10	165	28
More than 10	262	44
Missing values	6	

Rugby administration volunteers appeared to be long term residents in their homes with 44% of participants having lived at their current address for more than 10 years, and 28% having lived there between 5 and 10 years as shown in Table 4.5. These findings showed that rugby administration volunteers in New Zealand were slightly more mobile than Master Gardeners in Schrock's (1998) study where only 19% of respondents had lived in their homes for less than 5 years compared to 29% here. However, these findings were in contrast to the Census 2001 results which indicated that 50% of the population had changed their address in the past 5 years (Statistics New Zealand, 2004).

Table 4.6 Occupation of participants

	Number	Percentage
Professional	35	6
Education	36	7
Agriculture / Farming	102	19
Health	13	2
Construction	40	7
Business / Financial	131	24
Retired	34	6
Self-employed	18	3
Other	141	26
Missing values	54	

The largest occupation group in Table 4.6 was "other" (26%) which included hospitality staff, consultants, hairdresser, housewife, public servants, and other occupations that did not fit into the categories above. The next largest occupation group was business/financial, with 24% of the participants. This occupational category included accounts clerks, bankers, company directors, unspecified managers, real estate, and sales representatives. Agriculture / Farming was the next largest group at 19% of the participants. These results were in contrast to Schrock's (1998) study which found that retired was the most common occupation at 27%, however only 6% of the participants in this study were retired. It should

be noted however, that the number of missing values for this category, at 54, was large relative to the other demographic questions.

Table 4.7 Participants annual household income

	Number	Percentage
Under \$20,000	30	5
\$20,000 - \$39,999	103	18
\$40,000 - \$59,999	149	26
\$60,000 or greater	293	51
Missing values	29	

Table 4.7 shows that rugby administration volunteers appeared to be relatively wealthy with 51% of participants reporting an annual household income of \$60,000 or greater. This was much higher than the median annual household income of \$18,500 as measured by the 2001 Census (Statistics New Zealand, 2004).

Table 4.8 Level of education of participants

	Number	Percentage
Primary School	47	8
School Certificate	211	36
Sixth Form Certificate	69	12
Bursary / UE	68	12
Tertiary Undergraduate	96	17
Tertiary Postgraduate	88	15
Missing values	25	

Forty-four percent of participants in Table 4.8 had a level of education of school certificate or lower which was in line with the 2001 Census results where school certificate was the highest school qualification for most people (Statistics New Zealand, 2004). Thirty-two percent of participants had a tertiary education either at under-graduate or post-graduate level, which was also in line with national results in Census 2001 where one in three adults had a post school qualification (Statistics New Zealand, 2004). Interestingly, participants in the Schrock (1998) study were more highly educated with 53% of volunteers having at least a university degree, as were participants in the Clary et al. (1998) study where 60% had at least an undergraduate degree.

Table 4.9 Level of rugby played by participants

	Number	Percentage
Never Played	98	16
Secondary School	21	4
Club	247	41
Provincial Rep (any age)	209	35
National Rep (any age)	22	4
Missing values	7	

Only a small proportion of volunteers in Table 4.9 (16%) had not played rugby at all, which was around the same number of volunteers that were female (17%). The majority of the participants had played to at least club level (45%), with a large proportion also having played as a provincial representative at some age (35%).

Table 4.10 Current level of participants volunteering

	Number	Percentage
Provincial	131	22
Club	456	76
Both	17	3
Missing values	17	

Of the 604 valid surveys received back, 456 (76%) of participants volunteered at club level and 131 (22%) at provincial level. Although the survey asked participants to indicate at which level they spent the majority of their time volunteering, 17 indicated they volunteered at both provincial and club level as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.11 Number of years as an active volunteer

	Number	Percentage
Less than 2	33	6
2 – 5	109	18
6 – 10	100	17
More than 10	360	60
Missing values	2	

Table 4.12 Number of hours spent volunteering per month

	Number	Percentage
Less than 5	25	4
5 – 10	144	24
11 – 16	120	20
More than 16	312	52
Missing values	3	

Table 4.11 shows that the majority of participants had been volunteering for at least 6 years and spent more than 10 hours per month on volunteer activities for rugby in New Zealand. Three hundred and twelve respondents indicated they spent more than 16 hours per month volunteering as shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.13 Volunteer role held

	Number
Club Committee Member	168
Club Captain, Secretary or Treasurer	148
Club President, Vice-President or Chairperson	103
Provincial Board Member	73
Club Team Manager	61
Council of Club Delegates Member	56
Junior Rugby Management Board Member	52
Provincial Referee Management	30
Sub-Union Delegate	21
Club Gear Custodian	21
Provincial Age Grade Rep Rugby Board Member	14
Other role	38

The single largest role held by participants was club committee members (168 responses), with club captain, secretary or treasurers being the next most popular role at 148. Table 4.13 shows that the top three roles was completed by club president, vice-president or chairperson at 103. It was expected that the top three roles would be at club level, given that 76% of participants volunteered at club level.

The largest provincial role was provincial board member, with 73 responses and then Council of Club Delegates at 56. The top three provincial roles was completed by Junior Rugby Management Board Member at 52.

Although the survey asked participants to indicate which role they spent the majority of their time volunteering in, 220 participants indicated they volunteered in multiple roles. Table 4.13 illustrates how many of the participants held each role, and includes the multiple responses.

4.2 Reasons for volunteering

The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was developed by Clary et al. (1998) as a tool to measure the motives of general volunteers. The VFI has been tested on a wide range of volunteers from those involved with social and health services to gardeners, and on a range of ages from university students to retired persons. No previous research was located where the VFI was applied in a sports setting.

Therefore, the first hypothesis in this study was that the Volunteer Functions Inventory would produce psychometric characteristics that would suggest it to be a valid and reliable measurement tool of the motivations of administration volunteers involved in provincial and club rugby in New Zealand.

4.2.1. Factor analysis

The objective of factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables that measure functions, using one of the two main methods that exist; component analysis and common factor analysis. The factor analytic family of techniques allow the researcher to define a set of common underlying dimensions in a data set, and can be achieved from either an exploratory or confirmatory perspective. Exploratory factor analysis allows the data to define relationships that may exist, whereas confirmatory factor analysis allows the researcher to test a pre-prescribed structure or theory. Debate continues as to whether the appropriate role for factor analysis is as an exploratory or confirmatory approach (Hair et al., 1995). Velicer and Jackson (1990) caution that exploratory analytic techniques should always be employed except in those cases where a well-defined theory exists. The VFI has been applied in several studies, (Allison et al., 2002; Okun et al., 1998; Schrock, 1998), however it has not been applied to a sport setting, and not rugby in particular.

It was decided that a conservative approach to the data reduction of this set would be taken. Therefore exploratory factor analysis was employed to allow the data to reduce to the appropriate number of factors without the researcher placing preconceptions about the relationships and the number of factors that may exist.

Debate exists regarding whether to employ component analysis or common factor analysis techniques. Velicer and Jackson (1990) suggest that there is little basis to prefer either method, and the choice of either method will not greatly affect substantive conclusions. Clary et al. (1998) tested the general validity of the VFI by completing both component analyses and common factor analyses and these results were repeated in subsequent studies (Allison et al., 2002; Okun et al., 1998; Schrock, 1998). This study was a systematic replication of Clary et al.'s (1998) study, therefore the researcher completed both types of analyses also.

Several methods exist to decide the number of factors to retain, and which of those methods is most appropriate is also under debate. The most common method is the latent root criterion or the Kaiser rule. This method allows factors that have eigenvalues greater than one to be retained, however, Velicer and Jackson (1990) found that this method tended to be inaccurate and often leads to over-extraction of factors. This issue was also raised by Hair et al. (1995), who also stated that using the eigenvalues for establishing a cut off is probably most reliable when the number of variables is between 20 and 50. With N variables > 50 , the extraction tends to be overly conservative. With less variables it may result in over-extraction. The number of variables used in this study, as part of the factor analysis, was 30, therefore the Kaiser rule was deemed acceptable in this instance.

4.2.2. Assumptions of factor analysis

The assumptions of factor analysis are more conceptual than statistical (Hair et al., 1995), with departures from linearity and normality being acceptable, and with some multicollinearity being desirable as the objective is to identify variables that are related to each other. One test to determine if factor analyses are appropriate is the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), with values of 0.90 or above indicating factor analysis is "marvellously appropriate" (Hair et al., 1995, p. 374). The MSA for the principal-components analysis of the VFI was 0.940, which indicated factor analysis was appropriate for this situation.

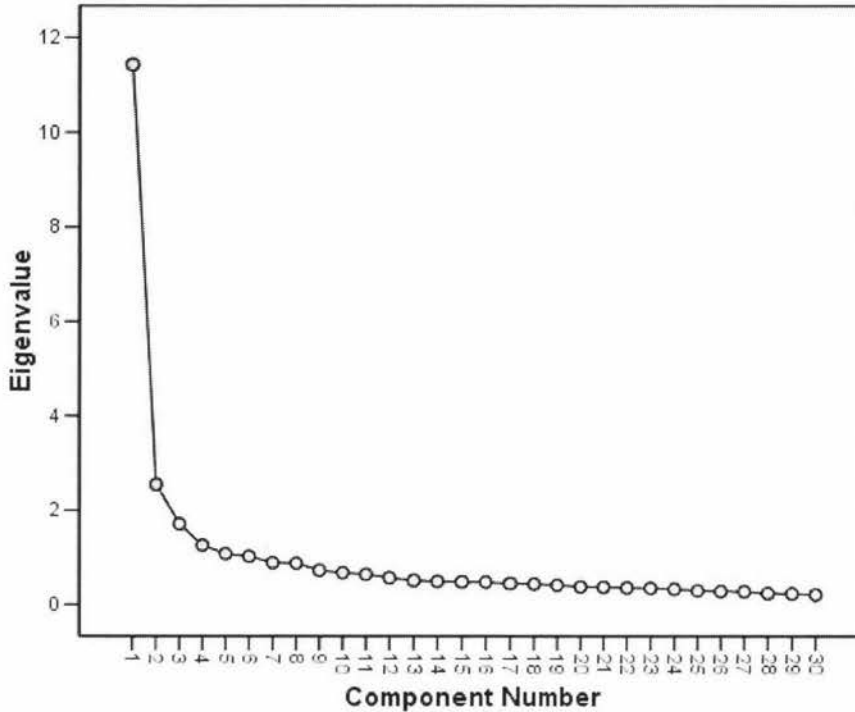
4.2.3. Factor analysis of the VFI

A principal-components analysis of the VFI was completed. Six components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were identified. They explained 64% of the variance, and provided preliminary evidence that six components emerged in this sample. The initial eigenvalues, variance explained and cumulative percentage variance explained are included in Table 4.14. This result was consistent with the findings of Clary et al. (1998) and Schrock (1998) who also found 6 components which explained 77% and 81% of the variance respectively.

As the principal-components analysis indicated a six component solution, a principal-axis factor analysis with oblique (direct oblimin) rotation was performed. Eigenvalues greater than one was selected as the criterion for factor extractions. This is not only the most common technique for extracting factors, but it also allows the factors to emerge on the basis of a non-restrictive empirical criterion, rather than forcing the data to fit parameters apriori (Hair et al., 1995). Allowing the factors to emerge according to this criterion was considered appropriate in this study as the researcher was completing an exploratory analysis and was testing the validity of the VFI for this sample. Based on theoretical grounds suggested in previous applications of the VFI, it was expected that some

correlation amongst the factors would manifest. As a result, direct oblimin (oblique) rotation was selected as the method of rotation.

Figure 4.1 Scree plot of eigenvalues for factor analysis



Investigation of the scree plot in Figure 4.1 at the point where it began to form a horizontal line indicated a maximum of 9 factors should be considered. This was more than the six factors indicated by the principal-components analysis and the results of other studies, although Hair et al. (1995) state "as a general rule, the scree test results in at least one and sometimes two or three more factors significant than does the latent root criterion" (p. 378) or eigenvalues extraction method.

Table 4.14 Pattern matrix for rugby administration volunteers (principal-axis factor analysis, oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) with eigenvalues > 1)

	Clary et al. (1998) factor being measured	Factor					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Feel less lonely	Protective	.682					
Good escape from my own troubles	Protective	.637					
Helps we through my own personal problems	Protective	.505					
Relieves me of guilt for being more fortunate	Protective	.458					
Makes me forget about feeling bad	Protective	.439					
Makes me feel better about myself	Enhancement	.621					
Makes me feel needed	Enhancement	.670					
Increases my self-esteem	Enhancement	.489					
Makes me feel important	Enhancement	.410					
Can do something for a cause that's important to me	Values		.819				
Genuinely concerned about NZ rugby	Values		.558				
Lets me learn things through hands on experience	Understanding						
Learn more about rugby	Understanding						
Can explore strengths	Understanding						
Can learn to deal with a variety of people	Understanding						
Gain new perspective	Understanding						
Way to make new friends	Enhancement						
Allows me to explore career options	Career						
Will help me succeed in chosen profession	Career						
Help to get foot in door	Career						
Will look good on my CV	Career						
Make contacts to help career or business	Career						
Concern for less fortunate people	Values						
Feel compassion towards people in need	Values						
Others I'm close to value community service	Social						
People I know share interest in community service	Social						
Is an important activity to the people I know best	Social						
People I'm close to want me to volunteer	Social						
Friends are rugby volunteers	Social						
I feel it is important to help others	Values						
Initial eigenvalues		11.4	2.5	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.0
Variance explained (%)		38.1	8.4	5.7	4.2	3.6	3.4
Cumulative variance explained (%)		38.1	46.6	52.3	56.5	60.1	63.6

Note: Only factor loadings greater than + or- 0.3 are shown

When interpreting the Pattern Matrix from the factor analysis, presented in Table 4.14 , the results indicated that for the Clary et al.'s (1998) Understanding, Career and Social items there was a clear and notable loading of each scale on it's intended factor and not on other factors. Given each of the questions notably loaded on a single factor, this indicated that the questions for these scales were measuring the correct factor and were consistent with the findings from Clary et al.'s (1998) and Schrock's (1998) studies.

In contrast to Clary et al. (1998) and Schrock (1998), the remaining three factors were not as clear. The Protective and Enhancement items clearly and notably loaded on the same factor, with two of the Enhancement items also loading on the Understanding factor. The loading of the Values items were also split. These results indicated that the questions for these scales were not clearly measuring the intended factor. This was reflected in several comments from participants about how relevant some of the questions were to volunteering for rugby. For example, one respondent commented "On the whole I believe that most questions tabled here in no way reflect the reasons or motives of many whom I know in the game".

From a closer look at the Protective and Enhancement items, it was apparent they both measure aspects of the ego which may explain the loading of all the items on one factor. The Protective items focus on the 'negative' aspects of the ego such as shielding oneself from negative feelings, whereas the Enhancement items focus on the 'positive' aspects, such as enhancing personal growth or development.

A link between the two has occurred in previous studies. Okun et al. (1998) found a relationship between the Protective, Enhancement, and Understanding factors, which they thought could be explained by the fact that "the protective and understanding items tap into different components of esteem enhancement (Enhancement items)" (p. 15).

In support of this they cited a study completed by Ranzijn, Keeves, Luszcz, and Feather (1998) which found evidence that a hierarchical model for self-esteem existed for older adult volunteers. The model has Global Self-Esteem as a second order factor, with Positive Self-Regard, along with a Usefulness/Competence factor, as first-level factors of self-esteem. Okun et al. (1998) reviewed the VFI questions for the Protective and Enhancement factors and, in terms of the hierarchical self-esteem model, found that both the Protective and Enhancement factors could be measuring volunteering as a chance to enhance a one's self regard. For example the Protective question, "Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems" (Q20 in the rugby survey) and the Enhancement question "Volunteering makes me feel better about myself" (Q27) could both be indicators of a "positive self-regard motivation for volunteering" (p. 617). They also found that both the Understanding and Enhancement factors could be measuring volunteering as a chance to enhance a one's sense of usefulness and competence. For example the Understanding question, "I can explore my own strengths" (Q30 in the rugby survey) and the Enhancement question "Volunteering makes me feel needed" (Q26) could both be indicators of a "usefulness and competence motivation for volunteering" (p. 617).

Although the Ranzijn et al. (1998) study focussed on older adult volunteers and not sports volunteers, the results suggest that the relationship between the Enhancement and Protective factors may not be an anomaly and has appeared in other groups of volunteers. The hierarchical model of self-esteem suggests that the reasons the Protective and Enhancement items loaded on the same factor was due to the similarities in what they were measuring – that is, the positive and negative aspects of the ego.

The values questions loaded on three factors which indicated that some of the questions were not clearly measuring the Values factor and, the

questions may not have been as applicable for rugby volunteers as they were for other volunteers. The two items that deal with the respondents feelings about the specific cause they were involved with, "I can do something for a cause that is important to me" and "I am genuinely concerned about rugby in New Zealand", notably loaded on the same factor. The item "I feel compassion towards people in need" loaded on two factors, although not notably, which, indicated that this question was not applicable for rugby administration volunteers in New Zealand. The item "I am concerned for those less fortunate than myself" notably loaded on the same factor as the "I feel compassion for people in need" item, however the content of the questions suggest they may not be as relevant for rugby administration volunteers as for other groups of volunteers. Interestingly the item "I felt it is important to help others" only moderately loaded the social factor.

Although both the principal-components analysis and the principal-axis factor analysis indicated that a six factor solution may exist for rugby administration volunteers in New Zealand, the analyses also suggest that the VFI, in it's current form, may not be a valid tool for measuring their motives. This was reflected by comments from one respondent; "I volunteered to help with rugby, to help pass on skills and knowledge of the game that I enjoyed playing. I am disappointed that your questionnaire has not asked about some of these points. And that it seems to imply that a lot of rugby administrators / volunteers are there for their own personal power play / satisfaction / feel good sort of rubbish".

It was apparent from the analyses completed that further analysis of the VFI items, and in particular review and amendment of the Enhancement, Protective, and Values questions, was required. This, however, was not within the bounds of this current study.

4.2.4. The six factors for New Zealand rugby administration volunteers

It was acknowledged by Clary et al. (1998) that although their study identified a core set of functions that underlie general volunteering, there may be meaningful variations to these core functions depending on the volunteering activity that is being studied. When reviewing not only the statistical results of the current study, but also the practical significance of them (Hair et al., 1995), it was apparent that a variation from the core functions identified by Clary et al. (1998) existed for rugby administration volunteers in New Zealand.

Based on the researcher's knowledge from the literature and interpretation of the analysis, the items making up the six factors for this sample of volunteers in New Zealand, their new names and an explanation of the factors are:

- Values - two of the old Clary et al. (1998) Values questions, "I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself" and "I feel compassion towards people in need" - measure the volunteer's altruistic values, that is, their concern for others who are less fortunate than themselves
- Understanding - a combination of the five Clary et al. (1998) Understanding items and the old Enhancement item "Volunteering is a way to make new friends" - measure the opportunity for learning experiences and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities that may otherwise go unpracticed
- Social - five of Clary et al.'s (1998) Social items and the old Values item "I feel it is important to help others" - measure motivations concerning relationships with others, where volunteering may provide opportunities to be with ones friends or to engage in an activity viewed as important by others
- Career - the same as the Clary et al. (1998) Career factor - measures benefits which can develop and enhance the volunteers career

- Ego – five of Clary et al.'s (1998) Protective items and the Enhancement items “Volunteering for rugby increases my self-esteem”, “Volunteering for rugby makes me feel needed”, “Volunteering for rugby makes me feel better about myself” and “Volunteering for rugby makes me feel important” – measure the opportunity to improve one’s image of oneself, for example, decreasing negative feelings or increasing personal growth
- Cause – two of the Clary et al. (1998) Values items, “I can do something for a cause that’s important to me” and “I am genuinely concerned about rugby in NZ” - measure how passionate a volunteer feels about the particular cause they are involved with, in this instance rugby in New Zealand

Further research and testing of these factors is required to assess whether this result is an anomaly and only occurs for this current sample, or whether this result is generalisable to the population. This further research, however, is not within the bounds of the current study.

Table 4.15 presents a comparison between the six Clary et al. (1998) functions and the new functions suggested by the current researcher. The revised functions outlined below (indicated by italicised print in the ‘New Definition’ column) will be used for the remaining analyses.

Table 4.15 Functions served by volunteering as a rugby administrator in New Zealand

Function	Old Definition	New Definition
Values	The individual volunteers in order to express or act on important values like humanitarianism	<i>The volunteer is expressing humanitarian values, i.e. their concern for others less fortunate than themselves</i>
Understanding	The volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused	<i>The volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused (Unchanged)</i>
Social	Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships	<i>Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships (Unchanged)</i>
Career	The volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering	<i>The volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering (Unchanged)</i>
Ego	Not applicable – new factor	<i>The individual views volunteering as an opportunity to improve ones image of one-self</i>
Cause	Not applicable – new factor	<i>The individual volunteers in order to express the passion they feel about the particular cause they are involved in – i.e. Rugby</i>
Protective	The individual uses volunteering to reduce negative feelings such as guilt, or to address personal problems	Not applicable – no longer a factor
Enhancement	One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities	Not applicable – no longer a factor

4.2.5. Reliability of the VFI

The reliability of the VFI was examined by Clary et al. (1998) and Schrock (1998) by completing test-retest correlations to test temporal stability, and calculating Cronbach's Alpha coefficient to test internal consistency. The design of the current study did not include completing test-retest correlations as it was not considered practical to administer the questionnaire twice. However, given that the six factors that emerged for this sample differed to those discovered in Clary et al. (1998), it was considered prudent to test the reliability of the six VFI factors.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient indexes the reliability of the scales by calculating the expected correlation between an actual application and a hypothetical errorless and idealistic alternative application (Nunnally &

Bernstein, 1994, p. 235). The coefficient generally ranges between 0 and 1.0, with higher values suggesting higher internal consistency (Hair et al., 1995, p. 618). Alpha can be affected by the number of items in the scale, therefore the alpha values should be interpreted with the number of items in mind as it can sometimes return results of spurious magnitude where there are a large number of items in the scale (Cortina, 1993).

Table 4.16 Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the six VFI factors

Factor	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Ego	9	0.89
Understanding	6	0.88
Social	6	0.79
Career	5	0.88
Cause	2	0.64
Values	2	0.77

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated for each of the six VFI scales found for rugby administration volunteers and the results are presented in Table 4.16. "Most recent studies that use alpha imply that a given level, perhaps greater than 0.7 is adequate" (Cortina, 1993, p. 101), and in terms of these guidelines, these results indicated an acceptable level of internal consistency with the exception of the Cause scale. With a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.64, the Cause scale was within the lower bounds of acceptability, however Hair et al. (1995) suggest that values below 0.7 can be deemed acceptable if the research is exploratory in nature. Emphasis should not be placed on the relatively larger alpha's for the scales with more items in them as alpha is affected by the number of items in the scale.

4.2.6. Why do administrators volunteer for rugby in New Zealand?

A comparison of the means for the six motives for volunteer rugby administrators in New Zealand (reported in Table 4.17) suggested that the Cause motive was the most important with a mean score of 5.42. The remaining means all tended to fall below the midpoint (4) of the 7-point Likert scale.

Table 4.17 Factors in motivation of volunteer New Zealand rugby administrators

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cause	602	5.4169	1.38949
Understanding	597	3.9612	1.40732
Social	592	3.5160	1.30276
Values	586	3.3968	1.73378
Ego	580	2.2575	1.16879
Career	596	1.9815	1.25322

Table 4.18 Dunnett T3 test for differences in the means of motives

Grouping variable (I)	Grouping variable (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Ego	Understanding	-1.70368	.07532	.000
	Career	.27584	.07065	.001
	Social	-1.25863	.07227	.000
	Values	-1.13938	.08652	.000
	Cause	-3.15956	.07459	.000
Understanding	Ego	1.70368	.07532	.000
	Career	1.97951	.07715	.000
	Social	.44504	.07864	.000
	Values	.56430	.09190	.000
	Cause	-1.45589	.08077	.000
Career	Ego	-.27584	.07065	.001
	Understanding	-1.97951	.07715	.000
	Social	-1.53447	.07418	.000
	Values	-1.41521	.08812	.000
	Cause	-3.43540	.07643	.000
Social	Ego	1.25863	.07227	.000
	Understanding	-.44504	.07864	.000
	Career	1.53447	.07418	.000
	Values	.11926	.08942	.951
	Cause	-1.90093	.07794	.000
Values	Ego	1.13938	.08652	.000
	Understanding	-.56430	.09190	.000
	Career	1.41521	.08812	.000
	Social	-.11926	.08942	.951
	Cause	-2.02019	.09131	.000
Cause	Ego	3.15956	.07459	.000
	Understanding	1.45589	.08077	.000
	Career	3.43540	.07643	.000
	Social	1.90093	.07794	.000
	Values	2.02019	.09131	.000

To test whether a significant difference between the means existed, a one-way ANOVA was completed, however the results could not be used because the assumption of homogeneity was violated (Levene Statistic = 32.74, significance = 0.000). A Kruskal-Wallis H test was then completed

which resulted in a significant outcome, indicating that a difference between the means did exist. Further analysis using the Dunnetts T3 post hoc test, which assumes unequal variances, suggested that, in terms of overall relative magnitude, the Cause motive was significantly different to the others. The results of this test are reported in Table 4.18.

This finding that the Cause motive was significantly different to the other factors was also supported by the comments offered by respondents; "the major factor that has kept me involved in rugby playing, coaching and administering over a period of more than 50 years is, simply, that I love the game, as a game", "I love this game, it's so true to life", and , simply, "love the game!".

Investigation of the means of the questions underlying these factors, presented in Table 4.19, showed that the two Cause questions ranked as the most important motivators for rugby administration volunteers. Three of the six Understanding questions ranked above the midpoint also, with the remaining three items ranking at 3.53 or above. The Social item, "I feel it is important to help others" ranked as the third highest item overall. All the remaining Social, Values and Understanding items appeared in the middle of the ranking. At the other end of the range, all five Career items and all nine Ego items appeared in the lowest ranked items, sending a clear message that volunteering for this cause is not about gaining things for yourself, but rather for the cause. The rankings of the individual questions were generally consistent with the rankings of the means for the factor they measured.

This was illustrated by a comment offered by a respondent "The reason I volunteer my time to rugby is a personal stand that I have taken to stop the rot which has set in at club level around New Zealand. From past experience people who are either self-serving or have ulterior motives don't tend to last too long in rugby".

Table 4.19 Ranking of motivational items for New Zealand rugby administration volunteers

Motivational Item	Factor being measured	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Genuinely concerned about NZ rugby	Cause	604	5.60	1.575
Can do something for a cause that is important to me	Cause	602	5.23	1.664
I feel it is important to help others	Social	602	5.06	1.619
Can learn to deal with a variety of people	Understanding	602	4.30	1.714
Lets me learn things through hands on experience	Understanding	603	4.18	1.706
Way to make new friends	Understanding	604	4.07	1.854
Learn more about rugby	Understanding	604	3.93	1.900
Can explore strengths	Understanding	601	3.78	1.848
People I know share interest in community service	Social	604	3.57	1.843
Gain new perspective	Understanding	602	3.53	1.723
Concern for less fortunate people	Values	588	3.46	1.894
Is an important activity to the people I know best	Social	601	3.37	1.893
Feel compassion towards people in need	Values	602	3.35	1.965
Others I'm close to place high value on community service	Social	603	3.23	1.806
Friends are rugby volunteers	Social	601	2.99	1.796
Makes me feel better about myself	Ego	601	2.87	1.779
People I'm close to want me to volunteer	Social	600	2.84	1.894
Increases my self-esteem	Ego	598	2.78	1.760
Makes me forget about feeling bad	Ego	603	2.74	1.832
Makes me feel needed	Ego	602	2.47	1.670
Make contacts to help career or business	Career	604	2.37	1.736
Makes me feel important	Ego	602	2.35	1.673
Allows me to explore career options	Career	603	2.09	1.601
Good escape from my own troubles	Ego	603	2.00	1.489
Will look good on my CV	Career	604	1.98	1.532
Will help me succeed in chosen profession	Career	601	1.88	1.456
Feel less lonely	Ego	601	1.85	1.369
Helps we through my own personal problems	Ego	599	1.75	1.270
Help to get foot in door	Career	600	1.65	1.362
Relieves me of guilt for being more fortunate	Ego	601	1.64	1.199

4.3 Benefits of volunteering

An understanding of what people get out of volunteering, that is, what benefits they receive, is useful information for the organisation that the volunteers are part of. The organisation gains an additional level of understanding of the characteristics of their volunteers and this information could be used as an aid in the recruitment and the retention of volunteers.

4.3.1. Measuring benefits of volunteering

The benefits rugby administrators received from their volunteer experience were measured by six questions included in Part Three of the survey:

- I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby
- I gain a sense of self-accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby
- I learned something new about the world by volunteering for rugby
- Volunteering for rugby allowed me to think about others instead of myself
- The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated
- I learned some skills that will be useful for my future career by volunteering for rugby

A comparison of the means of the benefits questions (reported in Table 4.20) showed that the two benefits "the work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated" and "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby" were the highest scoring benefits with mean scores of 4.52 and 4.42 respectively. The remaining means all tended to fall below the midpoint (4) of the 7-point Likert scale.

Table 4.20 Benefits of volunteering as a rugby administrator

Benefit question	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Work I performed was appreciated	602	4.52	1.560
Gain a sense of self accomplishment	602	4.42	1.646
Can express personal values	600	3.82	1.685
Allowed me to think about others	598	3.69	1.724
Learned something new about the world	598	3.27	1.680
Learned skills useful for my future career	599	3.25	1.830

4.3.2. Testing for differences in the means

To test whether a significant difference between the means existed, a one-way ANOVA was completed, however the results could not be used because the assumption of homogeneity was violated (Levene Statistic = 7.837, significance = 0.00). A Kruskal-Wallis H test was then completed which resulted in a significant outcome, indicating that a difference between the means may exist. Further analysis was completed using Dunnetts T3 post-hoc test which assumes unequal variances. The results of this test, reported in Table 4.21, indicated several significant results, with the largest mean differences appearing for the difference between the two benefit questions "the work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated" and "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby" and the other benefit questions. These results suggested that, in terms of overall relative magnitude, these two benefits were the highest reported benefits received from volunteering.

Table 4.21 Differences in means of Benefits (Dunnetts T3 test)

Grouping variable (I)	Grouping variable (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Work was appreciated	Express Personal Values	.700	.094	.000
	Sense of self- accomplishment	.105	.092	.988
	Learned about world	1.252	.094	.000
	Allowed me to think of others	.831	.095	.000
	Learned skills for career	1.275	.098	.000
Sense of self- accomplishment	Express Personal Values	.595	.096	.000
	Learned about world	1.148	.096	.000
	Allowed me to think of others	.726	.097	.000
	Work was appreciated	-.105	.092	.988
	Learned skills for career	1.170	.100	.000
Express Personal Values	Sense of self- accomplishment	-.595	.096	.000
	Learned about world	.552	.097	.000
	Allowed me to think of others	.131	.099	.952
	Work was appreciated	-.700	.094	.000
	Learned skills for career	.575	.102	.000
Allowed me to think of others	Express Personal Values	-.131	.099	.952
	Sense of self- accomplishment	-.726	.097	.000
	Learned about world	.421	.098	.000
	Work was appreciated	-.831	.095	.000
	Learned skills for career	.444	.103	.000
Learned about world	Express Personal Values	-.552	.097	.000
	Sense of self- accomplishment	-1.148	.096	.000
	Allowed me to think of others	-.421	.098	.000
	Work was appreciated	-1.252	.094	.000
	Learned skills for career	.022	.102	1.000
Learned skills for career	Express Personal Values	-.575	.102	.000
	Sense of self- accomplishment	-1.170	.100	.000
	Learned about world	-.022	.102	1.000
	Allowed me to think of others	-.444	.103	.000
	Work was appreciated	-1.275	.098	.000

4.3.3. The benefits of volunteering as a rugby administrator

It is noteworthy that the two highest reported benefits received from volunteering appeared to be focussed on the individual feeling better about themselves, rather than the betterment of others. This supports some beliefs that human nature dictates we are actually in it for whatever we can gain for ourselves although we are doing what may appear to be selfless tasks, and comes back to the debate about whether people are driven to volunteer by altruistic or self-interested motives or a combination of both (Henderson & Silverberg, 2002; Parker, 2000).

Interestingly the analyses of the motives of the volunteer rugby administrators in New Zealand (Section 4.2.6) suggested that the individuals passion for rugby (Cause) was the main reason they volunteered their time. In apparent contrast to this, the analysis of the benefits showed that the individuals perceived the benefits they were receiving were related to reward and satisfaction for themselves, that is, the benefits had an egoistic basis.

Whether there was a link between motives and benefits is investigated in the next section (4.4), and further discussion will recommence once further analysis has been completed. An understanding of what benefits individuals perceived they were receiving from volunteering as a rugby administrator is exceptionally useful information for the NZRU.

4.4 Satisfaction with volunteering

4.4.1. Measuring satisfaction with volunteering

The satisfaction of rugby administrators was measured by three questions included in Part Three of the survey:

- On the whole my volunteer experience for rugby has been very positive for me
- I am personally very satisfied with the responsibilities given to me through my volunteering for rugby

- I don't think I have got anything out of the volunteer experience for rugby

An investigation of the means for the three items in the questionnaire measuring satisfaction, reported in Table 4.22, indicated that respondents were generally satisfied with their volunteer experience, with mean satisfaction scores ranging from 4.93 to 5.78 on the 7-point Likert Scale.

Table 4.22 Volunteers satisfaction with volunteering

Satisfaction Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Volunteer experience has been very positive	603	5.10	1.463
Very satisfied with responsibilities given to me	602	4.93	1.561
I don't think I got anything out of experience	571	5.78	1.727

Note 1: The item "I don't think I got anything out of the experience" was reversed scored

The functionalist proposition is that life outcomes depend on the match between an individual's motivational goals and the fulfilment of those goals (Schrock, 1998). In an investigation of this proposition Clary et al. (1998) found that volunteers were more likely to be satisfied with their volunteering experience if they received benefits related to their main reason for volunteering (function), than if they failed to receive such benefits or received functionally irrelevant benefits. This pattern held most strongly for motivations that were of greatest importance to the volunteers.

4.4.2. Clary et al.'s (1998) benefits measure

The benefits individuals received from their volunteer experience were measured in Clary et al. (1998) by six questions, with each question measuring the benefits associated with a particular function that was being served by volunteering. The benefit questions and the function they serve are included in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 Clary et al.'s (1998) benefit questions for functions served by volunteering

Function	Benefit Question
Values	I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby
Enhancement	I gain a sense of self-accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby
Understanding	I learned something new about the world by volunteering for rugby
Protective	Volunteering for rugby allowed me to think about others instead of myself
Social	The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated
Career	I learned some skills that will be useful in my future career by volunteering for rugby

4.4.3. Measuring satisfaction for volunteer rugby administrators

The satisfaction of volunteers was measured by a series of three questions as included in Table 4.24. Overall satisfaction with the volunteering experience was then calculated as the average of the three questions.

Table 4.24 Questions to measure satisfaction

Satisfaction Question	Measure
On the whole my volunteer experience for rugby has been very positive for me	7-point Likert Scale (1=not accurate at all, 7=extremely accurate)
I am personally very satisfied with the responsibilities given to me through my volunteering for rugby	7-point Likert Scale (1=not accurate at all, 7=extremely accurate)
I don't think I have got anything out of the volunteer experience for rugby	7-point Likert Scale (1=not accurate at all, 7=extremely accurate) – this item was then reverse scored

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the satisfaction scale for the current study, and was 0.56 which indicated the internal consistency of the scale was low. This indicated that there may be issues of unidimensionality for this scale.

4.4.4. Clary et al.'s (1998) study of satisfaction

In the fifth study in the series, Clary et al. (1998) analysed satisfaction scores as a function of the individuals scores on each motive and each benefit score, resulting in six 2 X 2 between-subjects factorial designs (one for each VFI scale). They then completed a contrast analysis and

compared the satisfaction scores of volunteers who scored above the mean on both the VFI scale and the functional benefits scale with the satisfaction scores of the participants who did not. These results suggested the hypothesis that individuals who received high amounts of benefits directly related to the reason they volunteered were more satisfied than those who received low amounts of relevant benefits or irrelevant benefits was correct.

Following on from the findings of Clary et al. (1998), the hypothesis of this study was that volunteers who received greater amounts of functionally relevant benefits would be more satisfied with their experience than those who received lesser amounts of functionally relevant benefits or received functionally irrelevant benefits.

The investigation of the benefits associated with volunteering in this study, and the relative affect on the individuals satisfaction has been complicated by the finding in section 4.2.4 that the functions that are served by volunteering as a rugby administrator differed from those found by Clary et al. (1998).

The finding of dissimilar functions firstly resulted in difficulty interpreting whether the benefit questions were relevant to this study. Secondly, if the questions were found to be relevant, difficulty may have arisen in interpreting which function each of the benefit questions was related to and, an inability to replicate Clary et al.'s (1998) analysis techniques for this hypothesis.

4.4.5. Multiple regression analyses

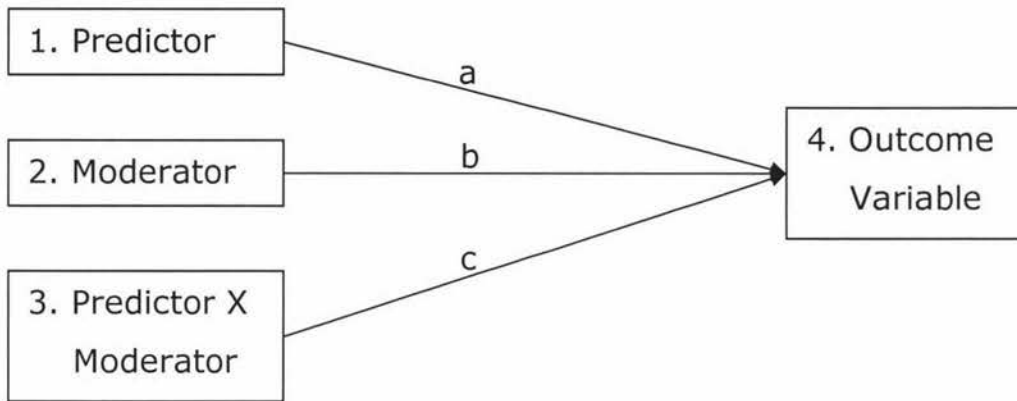
The objective of regression analysis is to "predict or explain a single dependent variable from the knowledge of one or more independent variables" (Hair et al., 1995, p. 86). Regression analysis was employed in this study to overcome the difficulties that resulted from differing functions being evident for rugby administration volunteers than those

found by Clary et al. (1998). In the present study, multiple regression analysis initially investigated whether any relationship existed between satisfaction, and the motives and benefits.

If a relationship was established, further regression analysis was employed to investigate whether a moderating relationship existed. A moderating relationship is where the hypothetically causal relationship between two variables changes as a function of a moderator variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The alternative relationship, mediating, was not tested for, as the researcher considers the relationship in the current study does not meet the criteria of being mediating. Baron and Kenny (1986) state that "a given variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion" (p. 1176). The focus of this study was not that perceived benefits would account for the relationship between motives and satisfaction with the volunteering experience. Rather, it was thought that the motive for volunteering, combined with the level and types of benefits received, might affect the volunteers satisfaction with volunteering.

The moderator model is presented in Figure 4.2. In this study the predictor variable (1) was the individual's motive for volunteering, the moderator (2) was the benefit, and the outcome or dependent variable (4) was satisfaction. The model identifies three paths; (a) which is the impact of motive on satisfaction, (b) which is the impact of benefits on satisfaction. The final path is (c) which is the interaction of the two previous variables. If path (c) is significant, the moderator hypothesis is supported (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Figure 4.2 Moderator model (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174)



Baron and Kenny (1986) offer four cases for analysis which depend on whether the variables have a categorical level of measurement or whether they are continuous. In the current study the predictor was continuous but the moderator was ordinal, therefore the researcher chose to implement case 4. The case is used when both the moderator and the predictor are continuous, which seems more appropriate than the other options in which are both variables are nominal, or one is nominal and one is continuous.

The procedure to follow for case 4 is then reliant on what type of relationship you expect to find between the independent and dependent variables with respect to the moderator variable. Baron and Kenny (1986) state "If one presumes that the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) varies linearly or quadratically with respect to the moderator (Z), the product variable approach described in case 3 should be used" (p. 1176).

In the current study it was hypothesised that there was a linear relationship between the independent variable (motive) and the dependent variable (satisfaction) with respect to the moderator (benefits), therefore the analytic techniques of case 3 were implemented. This involved completion of a linear regression analysis with the inclusion of the product (3) in the equation along with the predictor and moderator as

independent variables, and the outcome variable as the dependent variable. If a moderator effect existed it would be "indicated by the significant effect of XZ while X and Z are controlled" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176).

Clary et al. (1998) did not mention a moderating relationship in their study, even though the characteristics of the hypothesis may have suggested this type of relationship. The analysis they completed however, had elements of the four cases that are recommended by Baron & Kenny (1986) in the investigation of moderating relationships.

4.4.6. Assumptions of multiple regression

There are four major assumptions that underlie multiple regression analysis. Linearity of the relationship observed, constant variance of error terms, independence of error terms and normality of the error term distribution.

In SPSS these assumptions can be tested as part of the output of the regression analysis. Hair et al., (1995) state that an examination of the scatterplots of the residuals versus the predicted values enables the researcher to ascertain whether the assumptions of multiple regression have been violated. When examining the scatterplots, the researcher must ensure that no distinguishable pattern is evident, the residuals fall randomly with relatively equal dispersion about zero and have no strong tendency to be greater than or less than zero. Also that no pattern is found for large versus small values of the independent variable.

If none of these items are evident then the first three assumptions of multiple regression have been met. To test the normality of the error term distribution, the fourth assumption, histograms of the residuals are reviewed to provide evidence for normally distribution data in the dependant variable (Hair et al., 1995).

4.4.7. Regression analysis of the satisfaction of rugby administration volunteers

To explore whether any of the benefit questions and any of the functions (motives for volunteering) had a relationship with each other and with satisfaction, the first technique employed was a linear multiple regression analysis. Satisfaction was treated as the dependent variable, and the independent variables were defined as motive and the six benefit questions. The reasons for using single items to measure the proposed moderating variable, perceived benefits, were twofold. Firstly, the aim was to systematically replicate the sixth study completed by Clary et al. (1998), where single items were used to measure perceived benefits. Secondly, it was considered practical to have a short questionnaire to encourage participation. Six of these regression analyses were completed, one for each of the motives for volunteering.

All the models were significant and each explained a meaningful amount of the variance, illustrated by adjusted R-squared values ranging from 0.36 to 0.38. However, only two of the motives, Cause and Career, were significant as part of the regression equation. Both of these models also had the same four significant benefit questions, "I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby", "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby", "The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated" and "I learned some skills that will be useful in my future career by volunteering for rugby". An examination of the plots for these two significant models indicated that the assumptions of regression analysis outlined in 4.4.5 were met.

To investigate whether a moderating relationship existed between the motives, the benefits and satisfaction, the next technique employed was an additional linear regression analysis as recommended by case 3 of Baron and Kenny (1986). Each significant benefit was entered into the

regression model as an independent variable along with each of the benefit questions deemed significant by the previous analysis and the product of the motive times the benefit question, with satisfaction being the dependent variable. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 4.25 to 4.32.

Table 4.25 Regression coefficients for Career and 'Can express personal values'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.791	.210		18.082	.000
Career	.268	.108	.285	2.475	.014
Can express personal values	.330	.048	.472	6.892	.000
Career X Express Values	-.037	.021	-.253	-1.783	.075
Summary: R = (.421), R Squared = (.177), Adjusted R squared = (.173)					

Table 4.26 Regression coefficients for Career and 'Gain a sense of self accomplishment'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.607	.243		14.833	.000
Career	.077	.141	.082	.545	.586
Gain a sense of self accomplishment	.360	.048	.512	7.550	.000
Career X Accomplishment	-.008	.024	-.058	-.327	.744
Summary: R = (.508), R Squared = (.258), Adjusted R squared = (.254)					

Table 4.27 Regression coefficients for Career and 'Work I performed was appreciated'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.385	.242		14.015	.000
Career	.103	.130	.110	.793	.428
Work I performed was appreciated	.383	.047	.517	8.107	.000
Career X Appreciated	-.006	.023	-.041	-.252	.801
Summary: R = (.532), R Squared = (.283), Adjusted R squared = (.279)					

Table 4.28 Regression coefficients for Career and 'Learned skills useful for my career'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.767	.195		24.461	.000
Career	-.226	.127	-.240	-1.783	.075
Learned skills useful for my future career	.207	.047	.326	4.443	.000
Career X Career Skills	.036	.022	.275	1.630	.104
Summary: R = (.397), R Squared = (.158), Adjusted R squared = (.153)					

For the Career motive, all of the regression models were significant, with a considerable amount of variance explained as shown by adjusted r-squared values ranging from 0.15 to 0.28. However, the motive times benefits effect was not significant for any of the models, which suggested no moderating effect exists in this sample (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

As illustrated in Tables 4.25 to 4.28, the main effect of the benefit questions was significant for all the models, and in one instance the main effect of the motive was also significant (Table 4.25).

Table 4.29 Regression coefficients for Cause and 'Can express personal values'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.826	.353		8.006	.000
Cause	.289	.065	.347	4.456	.000
Can express personal values	.399	.107	.570	3.727	.000
Cause X Express Values	-.030	.018	-.305	-1.641	.101
Summary: R = (.470), R Squared = (.221), Adjusted R squared = (.216)					

Table 4.30 Regression coefficients for Cause and 'Gain a sense of self accomplishment'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.604	.352		7.395	.000
Cause	.249	.068	.299	3.661	.000
Gain a sense of self accomplishment	.498	.095	.704	5.248	.000
Cause X Accomplishment	-.035	.016	-.376	-2.130	.034
Summary: R = (.524), R Squared = (.274), Adjusted R squared = (.270)					

Table 4.31 Regression coefficients for Cause and 'Work I performed was appreciated'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.204	.366		6.023	.000
Cause	.285	.069	.342	4.136	.000
Work I performed was appreciated	.508	.089	.683	5.713	.000
Cause X Appreciated	-.031	.016	-.312	-1.965	.050
Summary: R = (.561), R Squared = (.314), Adjusted R squared = (.311)					

Table 4.32 Regression coefficients for Cause and 'Learned skills useful for my career'

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.954	.307		9.610	.000
Cause	.297	.055	.357	5.358	.000
Learned skills useful for my future career	.311	.095	.488	3.267	.001
Cause X Career Skills	-.017	.017	-.165	-.997	.319
Summary: R = (.489), R Squared = (.239), Adjusted R squared = (.235)					

For the Cause motive, all of the models were also significant, with a considerable amount of the variance explained as shown by adjusted r-squared values ranging from 0.22 to 0.31. However, the motive times benefits effect was only significant for one of the models (Table 4.30),

which suggested a moderating effect between Cause, the benefit "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby" and satisfaction (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

However, as per the results for the Career motive, and as illustrated in Tables 4.29 to 4.32, the main effects of the motives and benefit questions were significant for all of the regression models.

Despite the finding of one significant moderating effect model, with Cause as the predictor, "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby" as the moderator, and satisfaction as the dependant variable, it was considered by the researcher likely to be a spurious result and due to the small effect size. This is supported by the calculation of the power of the multiple regression by Gpower (Faul & Erdfelder, 1992). Power is the probability of not rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false, that is, when the power is high the odds are stacked to find a significant result. The power for all the regression analyses completed thus far "have exceeded the 0.8 recommended by Cohen" (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991, p. 453).

The results of the various regression analyses completed suggested that, contrary to the findings of Clary et al. (1998) and Schrock (1998), no moderating relationship was evident between motive, benefits and satisfaction with volunteering as a rugby administrator in New Zealand.

Although the results suggested that no moderating effect existed, the regression analyses did suggest that the main effects of motive and benefits did have a significant relationship with satisfaction. To investigate these main effects further, two additional multiple regression analyses were completed. In these two models the dependent variable was satisfaction. For the first model, the independent variable was the six

motives and for the second model the independent variable was the six benefits.

Table 4.33 Regression coefficients for motives

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.160	.197		16.058	.000
Cause	.168	.036	.201	4.617	.000
Understanding	.254	.045	.311	5.653	.000
Social	.068	.050	.077	1.371	.171
Values	-.050	.034	-.074	-1.459	.145
Ego	.102	.063	.102	1.615	.107
Career	-.050	.050	-.053	-.984	.325
Summary: R = (.480), R Squared = (.230), Adjusted R squared = (.221)					

The motive model was significant with around 22% of the variance explained as presented in Table 4.33. Two motives were significant, Cause and Understanding. This result was expected as the investigation of the means also showed that Cause and Understanding were the two highest ranking motives for rugby administration volunteers. However, in contrast to the ranking of the means where Cause was higher, the standardised Beta values for the regression model showed that the Understanding motive was relatively more important than Cause for predicting the individuals satisfaction with their volunteering experience.

The benefits model was also significant, with 38% of the variance explained as presented in Table 4.34. Four of the benefits were significant which mirrored the results of the first regression analysis completed to ascertain which benefits and which motives were significant. In that analysis, the same four benefit questions were significant also.

Table 4.34 Regression coefficients for benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.981	.133		22.342	.000
Can express personal values	.085	.031	.121	2.723	.007
Gain a sense of self accomplishment	.112	.037	.158	3.058	.002
Learned something new about the world	.038	.030	.055	1.260	.208
Allowed me to think about others	-.021	.028	-.031	-.731	.465
Work I performed was appreciated	.250	.032	.335	7.799	.000
Learned skills useful for my future career	.091	.025	.143	3.589	.000
Summary: R = (.619), R Squared = (.383), Adjusted R squared = (.376)					

The standardised Beta values for the benefits regression model show that the benefit "The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated" was relatively more important than the other three benefits for predicting the individuals satisfaction with their volunteering experience.

4.4.8. Rugby administration volunteers satisfaction

The investigation of the means indicated that volunteer rugby administrators were generally satisfied with their experience, however, as the regression analyses suggested, in this study the individual's satisfaction with their volunteering experience was not reliant on receiving benefits relevant to their motive. Rugby administration volunteers satisfaction was instead related to why they volunteer, with those who volunteered for the Cause or Understanding motives more likely to be satisfied. Also, their satisfaction was related to them feeling that the work they complete is appreciated.

These results were conceptually and practically expected for this study. It should be acknowledged, however, that due to different functions

(motives) for volunteering as a rugby administrator existing than those found for other groups of volunteers, the benefit questions included in the questionnaire may not have been entirely appropriate for this group of volunteers. This may explain why the moderating relationship did not appear to exist for this group of volunteers. It was apparent that development and testing of the benefits questions was required. The sample would need to be re-surveyed and results analysed to ascertain whether satisfaction of rugby administration volunteers is reliant on receiving benefits relevant to their motive, however, this was not within the bounds of the current study.

4.5 Volunteers intentions to continue

An understanding of how long individuals intend to continue volunteering is useful information for the organisation that the volunteers are part of. The organisation gains an additional level of understanding of the characteristics of their volunteers and this information could also be used as an aid in the recruitment and the retention of volunteers.

4.5.1. Measuring volunteers intentions to continue

Individual's intentions to continue to volunteer as a rugby administrator were assessed by a series of three questions:

- "I will be a volunteer 1 year from now"
- "I will be a volunteer 3 years from now"
- "I will be a volunteer 5 years from now"

The intentions to continue of the volunteers was measured with the average of the three intentions questions. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the intentions to continue scale for the current study, and was 0.77 which suggested the internal consistency of the scale was acceptable.

An investigation of the means for the three items in the questionnaire and presented in Table 4.35 indicated that, with mean score of 5.63,

respondents generally intended to be volunteering for rugby in 1 years time. The intentions of individuals to be a volunteer in 3 years or 5 years time were relatively less however, with mean scores of 4.78 for 3 years, and 4.32 for five years on the 7-point Likert Scale

Table 4.35 Volunteers intentions to continue

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I will be a volunteer 1 year from now	513	5.63	1.982
I will be a volunteer 3 years from now	507	4.78	1.999
I will be a volunteer 5 years from now	552	4.32	2.203

4.5.2. Clary et al.'s (1998) study of sustained volunteerism

As discussed in Section 2.4, the functionalist proposition is that life outcomes depend on the match between an individual's motivational goals and the fulfilment of those goals (Schrock, 1998). In an investigation of this proposition Clary et al. (1998) found that volunteers were more likely to continue to volunteer if they received benefits related to their main reason for volunteering (function), than if they failed to receive such benefits or received functionally irrelevant benefits. This pattern held most strongly for motivations that were of greatest importance to the volunteers.

In the sixth study in the series, Clary et al. (1998) repeated the satisfaction analyses, and also analysed intentions to continue to volunteer scores as a function of the individuals scores on each motive and each benefit score, resulting in 2 X 2 between-subjects factorial designs (one for each VFI scale). They then completed a contrast analysis and compared the intentions to continue to volunteer scores of individuals who scored above the mean on both the VFI scale and the functional benefits scale with the intentions to continue to volunteer scores of the participants who did not. These results suggested that individuals who received high amounts of benefits directly related to the reason they volunteered were more likely to continue to volunteer than those who received low amounts of relevant benefits or irrelevant benefits.

Following on from Clary et al.'s (1998) findings, the hypothesis of the current study was that volunteers who received greater amounts of functionally relevant benefits would be more likely to continue to volunteer than those who received lesser amounts of functionally relevant benefits or received functionally irrelevant benefits. As per the analyses on satisfaction, the investigation of the benefits associated with volunteering in this study, and the relative affect on the individuals intentions to continue to volunteer has been complicated by the previous finding that the functions that are served by volunteering as a rugby administrator differ from those found by Clary et al. (1998). This has resulted in the same difficulties for this current analysis as occurred with the satisfaction analyses.

4.5.3. Multiple regression analysis

As per the analyses on satisfaction, multiple regression analysis will be employed in this study to initially investigate whether any relationship between intentions to continue to volunteer, and the motive and benefits exists.

If a relationship was established, further regression analysis would be employed to investigate whether a moderating relationship existed in this study (see Figure 4.2). In this part of the study the predictor variable (1) was the individuals motive for volunteering, the moderator (2) was the related benefit, and the outcome or dependent variable (4) was intentions to continue to volunteer.

4.5.4. Regression analysis of the intentions to continue of volunteer rugby administrators

In a repeat of the satisfaction analyses, the first step was to explore whether any of the benefit questions and any of the functions (motives for volunteering) had a significant relationship with each other and with intentions to continue to volunteer. A linear multiple regression analysis was completed with intentions to continue to volunteer as the dependent

variable, and the independent variables will be motive and the six benefit questions. Six of these analyses were completed, one for each of the motives for volunteering and presented in Tables 4.36 to 4.41.

Table 4.36 Regression coefficients for Ego and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.306	.272		12.149	.000
Ego	-.020	.088	-.013	-.226	.822
Can express personal values	.050	.059	.048	.850	.396
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.149	.072	.141	2.077	.038
Learned something new about the world	.009	.061	.008	.141	.888
Allowed me to think about others	-.044	.056	-.045	-.789	.430
Work I performed was appreciated	.202	.064	.179	3.155	.002
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.033	.052	-.035	-.632	.528
Summary: R = (.276), R Squared = (.076), Adjusted R squared = (.062)					

Table 4.37 Regression coefficients for Understanding and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.007	.279		10.797	.000
Understanding	.209	.084	.165	2.479	.014
Can express personal values	.048	.058	.046	.822	.412
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.115	.071	.108	1.610	.108
Learned something new about the world	-.038	.059	-.037	-.634	.527
Allowed me to think about others	-.061	.054	-.062	-1.129	.259
Work I performed was appreciated	.198	.063	.175	3.156	.002
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.085	.053	-.091	-1.605	.109
Summary: R = (.312), R Squared = (.097), Adjusted R squared = (.084)					

Table 4.38 Regression coefficients for Career and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.282	.271		12.133	.000
Career	-.055	.080	-.039	-.691	.490
Can express personal values	.062	.058	.060	1.072	.284
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.156	.070	.148	2.25	.025
Learned something new about the world	-.004	.059	-.004	-.064	.949
Allowed me to think about others	-.040	.054	-.041	-.745	.457
Work I performed was appreciated	.195	.062	.174	3.130	.002
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.012	.057	-.013	-.217	.828
Summary: R = (.285), R Squared = (.081), Adjusted R squared = (.067)					

Table 4.39 Regression coefficients for Social and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.196	.285		11.204	.000
Social	.107	.076	.080	1.415	.158
Can express personal values	.030	.060	.028	.492	.623
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.158	.071	.148	2.218	.027
Learned something new about the world	-.010	.059	-.010	-.173	.863
Allowed me to think about others	-.054	.057	-.055	-.960	.338
Work I performed was appreciated	.170	.064	.149	2.658	.008
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.039	.050	-.042	-.787	.431
Summary: R = (.278), R Squared = (.077), Adjusted R squared = (.063)					

Table 4.40 Regression coefficients for Values and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.121	.278		11.242	.000
Values	.057	.053	.056	1.070	.285
Can express personal values	.053	.058	.051	.911	.363
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.146	.070	.138	2.090	.037
Learned something new about the world	-.019	.059	-.019	-.322	.748
Allowed me to think about others	-.033	.056	-.033	-.581	.562
Work I performed was appreciated	.211	.063	.186	3.334	.001
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.042	.050	-.045	-.850	.396
Summary: R = (.296), R Squared = (.087), Adjusted R squared = (.073)					

Table 4.41 Regression coefficients for Cause and the six benefits

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.524	.331		7.616	.000
Cause	.210	.060	.174	3.470	.001
Can express personal values	.034	.058	.033	.591	.555
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	.097	.071	.092	1.373	.170
Learned something new about the world	-.001	.058	-.001	-.014	.988
Allowed me to think about others	-.060	.053	-.061	-1.140	.255
Work I performed was appreciated	.189	.062	.168	3.075	.002
Learned skills useful to my future career	-.015	.049	-.016	-.307	.759
Summary: R = (.328), R Squared = (.108), Adjusted R squared = (.094)					

All the models were significant, however each only explained a small amount of the variance, illustrated by adjusted R-squared values ranging from 0.062 to 0.094. In addition, only two of the motives, Cause (Table

4.41) and Understanding (Table 4.37), were significant as part of the regression equation. Both of these models also had the same significant benefit question, "The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated". An examination of the plots for these two models indicates that the assumptions of regression analysis outlined in 4.4.5 were met.

Despite two significant results being found, it is considered by the researcher that they are likely to be a spurious results. This is supported by the calculation of the statistical power of the study by Gpower (Faul & Erdfelder, 1992) which exceeds "the 0.8 recommended by Cohen" (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991, p. 453).

Therefore, based on the results of the regression analyses, the evidence did not support the hypothesis that a moderating relationship existed between motive, benefits and intentions to continue with volunteering for this sample. This was contrary to the findings in Clary et al. (1998) and Schrock (1998).

4.5.5. Rugby administration volunteers intentions to continue

The investigation of the means indicated that volunteer rugby administrators generally intended to be volunteering in 1 years time, but relatively speaking, were less likely to still be volunteering in 3 or 5 years time. However, the regression analyses suggested intentions to continue to volunteer was not related to receiving benefits relevant to the motive.

As per the satisfaction analyses, these results were expected given the benefit questions included in the questionnaire which may not have been entirely appropriate for this group of volunteers. It is likely that this was the reason why the moderating relationship did not appear to exist for this group of volunteers. It was apparent that development and testing of the benefits questions is required, the group re-surveyed and results analysed to ascertain whether intentions to continue to volunteer of rugby

administration volunteers is reliant on receiving benefits relevant to their motive, although this was not within the bounds of this current study.

4.6 Differences in provincial and club level volunteers

The primary aim of this study was to investigate whether the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) developed by Clary et al. (1998) could be used as a valid and reliable measurement tool for the motives of volunteer rugby administrators in New Zealand. The analyses completed thus far indicated the main reason the sample of rugby administrators volunteered was due to their passion for the cause they were involved with. The study has also revealed that, generally, volunteers were satisfied with their experience and intended to be a volunteer in one years time.

An understanding of whether there was a difference in results for provincial level and club level volunteers would be beneficial for both the researcher and the NZRU. An investigation of whether volunteers at provincial level had different reasons for volunteering (motives), perceived that they received different benefits, were more or less satisfied with their experience and whether they intended to continue to volunteer for longer than those rugby administrators that volunteer at club level, may indicate whether a different recruitment/retention campaign is required for volunteers at different levels.

4.6.1. T-test for differences between provincial and club level volunteers

To investigate whether there were any differences between the two strata, the researcher completed a t-test with independent samples with "Level volunteer at" as the grouping variable and the following items as the test variables. The six functions found to be served by volunteering; Ego, Understanding, Career, Social, Values and Cause. The six questions to measure levels and types of benefits received from volunteering; "I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby", "I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby", "I learned something new about the world by volunteering for rugby",

"Volunteering for rugby allowed me to think about others instead of myself", "The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated" and "I learned some skills that will be useful in my future career by volunteering for rugby".

The overall satisfaction score calculated by the average of the items was also included as a test variable; "On the whole my volunteer experience for rugby has been a positive one", "I am personally very satisfied with the responsibilities given to me through my volunteering for rugby" and "I don't think I have got anything out of the volunteer experience for rugby" (reversed scored).

The final test variable was overall intentions to continue to volunteer as calculated by the average of the items; "I will be a volunteer 1 year from now", "I will be a volunteer 3 years from now" and "I will be a volunteer 5 years from now".

Levene's F statistic had a significance of <0.05 for two of the items (Social and Values motives), for which unequal variance was assumed. For the remaining items the significance was > 0.05 therefore equal variances were assumed.

The results of the two-tailed t-test indicated a significant difference in the means for two of the items. The first difference indicated was for the benefit question "I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby", and the second, overall satisfaction with the volunteering experience.

4.6.2. Differences between provincial and club level volunteers

The t-test indicated there may be a difference in the means for two items, however to aid interpretation of what this difference may be, an investigation of the means themselves was required. It should be noted that although the t-tests indicated a difference in means, given that

multiple testing (14 tests) was done it is possible that the results were spurious and that a difference does not in fact exist.

The investigation of the means presented in Table 4.42 revealed that the mean for the benefit question "I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby" for provincial level volunteers was 4.18, compared to 3.73 for club level. This result may have been reflective of the more autonomous nature of the volunteer roles at Provincial level. For instance many of the roles at provincial level are management level, evidenced by the various management board members, and involve high level decision making. These roles may enable those volunteers to express themselves more easily, and may enable the volunteer to see that they are having more of an effect on the outcome than for those volunteers at club level.

These points were conceptual conclusions by the researcher and were not supported by specific comments by the participants, many of whom chose not to include additional comments.

The mean for satisfaction with the volunteering experience was 5.54 for provincial level and 5.21 for club level. This may have been reflective of the fact that those volunteering at Club level may have had less access to tangible benefits, for instance tickets to provincial games, than those at provincial level. Respondents to the questionnaire commented on this, one such example is "Rugby union needs to make more effort to thank the volunteers, i.e. make test tickets available to club volunteers first before provincial unions, and make tickets available to club sponsors first".

Table 4.42 Means of motives, benefits, satisfaction and intentions to continue to volunteer for Provincial and Club level volunteers

Item	Level volunteer at	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ego	Provincial Union	124	2.3002	1.16448	.10457
	Club	440	2.2429	1.15105	.05487
Understanding	Provincial Union	131	4.1361	1.33778	.11688
	Club	449	3.9094	1.40919	.06650
Career	Provincial Union	128	2.0469	1.30788	.11560
	Club	451	1.9521	1.21919	.05741
Social	Provincial Union	124	3.5296	1.16348	.10448
	Club	451	3.5218	1.32496	.06239
Values	Provincial Union	127	3.5866	1.58251	.14043
	Club	443	3.3544	1.76271	.08375
Cause	Provincial Union	130	5.6269	1.28695	.11287
	Club	455	5.3626	1.39592	.06544
Can express personal values	Provincial Union	131	4.18	1.643	.144
	Club	452	3.73	1.668	.078
Gain a sense of self-accomplishment	Provincial Union	131	4.61	1.606	.140
	Club	454	4.36	1.641	.077
Learned something new about the world	Provincial Union	131	3.50	1.600	.140
	Club	451	3.21	1.696	.080
Allowed me to think about others	Provincial Union	131	3.74	1.739	.152
	Club	450	3.68	1.712	.081
Work I performed was appreciated	Provincial Union	131	4.62	1.444	.126
	Club	454	4.50	1.575	.074
Learned skills useful for my future career	Provincial Union	131	3.50	1.773	.155
	Club	451	3.16	1.835	.086
Overall Satisfaction	Provincial Union	120	5.5389	1.03999	.09494
	Club	435	5.2107	1.17352	.05627
Overall Intentions	Provincial Union	103	4.6828	1.69414	.16693
	Club	375	4.8142	1.68233	.08687

The lower satisfaction score of club level volunteers may also have been due to the fact that they appeared to feel that the clubs were largely ignored by the unions and the NZRU. This view was supported by several comments by respondents:

- "grass roots rugby will be gone in a few years – the provincial unions DO NOT look after it's grass roots rugby, they only look at the big rugby at provincial level"
- "club rugby will not prosper if volunteers are not forthcoming. Volunteers save money and help obtain funds for the club as not enough funds are coming from the regional rugby boards [provinces] and the NZRU"

- "I don't think either the NZRU or the provincial unions recognise just what clubs do for the game, or the time club administrators put into the game"
- "I have been involved in rugby at club administration level for over 40 years and have never seen club rugby in such a poor state. I would suggest if positive steps are not taken by the NZRU soon, club rugby will disappear within 10-15 years"

Although it is possible that the lower satisfaction score for club level volunteers may have been a spurious result, the researcher believes it to be a real result given the comments received from participants about the nature of club rugby in New Zealand at the present time.

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

- The analyses completed suggested that the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) in its current form may not be a valid and reliable measure of the motivations of administration volunteers involved with rugby in New Zealand. Further work is required to develop this into a meaningful tool for use by the NZRU and subsequent researchers
- In its current form, the VFI demonstrated that six motives existed for this sample of volunteers. These motives differed to those discovered by Clary et al. (1998) and were:
 - ⇒ Values – the volunteer is expressing humanitarian values, i.e. their concern for others less fortunate than themselves
 - ⇒ Understanding – the volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused
 - ⇒ Career – the volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering
 - ⇒ Ego – the individual views volunteering as an opportunity to improve ones image of oneself
 - ⇒ Cause – the individual volunteers in order to express the passion they feel about the particular cause they are involved in
- The most important motive for volunteering for this sample of volunteers was Cause, which was supported by some very pertinent comments offered by participants. For example, "I love this game, it's so true to life" and simply, "love the game!"
- Volunteers indicated that the two types of benefits they received from their experience was feeling that their work was appreciated and that they gained a sense of accomplishment through their work for rugby. Interestingly, both of these benefits focus on reward and satisfaction for the volunteer which suggests they would appear to be selfish in orientation. This is in apparent contrast to the main reason this sample

of people volunteers, their passion for the cause, rather than any self-interest

- Volunteer administrators were generally satisfied with their experience and generally intend to be volunteering in at least one years time. However, the analyses completed suggested that no link existed between the volunteers motives, the amount and type of benefits they received and their satisfaction with their experience or their intentions to continue to volunteer. Individuals that volunteered for Understanding or Cause motives were more likely to be more satisfied with their experience than those who have other motives for volunteering. In addition, volunteers in this sample that felt that the work they did was appreciated were also likely to be more satisfied
- Generally there were no substantial differences in the results for provincial level and club level volunteers however:
 - ⇒ One of the benefits questions, "I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for Rugby" did exhibit a slightly higher result for provincial level volunteers. Conceptually this may reflect the more autonomous nature of the roles that are held at provincial level which may enable the volunteer to express themselves more readily and see that they are having an effect on outcomes, however this is not supported by specific comments from participants.
 - ⇒ A higher satisfaction score for those that volunteered at provincial level was evident. This may have been reflecting the fact that those volunteering at club level may have less access to tangible benefits, and also that there seems to be some who feel the clubs are largely ignored by the provincial unions and the NZRU. These conclusions were supported by specific comments offered by participants. For example, "the rugby union needs to make more effort to thank the volunteers, i.e. make test tickets available to club volunteers first before provincial unions, and make tickets available to club sponsors first" and "grass roots rugby will be gone in a few years – the

provincial unions DO NOT look after its grass roots rugby, they only look at the big rugby at provincial level”.

5.2 Reflections on the study

On reflection the researcher believes it would have been beneficial to complete a pilot application of the questionnaire on a small sample of rugby administration volunteers. This may have allowed for some key discoveries of the potential flaws in the questionnaire and may have had multiple positive effects on the research. The particular questions that may have benefited from amendment were:

- The questions on level volunteer at and which role the volunteer held needed to be amended to allow multiple responses. This may have allowed more robust conclusions to be drawn in the demographics section regarding the types of roles held, what percentage of volunteers hold multiple roles and what percentage volunteer at both provincial and club level
- The questions included in the VFI section needed to be tested to ensure they were applicable for rugby in New Zealand. This testing may have highlighted the possibility that different motives existed for volunteers involved in rugby in New Zealand than those that exist for other groups
- Amendment of the questions regarding the perceived benefits of volunteering may have been possible to better reflect the motives that exist for this sample of volunteers, which differ from those discovered by Clary et al. (1998)
- The questions regarding the hours spent volunteering per month and how many years involved could have been expanded to enable the volunteer to indicate the exact answers to these questions, rather than the range

5.3 Limitations of the study

An examination of the potential limitations of this study was completed in Section 3.3.4. After reflections on the study, the limitations of this research are considered to be:

- Self-selection bias may have been an issue as is evidenced by the relatively low response rate of 25%. The limitation that resulted from this response rate is that the researcher was unable to ascertain whether the volunteers who chose not to participate in the study exhibited different characteristics than those who did. This limitation may have affected the ability of the researcher to generalise the results of this study to the entire population of volunteer administrators involved with rugby in New Zealand
- The second limitation of the research was that by selecting a questionnaire, volunteers were asked to self-report their behaviour. This may have introduced some bias into the results such as an over or understatement of work completed, hours spent volunteering per month and number years the volunteer has been involved
- An additional limitation of the self-administered questionnaire was that volunteers were asked to rate each statement in the VFI in terms of its importance to them. This assumes that volunteers knew the reasons why they volunteer and that they were able to relate these reasons to the questions included in the questionnaire
- Finally, some of the questions included in the survey instrument appeared not to have been entirely applicable for volunteers involved in rugby in New Zealand. This resulted in a relatively large number of missing values for some questions which decreased the researcher's ability to draw conclusions for the sample. Additionally, it appeared that some participants may have had difficulty in answering some of the questions as they found them confusing. This also presented difficulties for the researcher in interpreting the results for this sample

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1. Opportunities for the NZRU, Provincial Unions and Clubs

A substantial amount of knowledge has been gathered about the characteristics of volunteers involved with the administration of rugby. Of particular interest and importance for the NZRU, provincial unions and clubs is:

- The motive that was most important for volunteers was Cause. Simply put, the main reason a considerable number of individuals spend many hours per month volunteering for their local club or province is that they are exceptionally passionate about rugby
- The second most important motive was Understanding, where the volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused
- Generally the volunteers were satisfied with their experience. Also higher satisfaction may be predicted by the volunteers motives and in particular, the Cause and Understanding motives. In addition, higher satisfaction may be predicted by the volunteer feeling that their work is appreciated
- Volunteers generally intend to be volunteering in 1 years time, however the results for 3 and 5 years are less strong

This information may be valuable for the NZRU, provincial unions and clubs to develop and aim their recruitment campaigns towards the correct groups. If recruitment drives focused on obtaining individuals that are very passionate about rugby in NZ and want to learn new skills they may be more successful.

An equally important use for this information may be retention campaigns. This study has shown that the highest ranking benefit was that the volunteers feel that the work they put in is appreciated, followed closely by them feeling they gain a sense of self-accomplishment. For instance if volunteers are receiving the correct benefits, i.e. those they consider to be

important to them, it is the opinion of the researcher that this would in turn, affect volunteers intentions to continue to volunteer for longer periods of time.

Lower satisfaction experienced at club level may be reflective of three core issues. Firstly, the more autonomous nature of the volunteer roles at Provincial level. For instance many of the roles at provincial level are management level and involve high level decision making which may enable those volunteers to express themselves more easily, and may enable the volunteer to see that they are having more of an effect on the outcome than for those volunteers at club level.

Secondly, the researcher suggests this may be reflective of the fact that those volunteering at Club level may have less access to tangible benefits, for instance tickets to provincial games, than those at provincial level. This was evidenced by comments from participants such as, "Rugby union needs to make more effort to thank the volunteers, i.e. make test tickets available to club volunteers first before provincial unions, and make tickets available to club sponsors first".

Thirdly, the lower satisfaction score of club level volunteers may also have been due to the fact that they appeared to feel that the clubs were largely ignored by the unions and the NZRU. This view was supported by several comments by respondents:

- "grass roots rugby will be gone in a few years – the provincial unions DO NOT look after it's grass roots rugby, they only look at the big rugby at provincial level"
- "club rugby will not prosper if volunteers are not forthcoming. Volunteers save money and help obtain funds for the club as not enough funds are coming from the regional rugby boards [provinces] and the NZRU"

- "I don't think either the NZRU or the provincial unions recognise just what clubs do for the game, or the time club administrators put into the game"
- "I have been involved in rugby at club administration level for over 40 years and have never seen club rugby in such a poor state. I would suggest if positive steps are not taken by the NZRU soon, club rugby will disappear within 10-15 years"

The volunteer appreciation scheme, combined with the strategic initiatives aimed at volunteers that are included as part of the Community Rugby Plan appear to begin to address the satisfaction issues raised by the current study. However, further investigation as to the cause of this lower satisfaction level may be required to ensure the correct issue or issues are addressed.

5.4.2. Opportunities for further research

- Further analysis of the VFI items, and in particular review and amendment of the Enhancement, Protective, and Values questions, is required to ensure the VFI can accurately be applied to volunteer administrators within rugby in New Zealand. Development and testing of the benefits questions is also required to ensure they are relevant to this population.
- An in-depth look at the Cause motive would also be beneficial to ascertain whether it is specific to this sample, or generalisable to the wider population, and other sporting codes. Focus groups or semi-structured interviews could be completed to gain a greater understanding about this new concept
- The application of paid employee retention models may be useful in investigating and explaining the retention of unpaid workers
- An investigation into the application of the work that has been completed by Cuskelly and his associates into the committee functioning and organisational commitment of volunteer sports administrators is extremely relevant in this instance. Given the large

number of volunteers that are involved in committees, an investigation into these aspects in New Zealand, and indeed in rugby in New Zealand would be beneficial

- Application of the VFI to other sports within New Zealand would be beneficial to ascertain whether similar results exist for all sports, or whether these results are specific to rugby

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CHAPTER 6. APPENDICES**Appendix A. Letter to participating provincial unions**



Massey University

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

Kaupapa Whai Pakihi

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT
AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS -
ALBANY CAMPUS
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore Mail Centre
Auckland
New Zealand
T 64 9 441 8115
F 64 9 441 8109
www.massey.ac.nz

Provincial and Club Rugby Volunteer Administrators – How can we retain them?

INSTRUCTION SHEET

<Date>

Dear <Representative>,

Further to our conversation on the telephone, I would like to thank you for agreeing to assist me with my research by acting as a liaison for the volunteers involved with <Name of Union> Rugby Union.

As discussed on the phone I would like to survey volunteers involved in the following roles:

- Province management board
- Junior rugby management board
- Referee management group
- Council of club delegates
- Any other person involved in the administration of your province, where the person has a clearly defined role, gives a regular commitment to the province and does not receive any payment for their time.
- *Please note the roles of referee, coach and player are specifically excluded from this study due to the non-administrative nature of their roles.*

Please do not include volunteers involved at club level (excluding council of club delegates) as I am sending surveys out to a random sample of clubs separately.

The recommended questionnaire handling and return process is outlined as follows:

- Inform the participants that your province has been invited to participate in a study of people involved in volunteering for the administration of rugby in New Zealand. Inform the participants that the NZRU completely supports the research as shown in the letter from Brent Anderson, Manager Community Rugby.
- Hand each participant a copy of the Information Sheet and a copy of the letter from the NZRU. Once they have finished reading hand the survey to those that wish to participate. (The information sheet justifies the research, tells them exactly what they have to do and assures them of their rights).

- Once they have completed their questionnaire they have two options for returning the questionnaire to me:
 - Either they can place it, along with other participants' questionnaires, in the large envelope provided. You will then seal the envelope in front of them and it will be posted back to me.
 - Or, if they prefer, they can take one of the small envelopes provided and post it back to me individually.

I really appreciate you taking the time to assist me with this research. If you have any questions or need more copies of the questionnaire, information sheet, letter from the NZRU or envelopes, please contact me on (021) 445 043 or amy-d@clear.net.nz.

Kind regards,

Amy Dunlop

Appendix B. Letter to participating clubs



Massey University

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

Kaupapa Whai Pakihi

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT
AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS -
ALBANY CAMPUS
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore Mail Centre
Auckland
New Zealand
T 64 9 441 8115
F 64 9 441 8109
www.massey.ac.nz

Provincial and Club Rugby Volunteer Administrators – How can we retain them?

Dear Club Secretary,

My name is Amy Dunlop and I am a post-graduate student at Massey University currently completing the thesis component of my Masters in Business Studies. My thesis investigates the reasons why people volunteer their time for rugby administration in New Zealand and also explores how we can retain these volunteers in the long term. To complete this research I need feedback from volunteers involved in rugby administration at club level in New Zealand, and your club has been randomly selected to participate from a list provided by the NZRU.

I would like to ask you to assist me with my research by acting as a liaison for the volunteers involved with your club. Your role as liaison would involve handing out information about the research, distributing the questionnaires to the participants and instructing them how to return the questionnaires to me. If you agree to help, I advise completing the steps during a club meeting.

The following documents are included in this pack:

- Information sheet – written by myself which gives further information about the research such as what the research is about, why I am doing it, what I hope to discover and the benefits for those who participate.
- Letter from the NZRU – Brent Anderson, Manager Community Rugby has been consulted and has provided a letter of support and encourages participation.
- Questionnaires – Survey which should take between 5 and 10 minutes to complete.
- Freepost envelopes – 1 large for sending multiple questionnaires back and 10 small envelopes for sending individual questionnaires back.

The roles in your club we would like to survey are:

- President / Vice-President / Chairperson
- Secretary / Captain / Treasurer
- Sub-union Delegate
- Gear Custodian
- Committee Member
- Team Managers

- Any other person involved in the administration of your club, where the person has a clearly defined role, gives a regular commitment to the club and does not receive any payment for their time.

Please note the roles of referee, coach and player are specifically excluded from this study due to the non-administrative nature of their roles.

As liaison, the process you need to follow is fairly simple, and I have outlined it below:

1. Inform the participants that your club has been invited to participate in a study of people involved in volunteering for the administration of rugby in New Zealand. Inform the participants that the NZRU completely supports the research as shown in the letter from Brent Anderson, Manager Community Rugby.
2. Hand each participant a copy of the Information Sheet and a copy of the letter from the NZRU. Once they have finished reading hand the survey to those that wish to participate. (The information sheet justifies the research, tells them exactly what they have to do and assures them of their rights).
3. Once they have completed their questionnaire they have two options for returning the questionnaire to me:
 - Either they can place it, along with other participants' questionnaires, in the large envelope provided. You will then seal the envelope in front of them and it will be posted back to me.
 - Or, if they prefer, they can take one of the small envelopes provided and post it back to me individually.

I really appreciate you taking the time to assist me with this research. If, for any reason, you cannot help with this project, please send the uncompleted surveys back to me, in the large self addressed envelope, and I will randomly select another club. If you have any questions or need more copies of the questionnaire, information sheet, letter from the NZRU or envelopes, please contact me on (021) 445 043 or amy-d@clear.net.nz.

Kind regards,



Amy Dunlop

Appendix C. Questionnaire

VOLUNTEERS INVOLVED IN RUGBY IN NEW ZEALAND

PART ONE:

This section collects information about your current volunteering activity within rugby in New Zealand. Please circle the letter next to the most correct answer.

1. What level of rugby do you currently volunteer at? If more than one applies, please select the one you spend the majority of time in
 - a) Provincial Union
 - b) Club

2. How long have you been a volunteer in Rugby in New Zealand? (Include your current club/province and any previous volunteering, eg junior rugby, secondary school, other clubs, provincial)
 - a) Less than 2 years
 - b) 2-5 years
 - c) 6-10 years
 - d) more than 10 years

3. How many hours per month do you spend volunteering?
 - a) Less than 5
 - b) 5-10
 - c) 11-16
 - d) more than 16

4. What role do you currently hold? If more than one role is applicable please circle the one you spend the majority of time in.
 - a) Junior Rugby Management Board member
 - b) Provincial Referee Management
 - c) Council of Club Delegates member
 - d) Provincial Board member
 - e) Provincial Age-Grade Representative Rugby member
 - f) Club President, Vice-President or Chairperson
 - g) Club Captain, Secretary or Treasurer
 - h) Sub-union Delegate
 - i) Club Gear Custodian
 - j) Club Committee Member
 - k) Club Team Manager
 - l) Other (please specify)

PART TWO:

This section looks at your reasons for volunteering. Please answer each question by circling the number that indicates how accurate or important each statement is for you in doing your volunteer work. (1 = not important at all, 7 = extremely important or accurate)

	<i>Not important At all</i>						<i>Extremely important</i>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Volunteering for rugby can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work							
2. My friends are volunteers in rugby							
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself							
4. People I am close to want me to volunteer for rugby							
5. Volunteering for rugby makes me feel important							
6. People I know share an interest in community service							
7. No matter how bad I have been feeling, volunteering for rugby makes me forget about it							
8. I am genuinely concerned about rugby in New Zealand							
9. By volunteering for rugby I feel less lonely							
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career through volunteering for rugby							
11. Doing volunteer work for rugby relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others							
12. I can learn more about rugby							
13. Volunteering for rugby increases my self-esteem							
14. Volunteering for rugby allows me gain a new perspective on things							
15. Volunteering for rugby allows me to explore different career options							
16. I feel compassion towards people in need							

	<i>Not important At all</i>					<i>Extremely important</i>	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Volunteering for rugby lets me learn things through direct, hands-on experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I feel it is important to help others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Volunteering for rugby helps me work through my own personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Volunteering for rugby will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Volunteering for rugby is a good escape from my own troubles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I can learn to deal with a variety of people as a rugby volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Volunteering for rugby makes me feel needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Volunteering for rugby makes me feel better about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Rugby volunteering experience will look good on my CV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Volunteering for rugby is a way to make new friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. By being a volunteer for rugby I can explore my own strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART THREE:

This section looks at the benefits you receive from volunteering for Rugby and how satisfied you are with your volunteering experience so far. Please answer each question by circling the number that indicates how accurate or important each statement is for you in doing your volunteer work.

(1 = not important at all, 7 = extremely important or accurate)

	<i>Not accurate At all</i>					<i>Extremely accurate</i>	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I am able to express my personal values through my volunteering for rugby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I gain a sense of self accomplishment through my volunteering for rugby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	<i>Not accurate At all</i>						<i>Extremely accurate</i>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I learned something new about the world by volunteering for rugby							
4. Volunteering for rugby allowed me to think about others instead of myself							
5. The work I performed while volunteering for rugby was appreciated							
6. I learned some skills that will be useful in my future career by volunteering for rugby							
7. On the whole my volunteer experience for rugby has been very positive for me							
8. I am personally very satisfied with the responsibilities given to me through my volunteering for rugby							
9. I don't think I have got anything out of the volunteer experience for rugby							

PART FOUR:

This section looks at whether you intend to continue to volunteer. As per the previous section, please answer each question by circling the number that indicates how accurate each statement is for you in doing your volunteer work.

(1 = not accurate at all, 7 = extremely or accurate)

	<i>Not accurate At all</i>						<i>Extremely accurate</i>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I will be a volunteer 1 year from now							
2. I will be a volunteer 3 years from now							
3. I will be a volunteer 5 years from now							

PART FIVE:

And lastly a few questions about you. Please circle the letter next to the most correct answer.

1. What is your current age?

a) 20's

b) 30's

c) 40's

d) 50's

e) 60's

f) 70 or older

2. What is your gender?

a) Male

b) Female

3. What is your relationship status?

- a) Single, never married
- b) Married
- c) Divorced
- d) Separated
- e) De-facto

4. What ages are your children? (circle all that apply)

- a) No children
- b) Pre-school
- c) Primary school
- d) Secondary school
- e) Tertiary
- f) Adult

5. What is your annual household income level?

- a) Under \$20,000
- b) \$20,000 – \$39,999
- c) \$40,000 - \$59,999
- d) \$60,000 or greater

6. What is your primary occupation?

7. What is the highest level of education/schooling you have attained?

- a) Primary school
- b) School Certificate
- c) Sixth Form Certificate
- d) Bursary / University Entrance
- e) Tertiary Undergraduate
- f) Tertiary Post Graduate

8. How many years have you lived at your current address?

- a) Fewer than 5
- b) 5-10
- c) More than 10

9. What level do you / did you play Rugby to?

- a) Secondary School
- b) Club
- c) Provincial Representative (any age group)
- d) National representative (any age group)
- e) Never played rugby

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. If you would like to add any further comments about your involvement as a rugby volunteer please write them over the page.

Appendix D. Information sheet



Massey University

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

Kaupapa Whai Pakihi

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT
AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS -
ALBANY CAMPUS
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore Mail Centre
Auckland
New Zealand
T 64 9 441 8115
F 64 9 441 8109
www.massey.ac.nz

Provincial and Club Rugby Volunteer Administrators – How can we retain them?

INFORMATION SHEET

My name is Amy Dunlop and I am a post-graduate student at Massey University currently completing the thesis component of my Masters of Business Studies. My thesis investigates the reasons why people volunteer their time for rugby administration in New Zealand and also explores how we can retain these volunteers in the long term.

To make this research possible I need to obtain feedback from rugby volunteers and I would like to invite you to participate in the study. Your club/province was randomly selected from all the clubs/provinces in New Zealand. All the volunteers involved in the administration of your club/province have been invited to participate. Protection of your identity is guaranteed because the questionnaire is anonymous. The demographic details you provide will only be used to describe, in general terms, the participant population.

There are two main objectives of this study. The first is to investigate whether the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), which measures volunteer motivations and satisfactions, can be applied to volunteer rugby administration in New Zealand. The second objective is to find out what motivates volunteer rugby administrators, whether the volunteers are satisfied with their experience and whether they will continue to volunteer in the long term.

If you decide to participate in this study would you please complete the attached questionnaire, which should take between 5 and 10 minutes, and return it in the reply paid envelope provided. Completion and return of the questionnaire implies consent to participate, however you have the right to decline to answer any particular question.

Approximately 2,500 questionnaires are being distributed and responses will be entered into a statistical analysis software package which will be protected by a password. In accordance with Massey University policy, the data will be stored in a locked cabinet on the Massey University Albany campus for five years before disposal.

This study may provide the basis for a published article or a conference paper depending on the results obtained. A summary of the findings of this study will be provided to each Provincial Union. If you or your club would like a copy please contact me on amy-d@clear.net.nz and a copy can be emailed to you in late December.

If you have any questions regarding this research they can be directed to my supervisor, Dr. Margot Edwards or to myself at the contact details provided below.

Student

Amy Dunlop
(021) 445 043
amy-d@clear.net.nz

Supervisor

Dr. Margot Edwards
(09) 414 0800 ext 9218
m.f.edwards@massey.ac.nz

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet. If you would like to be involved in this study, please complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me in the provided envelope.

Kind regards,



Amy Dunlop

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, ALB Application 04/049. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate Professor Kerry Chamberlain, Chair, Massey University Campus Human Ethics Committee: Albany, telephone 09 414 0800 x9078, email humanethicsalb@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix E. Letter of support from NZRU



Rugby
1 Hinemoa St, CentrePort
PO Box 2172, Wellington
Telephone +64 4 494 4995
Facsimile +64 4 499 4224
<http://www.nzrugby.com>

5 May 2004

To Whom It May Concern

Please accept this letter as confirmation of NZRU's support for the research being undertaken by Amy Dunlop into the recruitment and retention of volunteers in New Zealand rugby for her Masters of Business Studies degree.

Supporting the volunteer base of rugby is a key component of our community rugby strategy. The information gained from research such as that undertaken by Amy will enable us to further develop strategies to assist in this area.

Can you please take the time to complete the questionnaire and return it in a timely manner to enable the research project to be completed.

Kind regards

Brent Anderson
Manager, Community Rugby



Appendix F. Approval letter from Ethics Committee



Massey University

AUCKLAND

OFFICE OF THE
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR - AUCKLAND
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore MSC
Auckland
New Zealand
T Deputy Vice-Chancellor - Auckland
64 9 414 0800 extn 9517
Regional Registrar - Auckland
64 9 414 0800 extn 9516
F 64 9 414 0814
www.massey.ac.nz

10 June 2004

Amy Dunlop
C/- Dr Margot Edwards
College of Business
Massey University
Albany

Dear Amy

HUMAN ETHICS APPROVAL APPLICATION – MUAHEC 04/049
“Provincial and Club Rugby Volunteer Administrators – how can we retain them?”

Thank you for your application. It has been fully considered, and approved by the Massey University, Albany Campus, Human Ethics Committee.

If you make any significant departure from the Application as approved then you should return this project to the Human Ethics Committee, Albany Campus, for further consideration and approval.

Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, a new application must be submitted at that time.

Yours sincerely

Associate-Professor Kerry Chamberlain
Chairperson,
Human Ethics Committee
Albany Campus

cc. Dr Margot Edwards
College of Business