EFFECTS OF MOTIVES, VOLUNTEER ROLE IDENTITY

AND SENSE OF COMMUNITY

ON SUSTAINED VOLUNTEERING

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Thesis Abstract

Petek Akman, "Effects of Motives, Volunteer Role Identity and

Sense of Community on Sustained Volunteering"

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of volunteer motives, volunteer role identity, sense of community, social responsibility and satisfaction with volunteering experience on length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering. 294 volunteers of Turkish Association of Education Volunteers (TEGV) participated in the study. Sense of community was found to be the only predictor of length of volunteering and none of the variables predicted amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV. Additional analyses pointed out that understanding and protective motivations, sense of community and social responsibility were determinants of volunteer role identity whereas enhancement motivation and sense of community were the only variables predicting satisfaction with volunteering experience. Overall, results showed that sense of community decreased with duration of volunteering and strength of volunteer role identity was related to self-oriented motivations, shaped by a general tendency to help others and feelings of belonging to the group. In addition, TEGV volunteers felt more satisfied if they volunteered for personal development and to enhance self-esteem, and felt stronger sense of community in TEGV. The present study is believed to contribute to volunteering literature by including sense of community and social responsibility to the study and emphasizing the effect of the type of non-governmental organization on volunteering experience. Besides, the study is one of the few studies attempting to provide a profile of Turkish volunteers and to determine the factors underlying their volunteering behaviors.

Tez Özeti

Petek Akman, "Motivasyonlar, Gönüllü Kimliği ve Topluluk Hissinin

Uzun Süreli Gönüllülük Üzerine Etkileri"

Bu çalışmanın amacı; gönüllü motivasyonları, gönüllü kimliği, topluluk hissi, sosyal sorumluluk ve gönüllülük deneyiminden duyulan tatminin gönüllü çalışmanın uzunluğu ve gönüllü etkinliğine ayrılan zaman üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı'ndan (TEGV) 294 gönüllü çalışmaya katılmıştır. Beklenenin aksine, topluluk hissi gönüllü çalışma uzunluğunu öngören tek değişken olmuş, değişkenlerin hiçbiri TEGV'de gönüllü çalışma için ayrılan zamanı öngerememiştir. Ek analizler anlama ve koruma motivasyonlarının, topluluk hissinin ve sosyal sorumluluğun gönüllü kimliği için belirleyen olduklarını gösterirken, sadece gelişme motivasyonu ve topluluk hissi gönüllülük deneyiminden tatmin olma düzeyini kestiren değişkenler olmuşlardır. Özetle sonuçlar topluluk hissinin gönüllülük süresiyle azaldığını ve gönüllü kimliğinin ben-yönelimli motivasyonlarla ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun yanında, TEGV gönüllüleri kişisel gelişim ve özgüvenlerini artırma motivasyonuyla gönüllü çalışma yaptıklarında gönüllülük deneyiminden daha çok tatmin olmuşlar, TEGV'de daha çok topluluk hissi olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Mevcut çalışmanın, topluluk hissi ve sosyal sorumluluğu araştırmaya dahil ederek ve sivil toplum örgütü türünün gönüllülük deneyimi üzerindeki etkisini vurgulayarak gönüllülük yazınına katkı yaptığına inanılmaktadır. Ayrıca bu çalışma Türk gönüllülerinin profilini çıkarmayı ve gönüllülük davranışlarının altında yatan etmenleri belirlemeyi amaçlayan ender çalışmalardan biridir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As people realize that they can contribute to community in many ways, and solve community problems within organizations, they start perceiving volunteering as an alternative to other types of recreational activities that enables them to have an effect on how the society is transformed. In recent years, there has been more emphasis on social responsibility and people's power to solve societal problems in Turkey. It can be argued that volunteering is becoming an integral part of the social system in Turkey and a way for Turkish people to contribute to policy making. Individuals' being increasingly more sensitive to societal problems and more active in taking initiative are reflected in the number of non-governmental organizations in Turkey in the last decades.

There is an increase in the number of volunteers and in the opportunities of volunteering in Turkey. However, research on volunteering in Turkey does not follow this tendency. While psychology studies have focused on spontaneous helping behavior, formal volunteering is receiving more attention recently (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Theories on volunteering behaviors have been proposed and volunteering as a form of helping behavior has been increasingly studied in relation to personal, situational and organizational variables. However, there are few studies on volunteering in Turkey (e.g., Boz & Serap, 2007). It is necessary to investigate personal and social factors embedded in Turkey's family and social structure influencing volunteering behavior.

Firstly, it is needed to present a definition of formal volunteering as it may be confused with other types of helping behavior. Volunteering can be defined as any service given to nonintimate others within an organizational setting without any financial benefit. Volunteering consists of four main elements: longevity, planfulness,

nonobligatory helping and helping in organizational contexts (Penner, 2002). These characteristics of volunteering differentiate it from spontaneous helping that includes prosocial behaviors such as helping old people to carry their bags (Clary, Ridge, Stukas, Snyder, Copeland, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). So, it can be concluded that formal volunteering follows different processes than spontaneous helping (Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Individuals volunteer for self-oriented reasons such as making new friends, exercising life skills or other-oriented reasons like helping others (Clary et al., 1998). Initiation of volunteering can be considered as an easy decision to make compared to being committed to voluntary work. Volunteering is difficult to be maintained due to personal, social and organizational problems. The difficulty of maintaining volunteering makes determining factors playing role in sustained volunteering important. The importance of long-term volunteering to society and the necessity of examining sustained volunteering can be discussed at three levels, namely, at societal, organizational and personal levels.

First of all, voluntary work is a substantial contribution to society (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005) since volunteers intend to solve societal problems such as insufficient health services, inequality in educational opportunities or environmental issues. Moreover, volunteering can be considered as a financial contribution to the society since volunteers do not expect any immediate financial benefits.

Another approach to sustained volunteering is related to how long-term volunteering can benefit non-governmental organizations (e.g., Wisner, Stringfellow, Youngdahl, & Parker, 2005). It has been argued that factors leading to sustained volunteering should be studied to provide organizations with measures that should be

taken to maintain volunteering. Financial benefit is not a driving force to maintain volunteering, so it has been argued that it is the structure of non-governmental organizations and the volunteering system which may enhance long-term volunteering. These should be set in a way that enables volunteers to have satisfying volunteering experiences.

At the personal level, volunteering is an activity that enriches volunteers' lives, helps to develop new skills or makes individuals feel better about themselves (Clary et al., 1998).

To summarize, long-term volunteering benefits the society, the organization and the individual. Therefore, studying the factors influencing and contributing to sustained volunteering is important.

The aim of this study is to examine factors determining sustained volunteering. The study has been conducted in the Turkish NGO Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV) to examine relationships of motivational, demographic and social factors with sustained volunteering in TEGV and to assess how these factors are related.

It is believed that the present study will allow finding out the ways to enhance volunteering system of non-governmental organizations in Turkey by suggesting ways of prolonging volunteering. In addition, the conclusions derived from the present study can benefit not only non-governmental organizations but also any type of organization whose success is based on effective collaboration of a significant number of people.

Firstly, study variables, namely volunteer motives, volunteer role identity, sense of community, social responsibility and satisfaction with volunteering experience will be described. Theories on these study variables and research relevant to the purposes of the study will be discussed. Secondly, the demographic correlates of volunteering will be

presented. Then, the structure of Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV)

and the volunteering system of TEGV will be introduced. The aim of the study and

hypotheses regarding the study will be discussed. Then, the method of the study will be

explained and results of the study will be presented. Finally, results and limitations of

the study will be discussed in relation to the theories and previous research on

volunteering variables.

<center>Variables Predicting Sustained Volunteering</center>

A variety of factors have been proposed as playing role in initiation and

maintenance of formal volunteering (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). The variables that have

been derived from volunteering models are motivations (Clary et al., 1998), role identity

(Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987) and satisfaction (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Firstly,

volunteering research on motives will be presented with regard to Functional Approach

to Volunteerism (Clary, Snyder and Ridge, 1992; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003).

Secondly, the studies demonstrating how volunteer role identity develops and how it

determines sustained volunteering will be discussed with regard to Role Identity Model

(Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Thirdly, Integrated Model of Functional Approach and Role

Identity Model (Penner 2002) discussing role of both volunteer motives and volunteer

role identity in volunteering processes will be presented. Then, Sense of Community

Theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986), which has not been developed as a volunteering

model but that can be applied to volunteering context, will be presented in detail since

sense of community is conceptualized differently in the present study than in previous

studies (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995). In addition, social responsibility, which is rarely

included in volunteering studies, will be discussed with regard to social responsibility

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studies. Finally, how satisfaction with volunteering affects intent to sustain volunteering will be explained.

<div align="center">Volunteer Motives</div>

In emergency situations, the helping behavior is driven by salient situational cues. However, volunteering behavior is determined by dispositions, motivations and personal attributes since volunteering is a planned and long-term activity (Clary et al., 1998). People interested in volunteering actively look for opportunities to volunteer, have time to consider pros and cons of the volunteering opportunity and as a result of this evaluation, they decide whether they will initiate and sustain volunteering.

The motivations have been argued to be important factors underlying the decision to initiate volunteering and the intent to remain as a volunteer and the most comprehensive approach explaining role of motivations in volunteering processes is Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998).

Functional Approach to Volunteerism

Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998) is based on functional theories (e.g., Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956; as cited in Yoshioka, Brown, & Ashcraft, 2007) which argue that same attitudes or beliefs can have different functions for different individuals. Functional Approach to Volunteerism posits motivations as driving forces that initiate and lead to sustained volunteering, and also as determinants of different factors related to volunteer experience such as satisfaction with voluntary activities. Functional Approach argues that different motivations may lead to engaging in the same volunteer activity, and moreover volunteering may serve more than one motivational function.

Functional Approach to Volunteerism emphasizes that neither the person nor the situation determines volunteering behavior by itself; rather it is the match between dispositional factors and situational opportunities that influence volunteering processes. People have certain needs and motivations at initiation of volunteering behavior and these motivation influence how volunteering behaviors are shaped. The volunteers are more likely to be satisfied with their voluntary experience and to have intentions to continue volunteering, if the benefits gained through voluntary activities coincide with these initial personally important motivations (Clary et al., 1998).

Based on research on motivations and volunteering, six motivational functions of volunteering have been identified. Fulfillment of one or more of these functions has been argued to lead to volunteering (Clary & Snyder, 1999). The six motivations posited in Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998) are value, enhancement, understanding, social, career and protective motivations (Table 1).

Table 1. Volunteer Motives (Clary et al., 1998)

Motivation	Conceptual Definition
Values	Volunteering to express altruistic and humanitarian values
Understanding	Volunteering to learn more about the world and exercise life skills
Enhancement	Volunteering for personal development, to enhance self-esteem and make new friends
Career	Volunteering for career-related benefits
Social	Volunteering to gain social approval and strengthen existing social network
Protective	Volunteering to deal with negative feelings such as guilt of being more fortunate than others and with personal problems

The six-factor structure has been validated by research on various groups such as student volunteers, middle-aged volunteers and non-volunteer groups (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1999; Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998). The existence of the same six-factor

structure for both volunteers and non-volunteers demonstrates that six motivations are

adequate to determine initiation of volunteering and sustained volunteering (Clary et al.,

1998).

Functional Approach to Volunteerism as a multidimensional volunteering model

(Clary et al., 1998; Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995) has been

shown to represent a better model than the models based on a single motivation or on

two motivational dimensions (altruistic and egoistic motivations) (Canaan & Goldberg-

Glen, 1991; Frisch & Gerrard, 1981; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003) to explain

volunteering behavior (Okun et al., 1998). Unlike previous two-dimensional theories,

Functional Approach to Volunteerism argues that it is not possible to classify

volunteers' motivations as altruistic (concern for others) and egoistic (concern for the

self) since the volunteers may be driven by both egoistic and altruistic motivations

(Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Papadakis, Griffin, & Frater, 2004), and since a motive

may have both altruistic and egoistic attributes (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

Role of Motivations in Volunteering Experience

There seems to be a consensus on the role of six-function structure in the

volunteering processes across studies (e.g., Okun et al., 1998; Greenslade & White,

2005), however the importance given to each volunteering motive may show variations

across different groups (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Greenslade & White, 2005).

Value function has been found to be a strong predictor of volunteer behavior in

most of the studies adopting Functional Approach to Volunteerism (e.g., Clary &

Orenstein, 1991; Papadakis et al., 2004). For instance, in Clary and Orenstein's (1991)

study with volunteers, who had received training on telephone crisis counseling before

starting volunteer work, altruistic motivation was found to predict length of service. The

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voluntary activity was operationalized as 9 months of volunteer work after receiving the training. The volunteers, who quit before completing 9-month volunteer service, had reported less altruistic reasons to volunteer than completed-service volunteers at the beginning of the training.

In a study conducted with Turkish volunteers (Boz & Serap, 2007), altruistic motivations were reported as the most important reasons of volunteering, followed by affiliation and personal development. Boz and Serap (2007) pointed out that more emphasis on altruism than self-oriented reasons in volunteering might be explained with regard to Turkey's being economically and culturally different from Western countries due to being an Eastern country and having an Islamic culture.

In Penner and Finkelstein's study (1998), values motive was demonstrated to be the only correlate of length of volunteering among volunteering motives. However, in Omoto and Snyder's study (1995), understanding, personal development and esteem enhancement motivations were found to be motivational predictors of length of volunteering as an AIDS volunteer. AIDS volunteers reported values motivation as the most important motivation to volunteer whereas esteem enhancement was the least important motivation for AIDS volunteers. Omoto and Snyder (1995) argued that self-oriented motivations rather than other-oriented motivations determined length of voluntary activities.

These findings support Volunteer Process Model (Omoto & Snyder, 1990; Omoto, Snyder, & Berghuis, 1993; as cited in Synder & Omoto, 2001), which proposes three stages of volunteering experience; antecedents, experience and consequences stages. Motivations are included as antecedents of volunteering behavior in the model and considered as determining length of volunteering service. In Omoto and Snyder's study

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(1995) motivations were demonstrated to have direct effects on length of volunteering. So, Omoto and Snyder (1995) suggested that volunteerism should be considered as a process of helping behavior, occurring at interrelated stages.

In addition, Papadakis, Griffin and Frater (1999) demonstrated that values function was the most important motivation to volunteer for students who had engaged in volunteering activity at least once in their lives. However, the students, who had never served as a volunteer, rated career function as the most important motivation to volunteer. Besides, volunteers reported values, enhancement and understanding motives to be more important reasons to volunteer than non-volunteers. Papadakis et al. (1999) concluded that volunteer behavior was driven by both altruistic and egoistic motivations.

In addition, in Clary et al.'s study (1998), the factor structure of Volunteers Function Inventory assessing the importance of six motivations to volunteers was shown to be identical for both volunteer and non-volunteer groups. So, Clary et al. (1998) suggested that same motivations were influential at different stages of volunteering process; namely at initiation of volunteering and sustained volunteering.

Motives and Gender

Gender differences have been found in terms of importance given to volunteering motivations. For instance, in Papadakis et al.'s study (2004) women significantly scored higher than men on values, enhancement and understanding motivations. Women's higher scores on values motivation was explained with regard to the traditional feminine stereotype. Women were demonstrated to be more altruistic, empathic, caring, emotional, service-oriented and as giving more importance to helping others (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

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Besides, in Clary et al.'s study (1998) women were found to score higher than men on all motivations except career motive. In another study discussing gender differences in regard to motivations, it was found that women and men differed in terms of motivational reasons to volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Highly active female volunteers scored lower on altruistic motivation than highly active male volunteers. These inconsistent findings with previous studies (e.g., Clary et al., 1998) was attributed to participants' being AIDS volunteers and male participants' being more inclined to empathize and identify with people infected with HIV.

Motives and Age

With regard to Functional Approach to Volunteerism, volunteering may serve different functions for people at different ages (Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998; Okun & Schultz, 2003; Greenslade & White, 2005; Celdran & Villar; 2007). Socioemotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999), which emphasizes that social goals change with age, may account for the variation in personally important volunteering functions with respect to age.

According to Socioemotional Selectivity Theory, since with age people become aware of the limited time left, they focus more on the present rather than the future. So, as people get older, emotional goals, e.g. having stronger social ties, become more important in directing people's lives than knowledge seeking goals, e.g. achievement in occupation. Compared to the younger people, the older people prefer emotionally close relationships and familiar people in their social networks (Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, & Nesselroade, 2000).

Social motivation was demonstrated to be an important motivation underlying older volunteers' voluntary work. In Okun and Schultz's study (2003) it was found that

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older volunteers rated social motive as a more important volunteering motivation than young volunteers whereas old volunteers scored lower on career and understanding functions than other participants. These findings were explained with regard to Socioemotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999), which argued that, with age, people had become less interested in having new experiences and less concerned with professional achievement.

In Greenslade and White's study (2005) social motive was found to be the only motive predicting participation in volunteerism above national average. This finding was attributed to the composition of the sample, consisting mostly of old people, since in previous studies (e.g., Bowen, Andersen, & Urban, 2000; Okun & Schultz, 2003) social motive was found to be a more important reason of volunteering for old people than young people.

In Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick's study (2005), finding out a low mean for career motive, a relatively high mean for values motive, and a negative correlation between career and age was explained also with regard to Socioemotional Selectivity Theory since the sample consisted of mostly elderly volunteers.

In addition, in some studies (Okun & Schultz, 2003; Celdran & Villar, 2007), values motive had been rated as the most important motive by older volunteers as well as younger participants. So, it can be concluded that social and values motives are the motives that lead older adults to volunteer.

<u>Volunteer Role Identity</u>

Callero and colleagues (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999) argue that helping behavior can be explained with role-person merger, referring to the extent to which the role is incorporated to the self.

The more the role becomes important to the self, the more this role dominates the self-concept (Turner, 1978; as cited in Lee, Piliavin, & Callero, 1999). As volunteer activity is maintained, commitment to the organization increases. In turn, commitment increases the occurrence of volunteering behaviors. Consequently, increase in commitment and volunteer activities help volunteer role identity to be internalized.

Internalization of the role makes the individual to engage in role-consistent behavior, in other words role merges with the self (Stryker, 1980; as cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). It can be argued that the volunteer role identity directs future volunteering actions since the volunteer begins acting in accordance with the changed self-concept (Finkelstein et al., 2005) and past volunteer activity determines whether the volunteer will sustain volunteering (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior

Piliavin and colleagues (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999) proposed Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior to explain volunteering. This model is based on the assumptions of the Role Identity Theory   (Stryker, 1980; McCall & Simmons, 1966; Turner, 1978; as cited in Grube & Piliavin, 2000) arguing that the role identity is shaped through social interactions and by perceived expectations of others. One of these roles is argued to be the volunteer role. Social structural context and the social interactions are emphasized as important factors to explain volunteering since the identity ascribed to the person is perceived to be contingent upon the social structure and social interactions (Stryker, 1980; as cited in Grube & Piliavin, 2000).

Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior was also influenced by Mead's approach to Role Identity Theory (Mead, 1983; as cited in Callero et al., 1987). Mead (1983)

argues that role, person and society are inseparable and repeated helping behaviors should be explained with an approach assuming interconnectedness of these three constructs.

Mead (1983) proposes that role is socially constructed and the whole community agrees upon the meanings of roles. So, the interaction with the community members allows for validation of the social roles. If a role is meaningful to the individual and confirmed by the community, the role will be enacted. Besides, Mead (1983) indicates that social norms motivate the individual to help but when the role is internalized, personal norms become the motivating factors for helping.

Based on Mead's propositions (1983), Callero, Howard and Piliavin (1987) integrate history and social structure into the analysis of helping behavior. Callero et al. (1987) point out that helping should be considered in relation to the context since it is the social structure that determines the available social roles, social and physical interactions, meaning systems related to the interaction and the resources needed for helping. In their conceptualization, the history refers to the interactive history that defines helping behavior. Whether a helping behavior will be perceived as beneficial or not depends on the interactive history that the agents share.

In Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero et al., 1987), others' expectations are assumed to be important sources of formation of self-concept. So, it is argued that initiation of volunteering behavior is influenced by parental influence, social norms and perceived expectations of others.

After one becomes a volunteer, the volunteers' initial experiences in the organization, the social network (i.e., maintaining volunteering not to lose friends) developed with other volunteers and perceived expectations (i.e., social pressure of other

volunteers to volunteer) determine whether volunteering becomes a defining essence of the self-concept. In addition, organizational variables (i.e., prestige of the organization), similarity of volunteer's values with those of the organization and self-attributions (i.e., feeling that one's role in the organization is important for the success of the organization) may contribute to developing a volunteer identity and also may influence to what extent the volunteer identity will be internalized (Grube & Piliavin, 2000).

The Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior can be considered as adopting a more sociological approach compared to Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003) since Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior explains volunteering behavior with regard to social roles, history and social structure in which these roles are embedded, rather than emphasizing dispositional variables.

Role Identity Model and Length of Volunteering

The Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior has been applied mostly to explain helping behavior of blood donors (e.g., Callero et al., 1987, Charng, Piliavin & Callero, 1988). For instance, in Callero, Howard and Piliavin's study (1987) with blood donors, the history of helping was found to be positively associated with the role-person merger (role identity) and the role identity predicted the intent to donate blood independent of the effects of social norms.

In addition, the association between role-person merger and future blood donation was strongest when the personal and social norms had the weakest effect on behavior. Besides, the strongest association between the norms and the future blood donation was obtained when the role-person merger had the weakest effect on donation. After blood donor identity had been internalized, the effect of norms became less significant. These

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findings reveal that interaction of role-person merger and social norms accounts for future volunteering.

Lee, Piliavin, and Call (1999) applied Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior to time (volunteering), money and blood donation. Role identity was found to be a stronger predictor of volunteering than donating blood or money. Lee et al. (1999) argued that since identity was maintained through social interactions, role identity was found to play a more important role in determining future volunteering than donation of blood and money. This finding underlines the importance of interaction between the individual and the community on identity development (Mead, 1987; as cited in as cited in Callero et al., 1987) and demonstrates that once volunteer identity has developed, the individual maintains role- consistent behavior.

Another study that showed how role-person merger (Turner, 1978; as cited in Grube & Piliavin, 2000) played role in explaining long-term volunteering was Grube and Piliavin's study (2000). In their longitudinal study with American Cancer Society (ACS) volunteers, perceived expectation of others was found to be the strongest predictor of role identity. In addition, among organizational variables such as prestige of the organization, personal importance, perceived expectation of others and organizational commitment, role identity was found to be the strongest predictor of amount of time donated to ACS and intent to leave ACS. Number of hours donated to ACS at Time 1 predicted strength of role identity and amount of time given to ACS at Time 2. Thus, promotion of role identity was suggested as an important way of prolonging volunteering.

Besides, in Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick's (2005) study with hospice volunteers, role identity and perceived expectations were found to be correlated with

amount of time spent volunteering and length of volunteer service. The volunteers who had developed a volunteer role identity and who felt that other people expected them to act consistently with the volunteer role identity were more likely to maintain volunteering. In addition, it was pointed out that applying Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior allowed differentiation of active volunteers in terms of level of involvement in voluntary acts. However, in that study, whether volunteer role identity resulted in sustained volunteerism or sustained volunteerism led to developing a volunteer role identity could not be determined.

Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior and Past Voluntary Activity

Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero et al., 1987) proposes that the role identity is an antecedent of sustained volunteering and a determinant of future volunteering behaviors (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). The volunteering studies on role identity demonstrate that past volunteer activity predicts role identity. For instance, in Lee, Piliavin and Call's study (1999), it was found that the development of time, money and blood donor identities was determined by past experience of giving time, money and blood. Modeling, personal norms and perceived expectations were argued to play role in initial decisions of donating. In addition, Lee, Piliavin and Call (1999) suggested that not only those factors but also repeated donations contributed to development of role identity.

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found that past volunteer activity predicted role-identity as well as future volunteering acts. In their study (1998) with AIDS service organization volunteers, the data was collected longitudinally. The role identity was operationalized as amount of time spent volunteering and number of meetings attended in the organization at Wave 2 since role identity model argued that volunteer role

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identity led to sustained volunteering and acted as a mediator between variables such as organizational commitment or values and volunteer behavior. Role identity correlated with volunteer activity and with organizational commitment at Wave 1. In addition, time spent as a volunteer at Wave 1 was found to predict amount of time spent as a volunteer at Wave 3 and this relationship was demonstrated to be mediated by volunteer activity at Wave 2. These findings show that volunteer role identity is fostered by past volunteer activity and the volunteers act consistently with the volunteer role identity.

<div align="center">Volunteer Motives and Role Identity</div>

Volunteer motives have been demonstrated to determine initiation of volunteering and sustained volunteering. Role identity has also been shown to influence length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering. Functional Approach Model to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998) and Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero et al., 1987; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee et al., 1999) have been integrated to explain the processes underlying sustained volunteering.

Integrated Model of Functional Approach and Role Identity Model

Based on volunteering studies (e.g., Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee et al., 1999), Penner (2002) developed an integrated model of Functional Approach to Volunteering (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003) and Role Identity Theory of Helping Behavior (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987).

Penner's integrated model (2002) consists of four processes; decision to volunteer, initial volunteerism, development of role identity and sustained volunteerism. In the model, it is argued that the interaction of many factors determines whether one would volunteer or not. The motives, prosocial personality, personal values and beliefs, perceived expectations and demographic variables are argued to play role in the initial

decision to volunteer. In addition, factors such as organizational practices and attributes related to the organization influence whether one will become a volunteer of a particular organization.

Having positive initial volunteering experiences and high involvement in voluntary work brings about development of a volunteer role identity. In the model (Penner, 2002) internalization of volunteer identity is proposed as the direct cause of sustained volunteering. Even though motives, prosocial personality and relationship with the organization are considered as strong predictors of initial volunteering, and hence long-term volunteering, it is argued that the effects of these dispositional and organizational variables on sustained volunteerism become weaker, once a volunteer role has been internalized.

Research on Integrated Model

There are few volunteering studies that incorporate Role Identity Model (Callero et al., 1987) and Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998). One of these few studies is Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick's study (2005), which led partial support to the integrated model. It was found that perceived expectations and understanding motive predicted length of service as a hospice volunteer while perceived expectations, social and career motives were found to be predictors of time spent volunteering. Understanding motive had a negative effect on length of volunteering whereas social and career motives were negatively related to amount of time spent volunteering.

Role identity and perceived expectations were shown to be correlated with both length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering. In addition, role identity was demonstrated to predict amount of time spent volunteering. The individuals were

more likely to maintain volunteering when volunteer role identity had been internalized and they believed that others expected them to show role consistent behavior.

Contrary to previous studies (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995), a weak association was found between motives and volunteer activity. It was attributed to the fact that participants were asked to report their initial motivations rather than their current motivations. Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick (2005) suggested that the importance given to volunteering motives might have changed with time and added that assessing fulfillment of motives could have led to consistent findings with previous studies.

While values motive was demonstrated to be the motive most strongly associated with role identity, career motive was found to be a negative correlate of role identity. Finkelstein et al. (2005) argued that role identity might have acted as a mediator between motives and volunteer activity. Though such a path from motives to volunteering had not been examined in Finkelstein et al.'s study (2005), motives and volunteer role identity were demonstrated to be related.

In recent years, integrated model posited by Penner (2002) has been adopted in research on volunteering in organizational settings (e.g., Grube & Piliavin, 2000) and in organizational citizenship behavior studies (e.g., Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Finkelstein, 2006).

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are planned, long-term and discretional behaviors that are conducted in an organization to help nonintimate others (Finkelstein, & Penner, 2004). Organizational citizenship behaviors, which are not among the requirements of the work, are behaviors conducted at a workplace aiming to contribute to the organization. Though organizational citizenship behaviors are different

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forms of behaviors from volunteering acts, they are conceptually related to volunteering behaviors, so studies on organizational citizenship behaviors may contribute to volunteering research adopting integrated model (Finkelstein et al., 2005).

In Finkelstein and Penner's study (2004), role identity was found to be strongly associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, motives of prosocial values and organizational concern as well. Motives were found to be strong predictors of OCB and volunteer role identity was demonstrated to be a mediator between motives and OCB. Finkelstein and Penner (2004) underlined that integration of Functional Approach to Volunteerism and Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior would allow a better understanding of volunteering processes.

In another study on organizational citizenship behavior (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007), role identity and motives were found to be positively correlated and to predict organizational citizenship behaviors. In addition, it was demonstrated that relationship of motives to OCB was mediated by role identity. Finkelstein and Brannick (2007) argued that as motives might have influenced development of volunteer role identity, maintaining a role identity might have also led to emergence of new motives. So, in Finkelstein and Brannick's study (2007), whether motives were antecedents of role identity or motives had emerged as a result of internalization of role identity could not be determined.

<center>Psychological Sense of Community</center>

Sense of community (SOC) is a complex construct that has been examined at different levels; personal and community levels and at different contexts such as in neighborhoods (e.g., Perkins, Florin, Rich, Wandersman, & Chavis, 1990; Pretty, Chipuer, & Bramston, 2003) or workplaces (e.g., Clark, 2002). A consensus on the

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dimensions of sense of community and on the factors engendering a strong

psychological sense of community has not been reached. Yet, it is perceived as an

essential element of community formation and as a factor maintaining community bond

(Hill, 1996).

The theories and research (e.g., McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Bishop, Chertok and

Jason, 1997) on sense of community are derived from Sarason's work (1974) and is

based on his definition of sense of community. Sarason (1974) defined sense of

community as "the sense that one was part of a readily available, mutually supportive

network of relationships upon which one could depend and as a result of which one did

not experience sustained feelings of loneliness" (p. 1).

Sarason (1974) suggested feelings of kinship and identification with shared values

of the group as core elements of a functioning group, emphasizing the importance of

sense of community in sustaining group cohesion.

There have been attempts to measure sense of community (e.g., Riger & Lavrakas,

1981; Buckner, 1988). In these studies, sense of community has been considered as

either a unidimensional (Buckner, 1988) or a multidimensional construct (Riger &

Lavrakas, 1981). Since these studies were not based on a conceptual framework and the

measures used were not driven from a theory of sense of community, they were limited

in explaining the dimensions of sense of community and mechanisms operating in

development of sense of community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986).

Sense of Community Theory

McMillian and Chavis (1986) are apparently the first researchers who have formed

a theory to explain how sense of community develops in communities. McMillian and

Chavis (1986) define sense of community as a feeling developed in a group in which the

members consider themselves as group members, give importance to other members and believe that group commitment is a way of satisfying their personal needs. McMillian and Chavis (1986) argue that this definition holds for members of all communities but members of different groups may attach importance to elements of sense of community at varying degrees. Besides, this feeling may change over time due to changes in cultural values and due to global changes such as developments in media and transportation.

In the theory, it is stressed that an individual can have feelings of belonging to many communities and each community may serve different personal needs (Chavis, Hogge, McMillan, & Wandersman, 1986; Pretty, Andrews, & Colett, 1994; Hill, 1996). McMillian and Chavis's theory (1986) has been adopted to explain sense of community developed mostly in neighborhood communities. However, the theory underlines that community does not only refer to groups formed with regard to location or geographic boundaries but community also refers to relational groups (McMillan & Chavis, 1996; Bishop, Chertok & Jason, 1997).

Hill (1996) points out that the communities, to which people have strongest feelings of belonging, might have been formed by common interests rather than local bonds. Hill (1996) underlines that the community consisting of members who do not have any contact with each other may also be considered as a community. So, Hill (1996) suggested that to grasp the real definition of sense of community, studying sense of community in diverse contexts is needed.

Elements of Sense of Community

In the Sense of Community Theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986), sense of community is defined as composing of four elements; namely, membership, influence, reinforcement and shared emotional connection (Table 2).

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Membership refers to belonging to the group and identification with the group. McMillan and Chavis (1986) emphasize that group boundaries define who is a member and who is not a member of the group. The group intimacy is protected by the group boundaries and the secure boundaries engender emotional safety. In addition, feeling as a member of the group and feeling emotionally safe in the group lead to personal investment. In return, personal investment enhances feelings of belonging to the group and identification with the group that ease the emergence of a common symbol system in the group. Symbols such as logos, names or dresses are used to differentiate members and nonmembers and to protect group boundaries. Thus, there is a circular causal relationship between the attributes of membership.

The influence that the group members exert on other group members is another element of sense of community. The members of the group are more committed to the group if they feel that they have some influence over group decisions. The community's influence on the community members serves to establish conformity to the group; and conformity strengthens group intimacy and indicates group cohesiveness.

Another element of sense of community is reinforcement that refers to fulfillment of individuals' needs through community membership. A rewarding association between the group and the member is one of the main reasons that bind the group members. Among many rewards that the membership offers to the members, status of membership, group success, and competence of other members have been proposed as the most salient rewards for members. People join groups that serve their needs and if the group members share common values, their needs are more likely to coincide with other members' needs. So, the cohesiveness of the group will be maintained through prioritizing fulfillment of those common needs. A strong sense of community indicates

that group members do not only try to fulfill their own needs but also the needs of other members.

Table 2. Elements of Sense of Community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986)

1. Membership

2. Influence
3. Integration and Fulfillment of Needs
4. Shared Emotional Connection
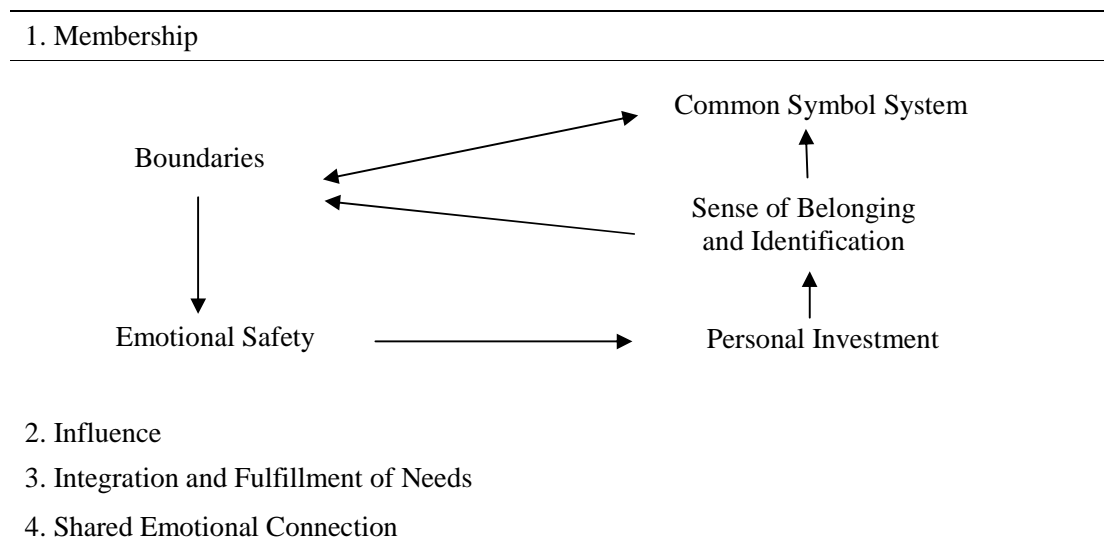
The shared emotional connection among the community members results from the experiences and the history shared by the community members. However, for the emotional connection to develop, the members do not necessarily have to be part of the group history. Interacting with other members that have participated in the group history or knowing the events that are important to the group may result in identification with shared history. The identification with the group history leads to development of shared emotional connection between group members. Besides, the frequency and the quality of interaction and the degree of importance of the shared event to the group members determine strength of emotional connection.

The four elements constituting McMillan and Chavis's (1986) theory have been challenged in different respects. New dimensions of sense of community have been

posited to clarify some aspects of the model, such as dimensions related to role of identification in development of sense of community (Obst, Zinkiewicz, & Smith 2002a; 2002b) or new elements based on individual member's perception of the community (Bishop, Chertok, & Jason, 1997). However, multidimensionality of sense of community has been supported (e.g., Pretty, 1990; Pretty & McCarthy, 1991; Pretty, Andrews, & Colett, 1994) and the dimensions proposed by McMillan & Chavis's (1986) have been validated in many studies (e.g., Lounsbury & DeNui, 1996; Perkins et al., 1990).

Revised Sense of Community Theory

A decade after the theory of sense of community had been proposed McMillan (1996) revised the theory. McMillan (1996) clarified some issues related to the main theory and emphasized role of some elements such as similarities between the group members in development of sense of community. With regard to his emphasis on certain aspects of the theory, McMillan (1996) replaced membership, influence, reinforcement and shared emotional connection with spirit, trust, trade and art, respectively. But, the conceptualization of the constructs was very similar to elements proposed in the original theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986).

McMillan (1996) elaborated on group members' sacrifice for the group, argued to be related to the "spirit" element. According to McMillan (1996), the sacrifice which could be demonstrated in form of time, energy or money, was functioning to engender loyalty to the group and was also essential for the sense of belonging to develop.

Unlike the main theory, the development of a community was proposed to be the result of people's seeking for similar others and McMillan (1996) argued that similarities between group members allowed a bond to be established between the group members. The similarities such as similar ways of thinking or feeling shared with other

group members protected the individual against shame that might result from being different from others. The people conformed to the group and lost their independence but, in return, being a member of the group protected them against the shame. This kind of relationship between the person and the group had been referred as "trade" by McMillan (1996).

Research on Sense of Community

The existence of elements constituting sense of community has been demonstrated in various studies, yet sense of community studies do not present consistent findings (e.g., Perkins et al., 1990; Pretty et al., 2003). Lack of consistent findings related to dimensions of sense of community and the relationship between sense of community and other psychological variables might have resulted from use of different scales and models (e.g., Chipuer & Pretty, 1999). Moreover, measurement of sense of community in different settings may have engendered inconsistent findings across studies (Hill, 1996).

Sense of community has been examined as a construct developed in variety of settings such as in neighborhoods (e.g., Perkins et al., 1990; Pretty et al., 2003; Ohmer, 2007), relationally-based communities like workplace (e.g., Clark, 2002), schools (e.g., Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1996), groups based on shared problems like drug addiction (e.g., Bishop, Jason, Ferrari, & Huang, 1998) or interest groups like internet groups (e.g., Obst et al., 2002a; 2002b). Besides, sense of community has been discussed in relation to both intrapersonal characteristics such as big five personality traits (e.g., Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1996; Lounsbury, Loveland, & Gibson, 2003) and interpersonal characteristics (e.g., Cantillon, Davidson, & Scweitzer, 2003).

Many scales measuring sense of community have been developed or existing scales have been revised to assess certain age groups (e.g., Pretty, Conroy, Dugay, Fowler, & Williams, 1996) and to be used in specific contexts such as at school (Lounsbury & DeNui, 1996) and in workplaces (Chipuer & Pretty, 1999; Clark, 2002) or in community organizations (Hughey, Speer, & Peterson, 1999). However, Sense of Community Index (SCI) (Chavis et al., 1986), which is based on the dimensions posited by McMillan and Chavis (1986), is probably the most widely used scale to measure sense of community (Chipuer & Pretty, 1999).

Another scale measuring sense of community is The Perceived Sense of Community Scale developed by Bishop, Chertok, & Jason (1997). It has been derived from the premises of Sense of Community Theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986) like Sense of Community Index (SCI) (Chavis et al., 1986). However, while items of Sense of Community Index emphasize local bonds between the community members, the Perceived Sense of Community Scale focuses on how the community members perceive the atmosphere in the group. The latter stresses the mission (the perception that the group has common goals), reciprocal responsibility (person's commitment to offer assistance to others in the group) and disharmony (level of disagreement) among the group members as determinants of sense of community.

The relationships between volunteers working in the same organization are not defined by common local bonds but by common aims and mission related to non-governmental organization's area of interest. In this regard, Perceived Sense of Community Scale seems as the appropriate scale to measure sense of community developed in TEGV since the group consisting of TEGV volunteers and employees is a relational group rather than a locally bounded group and since it is not the locality that

binds TEGV volunteers and employees but the common aim of providing children with better educational opportunities.

Sanchez and Ferrari (2005) administered Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Bishop, Chertok, & Jason, 1997) to health-care employees. Sense of community, esteem, understanding and values motivations were found to be positively associated with having a mentor. Though this study did not include voluntary work and did not examine the relationship between motives and sense of community, it showed that the Perceived Sense of Community Scale was applicable in an organizational setting.

In another study by Bishop et al. (1998), Perceived Sense of Community Scale was used to assess sense of community of individuals recovering from alcohol and polysubstance abuse and living in self-governed Oxford House. The concern of Bishop et al.'s study (1998) was to determine the degree of sense of community towards prior living settings. It was found that sense of community developed in prior living settings did not have an effect on duration of residence in Oxford House (Bishop et al., 1998). In addition, Bishop et al. (1998) pointed out that the experiences of individuals in the community and the feelings shared by the whole community could be different. They underlined that while neighborhoods or organizations might have sense of community, the individuals might not develop sense of community.

<u>Sense of Community and Volunteering</u>

Omoto and Snyder (2002) argue that sense of community plays a role in volunteering process and determines the extent of one's attempts to help community members, to participate in solving problems of the community and to contribute to the community through volunteer work.

There are few studies that examine volunteering in relation to sense of community. In these studies, volunteering has been studied mostly in relation to sense of community developed in neighborhoods and increased sense of community has been demonstrated to be associated with increased participation in volunteering (Pretty et al., 2003; Ohmer, 2007). However, how sense of community develops in relationally formed volunteering groups rather than volunteer groups with territorial bonds, has been discussed in few studies (e.g., Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari, Luhrs, & Lyman, 2007).

These studies examined sense of community in a relational group, in an Australian not-for-profit charitable organization. Volunteers reported stronger reciprocal responsibility and greater disharmony between group members than employees. For both of the groups, mission of the group to help the elderly was equally important but volunteers indicated stronger bonds with their peers whom they were serving.

In addition, Ferrari (2004) demonstrated that for volunteers the amount of time spent in the community was positively related to mission and reciprocal responsibility, and disharmony was negatively related to caregiver satisfaction.

<div align="center">Social Responsibility</div>

Social responsibility can be defined as a general tendency to help others, even when the helper gains few social and material rewards or when the helper does not get any rewards for his/her help to the other (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963). It is argued that helping in these situations is not based on norm of reciprocity, helping the ones who have helped you or helping to receive help in the future, but helping acts are determined by moral standards (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963; 1964).

In their experimental study with college students, Berkowitz and Daniels (1963) investigated the relationship between dependency and responsibility. The study included

two groups of students (high and low dependency groups), who were expected to make paper boxes under the guidance of a supervisor. High dependency group was told that the evaluation of the supervisor depended on their performance whereas low dependency group was not informed that their performance would determine whether the supervisor would get rewards or not. To eliminate the effect of norm of reciprocity, both of the groups were told that the supervisor would not be informed about their help. High dependency group had greater productivity level than the low dependency group although they knew that their efforts would not be compensated either by the experimenter or by the supervisor. In the questionnaire administered right after the experiment, the high dependency group reported that they made an effort to help the supervisor while the low dependency group indicated that they made boxes just to follow the instructions. It was concluded that high dependency situation engendered feelings of obligation to help the supervisor to reach his goals and the participants considered helping as a socially responsible behavior in that context.

Berkowitz and Daniels (1964) argued that helping others was determined by a cultural norm of helping the ones who were dependent upon oneself, and one's motivation to comply with the norm was determined by situational factors including the costs associated with altruistic acts or by feelings towards the receiver of help.

Berkowitz and Daniels (1964) proposed that how the situation influenced socially responsible behavior could also be discussed in relation to salience of the social norm. It was argued that social responsibility norm would be most salient right after the individual had just been given help. The prior help would enhance the motivation to help others who were dependent on the person since responsibility norm would be salient when the individual had been given some assistance.

This assumption was supported by experimental manipulations of Berkowitz and Daniels (1964). The college students who had been helped to make boxes in the trials by one of the experimenter's confederates were more willing to help another subject in the main experiment although the help giver in the trials and the help receiver in the main experiment were not the same individuals. In that study, a revised version of Social Responsibility Scale (Harris, 1957) was administered to the participants. The subjects, who had high social responsibility scores in Berkowitz and Daniels's experiments (1964), worked harder to help the supervisor than the low scorers when the social situation implied helping as a socially proper behavior.

The subjects in the high dependency-prior help group, who showed high performance during the experiment, scored high on Social Responsibility Scale. On the contrary, the higher the participants in high dependency-no help group scored on social responsibility scale, the less they were willing to help the supervisor. Less help provided by high dependency-no help group can be attributed to lack of help in the trials that might have weakened the influence of this social norm. Not being helped by the confederate might have engendered a psychological cost such as feeling resentment for not being helped in the trials and they did not act as willingly as the prior help group to assist the supervisor.

The studies of Berkowitz and Daniels (1963, 1964) demonstrate that people's willingness to help others even if there are not any benefits for them can be explained by internal standards of right and wrong, and complying with those standards when they are made salient by the situation. In addition, in these studies, the applicability of Social Responsibility Scale has been shown and that the participants who score high on Social Responsibility Scale have been found to be more altruistic than the participants who

have lower social responsibility scores (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1964). The series of studies conducted by Berkowitz and his colleagues prove that people may help others who are dependent on them not because of reciprocity of norm but because of acting in line with their personal standards.

Research on Social Responsibility

Social responsibility is argued to be a personality characteristic (e.g., Berkowitz & Lutterman, 1968; McIntyre, Heron, McIntyre, Burton, & Engler, 2003) and it has been examined in relation to a variety of issues. For instance, in McIntyre et al.'s study (2003), the effect of divorce on manifestation of social responsibility and adjustment was assessed. It was found that college students from families of divorce showed more social responsibility than students from intact families and that social responsibility facilitated better adjustment.

In another study, social responsibility was examined in relation to help given to family members (Midlarsky, Hannah, & Corley, 1995). Helping family members was demonstrated to be associated with a general predisposition to help others.

Berkowitz and Lutterman's study (1968) is one of the few studies that assessed social responsibility in relation to volunteering. The participants who scored high on Social Responsibility Scale were more likely than low scorers to be interested in politics and to have donated money to educational and religious institutions. The participants scoring higher in Social Responsibility Scale were more likely to have participated in the community activities to promote welfare of others and have volunteered for an organization. In addition, it was found that social responsibility was positively correlated with social class and educational level but negatively correlated with age.

In another study on social responsibility and volunteering, social responsibility was found to be associated with values motive of volunteering and satisfaction with volunteering in AIDS clinics (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). However, social responsibility was not associated with other volunteering motivations and length of volunteering. These findings demonstrate that having a helping disposition does not necessarily lead to long-term volunteering. Omoto and Snyder (1995) argue that the relationship between dispositional tendencies and actual behavior of volunteering may be conceptually and statistically difficult to determine.

Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968) underline that social responsibility should be seen as a personality characteristic rather than just a byproduct of the social milieu. How social responsibility is manifested, is influenced by the specific situation and social environment. However, compliance with social norms does not mean that a traditionally responsible person is a conformist who is seeking social approval. In Berkowitz and Lutterman's study (1968), the participants who scored high on Social Responsibility Scale were more likely to choose "to think for himself" item than low scorers when they were asked which characteristics that a child should have. The least important characteristic selected by high responsible participants was "to be well liked or popular". These findings show that socially responsible individuals are more likely to be inner-directed rather than other-directed. So, it can be concluded that highly responsible people do not comply with social norms to be approved by others, but they have internalized social values and beliefs which direct them to show socially responsible behaviors.

Satisfaction with Volunteering Experience

Satisfaction has been posited as a factor determining sustained volunteering and examined in relation to length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), motives (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Wisner, Stringfellow, Youngdahl, & Parker, 2005), sense of community (e.g., Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007), volunteer role identity (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005) and social responsibility (Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Satisfaction and Volunteer Activity

Satisfaction with the volunteering organization was demonstrated to be positively related to length of volunteering and this relationship was observed in non-governmental organizations specialized in different fields, such as in AIDS service organizations (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) or in other non-profit organizations (Wisner et al., 2005). For instance, the volunteers in Omoto and Snyder's study (1995) had volunteered for longer periods of time to the extent that they found the volunteering experience in AIDS clinic satisfying. In addition, in Wisner et al.'s study (2005), it was demonstrated that the more a volunteer was satisfied with the voluntary work, the more he/she was willing to continue volunteering. So, with regard to these two studies, it can be argued that satisfaction with voluntary work enhances commitment to volunteering and willingness to maintain volunteering.

Consistent with Omoto and Snyder's study (1995), in Penner and Finkelstein's study (1998) highly satisfied volunteers were found to have maintained voluntary work for longer periods of time than less satisfied volunteers. Since satisfaction was assessed long after the volunteers had initiated volunteering, it could not be concluded whether organizational satisfaction led to length of service, or length of service resulted in

satisfaction (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). However, the social-psychological theories

such as dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957; as cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) and

self-perception theory (Bem, 1972; as cited in Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) arguing that

length of an ongoing activity has some influence on satisfaction associated with it may

account for the relation between satisfaction and length of volunteer service.

In addition, Penner and Finkelstein's study (1998) demonstrated that satisfaction

was related to amount of time spent as a volunteer. Satisfaction and amount of time

spent volunteering were found to be correlated when they were measured in the same

time interval. However, initial satisfaction was not found to predict amount of time spent

volunteering behaviors in subsequent months.

Contrary to previous studies (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998),

in Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick's study (2005), satisfaction was not found to have

any association with length of volunteering but satisfaction was demonstrated to be

positively associated with amount of time spent volunteering. The positive association

between satisfaction and amount of time spent volunteering was an unexpected result

since motivations were found to be weakly correlated with either amount of time spent

volunteering or length of volunteering.

Satisfaction and Motives

Omoto and Snyder (1995) substantiated Volunteer Process Model in their study on

AIDS volunteers and hospice volunteers. Volunteer Process Model (Synder & Omoto,

2001) is based on the premise that volunteering occurs at three stages; at antecedents,

experiences and consequences stages of volunteering and in the model, the variables at

different stages were proposed to be related. Motivations were considered to be one of

the factors at antecedents stage whereas satisfaction was included in the model at

experiences stage. In Omoto and Snyder's study (1995), it was demonstrated that motivations did not have a direct effect on satisfaction. Consistent with Omoto and Snyder's study (1995), in Wisner et al.'s study (2005), altruistic motivation was not found to be a predictor of satisfaction.

However, Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary, Snyder and Ridge, 1992; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003) argues that there is a relationship between motives and satisfaction with volunteer activity, and emphasizes the match between one's personally important motives to volunteer and the fulfillment of these motives. The volunteers who believed that their personally important volunteering motivations had been fulfilled by volunteering experience expressed more satisfaction than those who received less functionally relevant benefits from the volunteer work (Clary et al., 1998).

Failing to establish a relationship between motivations and satisfaction in previous studies (Omoto & Snyder 1995; Wisner et al., 2005) can be attributed to the design of the studies. Unlike Clary et al.'s study (1998), the fulfillment of motivations was not assessed in these studies.

Satisfaction, Volunteer Role Identity and Social Responsibility

A glance at the literature on the relationship between satisfaction and role identity reveals only Finkelstein, Penner and Brannick's study (2005). In this study, satisfaction was found to be positively correlated with role identity. It can be concluded that as volunteer role identity is internalized, volunteers feel more satisfied with volunteering experience. It may also be the case that being satisfied with volunteering experience may enhance volunteer role identity.

Another variable related to satisfaction with volunteering experience is social responsibility. In Omoto and Snyder's study (1995), social responsibility was

demonstrated to have a direct and positive influence on satisfaction. This finding supports Volunteer Process Model, which posited that personality attributes, helping disposition in this context, were antecedents of volunteering process and that helping disposition influenced volunteering experience. However, indirect effect of social responsibility on length of volunteering through satisfaction was not found to be strong.

Satisfaction and Sense of Community

There are few studies assessing relationship between satisfaction with voluntary work and sense of community (Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007) since volunteering has rarely been included in sense of community research. In these studies on sense of community, among the three elements of sense of community assessed by Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Bishop et al., 1998), reciprocal responsibility was shown to predict caregiver satisfaction (Ferrari et al., 2007) of an elder-care nursing program volunteers whereas disharmony was found to be negatively correlated with caregiver satisfaction (Ferrari, 2004). However, in Ferrari's study (2004) whether volunteers became less satisfied with their work when they had disagreements and conflict with other volunteers or they experienced more conflicts with other volunteers when they felt less satisfied could not be determined.

Demographic Correlates of Volunteer Activity

Demographic variables; namely, age, gender, education and work status have been included in almost all volunteering studies, however, these demographic variables have been rarely examined in regard to volunteering (e.g., Schoenberg, 1980; Brady, Verba, & Schlozman, 1995).

In most of the studies (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 2005), female volunteers outnumbered male volunteers. In addition, a recent report on volunteering in

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USA (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008) indicated a noticeable difference between men and women in terms of rate of volunteering. Wilson (2000) attributed the difference in these figures to women being more altruistic and attaching more importance to helping others than men (Wilson & Musick, 1997). On the other hand, men's having more human capital than women may account for the fact that gender difference in volunteering rates is less than expected.

The nature of volunteering behaviors varies with age. One's experiences in every aspect of life accumulate and one's expectations of life change with age, hence one's attitude towards volunteering. It is shown that adolescents engage in volunteering more than young adults and it is argued that this may result from social freedoms young adults enjoy during their graduate education (Schoenberg, 1980). The nature of volunteer work preferred in young adulthood tends to be more politics, ethnicity or education-oriented, whereas people volunteer more in service-oriented organizations at older ages (Janoski & Wilson, 1995; as cited in Wilson, 2000).

Education has been shown to be related to volunteering (McPherson & Rotolo, 1996). Better educated people were demonstrated to be more likely to volunteer (Brady et al., 1995) and education was found to be positively associated with length of volunteer service and amount of time spent volunteering (Penner, 2002). It has been argued that better educated people are more aware of social problems, more self-confident and empathic towards others than less educated people (Brady et al., 1995; Rosenthal, Feiring, & Lewis, 1998).

Educated people work in many organizations (Herzog & Morgan, 1993) that allow them to acquire civic skills practical for volunteering (Brady et al., 1995), so educated people are more likely to encounter opportunities to volunteer in other organizations

(Brady, Schlozman, & Verba, 1999). In addition, the types of jobs better educated people have, take less of their time, so they can allocate more time to volunteering (Schroeder, 1995; as cited in Penner, 2002). Better educated people may consider volunteering as an activity that makes one's life more meaningful and that provides a feeling of satisfaction beyond their professional achievements (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985).

Another demographic variable discussed in relation to volunteering is work status. Role Overloaded Theory (Markham & Bonjean, 1996) argues that number of volunteering hours will be negatively related to number of paid work hours. It is suggested that when people have more time, people will be more likely to spend time volunteering. This prediction holds true for employed people. Full-time employed people are less likely to volunteer than part-time employed. However, the rate of volunteering of unemployed people and housewives is demonstrated to be less than the volunteering rate of employed people (Stubbings & Humble, 1984; as cited in Wilson, 2000). The nature of paid work may account for this difference since work allows the individual acquiring organizational skills, enhances self-confidence and the motivation to work as a member of a social group (Brady et al., 1995; Schoenberg, 1980)

Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV)

The present study is conducted in Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV). TEGV is one of the widely recognized non-governmental organizations in Turkey that has been active since 1995. TEGV is operating in less privileged rural and urban areas in Turkey with its 11 education parks, 57 learning centers and 18 mobile learning units called "Fireflies".

The aim of TEGV is to provide support to formal education with its after-school and non-formal programs. The children and teenagers between the ages of 7 and 16 join the activities conducted in TEGV's parks and centers that have facilities like drama classes, libraries, computer rooms, and basketball fields. 150,000 children are currently participating in programs of TEGV that are centered on personal and social development, on enhancement of communication skills and knowledge of culture, arts, science and technology. These programs aim to enhance intellectual, physical and communicational skills of children and help children to develop as creative, responsible and productive individuals.

The activities in TEGV are carried out by volunteers who are required to be over 18, to have high school diploma and to possess the skills required for the programs. The volunteers are expected to act consistently with the aims, vision and mission of the organization. Volunteering in TEGV allows volunteers to contribute to the education of children, practice life skills, foster positive attitudes and values related to the community through activities of TEGV and acquire new skills through volunteer trainings such as communication training or trainings on drama and painting programs.

8,982 active volunteers were working in TEGV's education parks and centers across Turkey as of February 2008. 64% of TEGV volunteers are female and 71% of the volunteers are between the ages of 19-25. While 64% of the volunteers are students, 71% of the volunteers are at least high school graduates.

816 volunteers give support to TEGV's activities in 2 education parks and 6 learning centers operating in Istanbul. This study has been conducted with 294 volunteers working in these 2 education parks and 5 of the learning centers located in Istanbul.

Present Study

The present study aims to examine the factors determining sustained volunteering. How motivations of volunteering, volunteer role identity, sense of community, social responsibility and satisfaction affect length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV) will be investigated. Volunteering experience before TEGV is also included in the study to assess its relation to the study variables such as volunteer role identity and satisfaction with volunteering experience. The interrelations between study variables will be examined to fully understand the role of these factors in volunteering processes.

This study has been conducted with volunteers working in Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV). The main reason for conducting the study in TEGV is that it has been active in Turkey for more than 10 years and has established a stable and well-functioning volunteering system with clearly defined volunteer roles.

In the present study, role of motivations in a rather less studied type of helping behavior, continued helping behavior in a non-governmental organization, will be examined. The motivations and volunteer role identity have been demonstrated to be related to volunteering in previous studies (e.g., Penner, 2003) but there are few studies integrating Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998) and Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero et al., 1987). In the study, both of these variables will be assessed and this may lead to a better understanding of mechanisms underlying long-term volunteering.

This study is innovative in the sense that it integrates sense of community, a construct that has been rarely studied in a non-governmental organization (Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007). Choosing a non-governmental organization to volunteer largely

depends on one's goals (e.g., helping children to get better education, helping to create a cleaner environment) or, in other words, on what the individual wants to achieve as a volunteer. Individuals are more likely to volunteer in organizations with which they share similar goals. Besides these mutual goals, the atmosphere of the organization influences how the volunteers perceive the organization and how they feel about volunteering. Existence of a supportive social mechanism in the organization has been argued to enhance commitment to the organization (Ferrari, 2004). In this respect, assessing sense of community in regard to volunteering may add a wider perspective to volunteering research.

Unlike most of the previous studies on sense of community (e.g., Ohmer, 2007; Perkins et al., 1990; Pretty et al., 2003), sense of community will be assessed in a relational group. In studies focusing on sense of community developed in locally bounded groups, people volunteer to do good to their local groups due to having strong sense of community (e.g., Ohmer, 2007; Perkins et al., 1990; Pretty et al., 2003). However, the relationship between sense of community and volunteering can be argued to develop differently in a non-governmental organization. Sense of community is considered as developing simultaneously with volunteering acts rather than it is treated as an antecedent of volunteering behavior. It is argued that the degree of volunteer's sense of community in a non-governmental organization will lead to engaging in more volunteering behaviors.

In studies examining sense of community (Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007), effect of each element constituting sense of community on volunteering has been investigated. However, in the present study, sense of community will be analyzed as a single variable. Sense of community will be examined as a general feeling rather than

focusing on its dimensions. Since the sample of the present study consists of volunteers and the participants are not compared with another group in terms of sense of community as it was in previous volunteering studies (Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007) and since the main aim of the study is to assess sense of community in a relationally formed group, in a non-governmental organization, rather than a locally bounded group, assessing each element of sense of community in relation to volunteering is not considered as relevant with regard to the aims of the study.

Social responsibility has been studied in relation to helping behavior (e.g., Midlarsky, Hannah, & Corley, 1995) but not much in relation to volunteering. Only one study could be found on the relation of social responsibility to volunteering (Omoto & Snyder, 1995), but in that study how social responsibility was measured was not clearly explained and role of social responsibility in development of continued volunteering behaviors was not discussed in detail. So, inclusion of social responsibility allows determining the effects of a dispositional factor on volunteering more in detail.

Satisfaction has been included in many studies and it has been considered as a factor influencing volunteer activity (Wisner et al., 2005). The present study not only examines the effect of satisfaction on length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering but also investigates its relationship with other study variables.

The present study is believed to make a contribution to volunteering research with inclusion of variables such as sense of community and social responsibility that have been rarely studied in relation to volunteering and also by examining all the possible relationships between the variables determining sustained volunteering.

In addition, conducting the study in TEGV will allow seeing how long-term volunteering is maintained in a non-governmental organization conducting educational

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activities and having a well-structured volunteer system. Most of the previous studies have been carried out with hospice or AIDS volunteers, so the present study will provide a new perspective on how type of organization may affect volunteers' experience. As Volunteers Center of TEGV has reported, the turnover of volunteers in TEGV is 50% per year. Though TEGV is an organization with a well-structured volunteer system, this figure suggests that other organizational factors and personal variables play important roles in volunteering processes.

Besides this study's contribution to volunteering literature in general, it is believed that this is an important study for volunteering culture in Turkey, since only one study conducted with Turkish volunteers has been encountered (Boz & Serap, 2007). In this respect, this study is an explanatory study, allowing to draw a profile of Turkish volunteers and to determine factors which are important for Turkish volunteers to maintain volunteering and which may be specific to Turkish culture.

The hypotheses of the study in regard to study variables are listed below.

Demographic Variables:

1. Women are expected to score higher on values motivation than men.

2. Older participants are expected to score lower on career motive than younger participants.

3. More educated participants are expected to spend more time volunteering than less educated participants.

4. Unemployed participants are expected to allocate more time to volunteering than employed participants.

Volunteer Motives:

1. The six volunteer motives (values, understanding, enhancement, social, career and protective motives) are expected be positively associated with each other and with volunteer activity (length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering) in TEGV.

2. Among six motives, values motive is expected to be the strongest predictor of volunteer activity in TEGV and past volunteering behavior.

Volunteer Role Identity:

1. Role identity will be positively related to past volunteer and current volunteer activity (length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV).

2. All motives except career motive will be correlated with role identity.

3. Volunteer role identity is expected to be predicted by sense of community and social responsibility.

Sense of Community:

1. Sense of community will be a significant predictor of length of volunteering and amount of spent volunteering in TEGV.

Social Responsibility:

1. Social responsibility will be positively related to length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV.

2. Positive association between social responsibility and values motive is expected.

Satisfaction with Volunteering Experience:

1. Satisfaction will be positively correlated with length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV.

2. Satisfaction is expected to be predicted by sense of community.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

51 TEGV volunteers (31 female, 20 male) from Fındıkzade Education Park were administered Social Responsibility Scale to test the criterion-related validity of the scale. The age range of the participants was between 18 and 40 ($M = 24.78$, $SD = 4.46$). To compare volunteers with non-volunteers in terms of social responsibility, the scale was given to 58 psychology students in Bogaziçi University. The age of the students ranged between 18 and 26 years, ($M = 21.57$, $SD = 1.68$) and 72.4% of the participants were female. These 51 volunteers were included into the study.

209 female and 85 male volunteers from Fındıkzade and Ferit Aysan TEGV Education Parks, Beykoz, İpek Kıraç, Gültepe and Zeyrek TEGV Learning Centers located in Istanbul participated in the study. This sex asymmetry has been observed in many volunteering studies (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein et al., 2005) and the ratio of female participants (71%) is close to the ratio of female volunteers (64%) to male volunteers in TEGV. The age of the volunteers ranged between 18 and 62 ($M = 26.1$, $SD = 8.5$). 55.8% of the volunteers reported that they were students and 89.5% reported educational experiences beyond high school.

Instruments

Demographic Information and Volunteering Activity Sheet

Participants were given demographic information and volunteering activity sheet (Appendix A) before they were administered the scales. Demographic information about the participants was obtained with four questions on age, gender, educational background and work status of the volunteers.

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Volunteering activity was assessed with two questions related to volunteering in TEGV and with a question on past volunteering experience. Volunteers were asked to indicate for how long they had been volunteering in TEGV and how many hours they were spending volunteering in TEGV each week. In addition, the volunteers were asked to report the length of their past volunteering experience.

<div align="center">Scales Used in the Study</div>

The participants were administered five scales assessing the variables of interest in the study; namely, volunteer motives, sense of community, volunteer role identity, social responsibility and satisfaction with volunteering experience. All scales were translated into Turkish and then a back translation to English was performed by a second translator who was blind to the original scales.

Volunteer Motives

TEGV volunteers' motives for volunteering were assessed with the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Appendix B). Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) is a widely adopted instrument to measure motivational functions and was originally developed by Clary, Synder and Ridge (1992; as cited in Greenslade & White, 2005). VFI has been shown to be a valid and reliable measure to assess six volunteering functions (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998) and the subscales of VFI have been demonstrated to measure single and stable functions that do not overlap (Clary et al., 1998).

The six functions measured by VFI are value function (i.e., "I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself"), understanding function (i.e., "I can learn more about the cause for which I am working"), enhancement function (i.e., "Volunteering makes me feel important"), career function (i.e., "Volunteering can help me get my foot in the

door at a place where I'd like to work"), social function (i.e., "My friends volunteer"), protective function (i.e., "No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it").

The importance of each motivation to the volunteers was measured with a subscale, each comprising 5 items that constitute the 30-item inventory. The responses were given on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all important/accurate) to 7 (extremely important/very accurate). VFI subscales have been demonstrated to have good internal consistency reliabilities (lowest coefficient $\alpha = 0.80$) (Clary et al., 1998).

Sense of Community

Sense of community perceived by TEGV volunteers was measured with the Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Appendix C) developed by Bishop, Chertok and Jason (1997). The Perceived Sense of Community Scale consists of three elements: mission (12 items; "There is a sense of common purpose in this group"), reciprocal responsibility (12 items; "When something needs to be done, the whole group gets behind it") and disharmony (6 items; "In this group there is a feeling that people should not get too friendly"). Disharmony items were reversely coded.

In the present study, the three subscales of Perceived Sense of Community were not analyzed separately; rather the scores were added to create a single variable indicating the degree of sense of community in TEGV.

The participants rated how true (1 = not at all true; 5 = completely true) each of the items was for the group composed of TEGV volunteers and employees. The Perceived Sense of Community subscales were reported to have good reliability estimates ($\alpha \geq$ 0.70) (Bishop et al., 1997).

Volunteer Role Identity

Volunteer role identity was measured with a 5-item scale of role identity (Appendix D) developed by Callero, Howard and Piliavin (1987) to assess blood donor role identity. The scale items were modified to address a general volunteer identity, by substituting "volunteer work" for "blood donation" and "volunteer" for "blood donors" (i.e., "Volunteering is an important part of who I am") as done in Grube and Piliavin's study (2000). Besides, one item was adapted to TEGV volunteers, replacing "being a blood donor" with "volunteering", and "donating blood" with "volunteering in TEGV " ("For me, volunteering means more than just volunteering in TEGV"). The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Callero et al. (1987) reported good internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = 0.81$) and good validity for the Role Identity Scale.

Social Responsibility

Different scales have been used to assess social responsibility. Social Responsibility Scale consisting of 56 items developed by Gough, McClosky and Meehl (1952) is probably the first Social Responsibility Scale. The scale was administered to high school and college students and argued to be a standardized and effective measure of social responsibility. Harris (1957) revised the scale and used this 50-item Social Attitudes Scale to differentiate the elementary school children who possessed a social responsibility attitude from those who did not.

A second revision of Social Responsibility Scale was made by Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968). This new scale consisted of 8 items (i.e., "It is no use of worrying about current events or public affairs; I can't do anything about them anyway" or "It is the duty of each person to do his job the very best he can"), 6 of which were adapted

from Harris's Social Attitudes Scale (1957). This final version of the Social Responsibility Scale (Appendix E) was administered to TEGV volunteers. Responses were measured in a Likert format from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Social Responsibility Scale was found to have adequate internal consistency (Berkowitz & Lutterman, 1968).

<u>Volunteer Satisfaction</u>

Satisfaction with volunteering experience has been assessed with various measures (e.g., Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Ferrari, 2004). In the present study, the scale applied by Wisner, Stringfellow, Youngdahl and Parker (2005) was preferred over other scales since the wording of the items seemed meaningful for the aims of this study. Originally the scale consisted of five items but the item "I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement in the organization" was dropped from the version used in the present study since in TEGV there was no hierarchy among volunteers and therefore possibility of advancement as a volunteer in the organization did not exist.

The Satisfaction Scale (Appendix F) used in the present study consisted of 4 items (i.e., "I am satisfied with the organization's policies") and the scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Wisner et al. (2005) reported that the satisfaction scale had good internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = 0.89$).

Procedure

The scales were administered to 294 TEGV volunteers individually in activity rooms or in volunteers' rooms of TEGV's Education Parks and Learning Units located in Istanbul. Firstly, each volunteer was asked whether they would like to participate in the study. If they agreed to participate, they were informed that the information given would only be used for the thesis and they were assured that the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses would be maintained. The instructions were provided with the questionnaires and the researcher was present while the participants were filling out the questionnaires. Completing the scales lasted at most 30 minutes.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics of volunteer activity and scales will be presented. Then, psychometric evaluation of the scales is discussed. Finally, the analyses carried out to test the hypotheses are reported.

The descriptive statistics, reliability and validity analyses were calculated with raw scores obtained from demographic information and volunteer activity sheet and from the scales of the study. However, the rest of the analyses were carried out with transformed scores since Shapiro-Wilk Test of normality was found to be significant (p<.001). Due to small sample size, Shapiro-Wilk test was used rather than Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The logarithm ($\log_{10}$) of each score was calculated. Since the data sets were strongly skewed, calculating logarithm of the scores was preferred over other techniques of transformation such as calculating square root of the scores.

Descriptive Statistics

The statistics of length of volunteering in TEGV, amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV and length of past volunteering experience will be presented in detail since the concern of the present study was to determine the factors influencing volunteer activity and provide data on volunteering tendencies in Turkey. Moreover, the statistics of the scales used in the study gives a general idea of volunteers' judgments related to volunteering variables.

Volunteer Activity

The range of volunteer service in TEGV was between 1 month and 150 months ($M = 19.2$, $SD = 25.5$) and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV ranged between 2 and 32 hours a week ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 4.4$). 83% of the volunteers reported no prior

volunteering experience and the longest duration of past volunteering was 168 months

($M = 4.83$, $SD = 16.6$) (Table 3).

Table 3. Volunteer Activity Statistics

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Length of Past Volunteering			
None	244	83.0	83.0
1-12 months	21	7.1	90.1
1-3 years	19	6.5	96.6
> 3 years	10	3.4	100.0
Amount of Time Spent Volunteering in TEGV			
2 hours	188	63.9	63.9
3-4 hours	51	17.4	81.3
5-6 hours	15	5.1	86.4
7-8 hours	19	6.5	92.9
9-12 hours	9	3.0	95.9
> 12 hours	12	4.1	100.0
Length of Volunteering in TEGV			
1-6 months	129	43.9	43.9
7-12 months	54	18.3	62.2
13-24 months	40	13.7	75.9
25-36 months	30	10.2	86.1
37-48 months	14	4.7	90.8
49-72 months	11	3.8	94.6
> 72 months	16	5.4	100.0

Note. N = 294

Scales

The means and standard deviations of raw scores obtained from four subscales of

Volunteer Functions Inventory, Sense of Community Scale, Role Identity Scale, Social

Responsibility Scale and Satisfaction Scale were calculated (Table 4). Values motivation

was reported to be the most important motive to volunteer whereas career motive was judged to be the least important reason to volunteer.

Table 4. Descriptive Characteristics of the Scales

Scales	Range of Scores		M	SD
	Min	Max		
Values	6	35	30.90	4.03
Understanding	9	35	28.74	5.47
Enhancement	5	35	27.67	6.08
Career	5	35	19.64	8.56
Social	5	35	22.94	7.33
Protective	7	35	22.74	6.65
Sense of Community Scale	62	150	126.01	15.83
Role Identity Scale	8	25	22.41	2.65
Social Responsibility Scale	22	40	34.60	3.36
Satisfaction Scale	9	20	18.59	2.14

Note. N = 294

Psychometric Evaluation of Scales Used in the Study

Reliability and criterion-related analyses of the scales were computed to assess how reliable and valid the Turkish versions of the scales were.

Reliability Analyses of Scales

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to estimate the internal consistency reliability of the scales. The reliability analyses were computed with raw data obtained from 294 volunteers.

Each Volunteer Functions Inventory subscale had high internal consistency alpha coefficients (.70 to .89). Internal consistency reliability estimates for Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$) and Satisfaction Scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.76$) were adequate. However, Role Identity Scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.55$) and Social

Responsibility Scale (Cronbach's α = 0. 42) had low internal consistency reliabilities (Table 5).

Table 5. Reliability Coefficients of the Scales

Scales	Reliability Coefficients (α)
The Subscales of VFI	
Values	0.70
Understanding	0.83
Social	0.83
Career	0.89
Protective	0.79
Enhancement	0.83
Perceived Sense of Community Scale	0.92
Role Identity Scale	0.55
Social Responsibility Scale	0.42
Satisfaction Scale	0.76

Note. N = 294

Criterion-related Validity of Scales

Except Social Responsibility Scale, all the scales were measuring variables regarding volunteering experience so it was not possible to compare volunteers and non-volunteers in terms of the volunteering variables. However, Social Responsibility Scale allowed an analysis of criterion-related validity.

51 TEGV volunteers were given Social Responsibility Scale and the scale was also administered to 58 Psychology students in Bogaziçi University who had never done volunteer work and who were not volunteering at the time of the study. The gender and age distribution of non-volunteer group was comparable to the volunteer group. The data obtained from 51 TEGV volunteers were included in the rest of the analysis.

An independent samples t-test was computed to compare social responsibility scores of volunteers (N = 51) and non-volunteers (N = 58). As expected, volunteers scored significantly higher in Social Responsibility Scale ($M = 34.59$, $SD = 3.57$) than

non-volunteers ($M = 31, 90, SD = 3.01$), $t(107) = 4.28, p < .001$. So, it was concluded

that Social Responsibility Scale was a valid measure to assess social responsibility.

<u>Analysis of Study Variables in Relation to Demographic Variables</u>

In previous studies (e.g., Okun & Schultz, 2003; Wilson, 2007), gender, age,

education and work status had been demonstrated to be related to some of the variables

influencing volunteering behavior. So, gender and age were examined in regard to

volunteer motivations, and educational and work status groups were compared in terms

of amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV.

<u>Volunteer Motives in Relation to Gender</u>

A series of independent samples t-tests were conducted to see whether male and

female volunteers differed on six motivations of volunteering. Women scored

significantly higher than men on all motives; values, $t(93.90) = 3.66, p < .001$,

understanding, $t(116.88) = 3.57, p < .01$, enhancement, $t(292) = 2.43, p < .05$, career

$t(292) = 2.49, p < .05$, social, $t(134.47) = 3.50, p < .01$ and protective, $t(292) = 2.76$,

$p < .01$, motivations (Table 6).

Table 6. Comparisons of Male and Female Volunteers in terms of Volunteering
Motivations

Motivations	T	df	Female Volunteers		Male Volunteers	
			M	SD	M	SD
Values	3.66*	93.90	1.50	0.04	1.45	0.12
Understanding	3.57*	116.88	1.46	0.09	1.41	0.13
Enhancement	2.43**	292.00	1.44	0.11	1.40	0.15
Career	2.49**	292.00	1.26	0.22	1.19	0.25
Social	3.50**	134.47	1.35	0.17	1.27	0.20
Protective	2.76**	292.00	1.35	0.14	1.30	0.16

Note. N (Female) = 209, N (Male) = 85, * p< .05. ** p<.01

Volunteer Motives in Relation to Age

Bivariate correlation analyses were computed to determine the association between age and volunteering motivations. Age was not significantly associated with values, $r(292) = .01$, understanding, $r(292) = .04$, enhancement, $r(292) = .01$, social, $r(292) = .01$, and protective, $r(292) = .02$, motivations.

As expected, there was a significant negative correlation between age and career, $r(292) = -.21$, $p < .001$. For older participants, career was a less important reason to volunteer than younger participants.

Amount of Time Spent Volunteering in Relation to Work Status

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to see the effect of work status on number of hours donated to volunteering in TEGV in a week. One-way ANOVA yielded no significant differences between work status groups in regard to amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV, $F(4, 289) = 1.91$.

Amount of Time Spent Volunteering in Relation to Education

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to assess the effect of educational background on amount of time spent volunteering. One-way ANOVA revealed significant effect of education on amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV, $F(3, 290) = 3.10$, $p < .05$, partial $\acute{\eta}^2 = .03$, observed power = .72.

Post hoc comparisons using the LSD test revealed that high school group (including primary and secondary school graduates) ($M = .58$) were volunteering significantly more frequently than the university group ($M = .44$), $p = .011$. The pair-wise comparisons of other educational groups for hours spent volunteering did not reveal any significant relationships.

<u>Correlational Analyses of Study Variables</u>

Bivariate correlation analyses with Bonferroni correction which led to an alpha of .0006 were computed to examine the relationship among study variables and hence sustained volunteering in a broader sense (Table 7).

Contrary to hypotheses, none of the variables were found to be associated with length of volunteering and time spent volunteering in TEGV. In addition, the study variables were not found to be significantly correlated with past volunteering. Although bivariate correlation analyses demonstrated that sense of community and satisfaction negatively correlated with length of volunteering and social responsibility was positively correlated with past volunteering at the significance level of $p < .01$, these results were not considered reliable due to determining the significance level as $p < .0006$ by Bonferroni correction.

As shown in Table 7, some of the hypotheses were supported. Except values and career motivations, all the motivations were intercorrelated. The correlation between values and career motivations was not significant, $r(292) = .18$. The most highly correlated motivations were understanding and enhancement motivations, $r(292) = .72$, $p < .006$, whereas values and social motivations were the most weakly correlated motivations, $r(292) = .31$, $p < .006$.

Sense of community significantly correlated with all motivations except career motivation, $r(292) = .12$, and social motivation, $r(292) = .19$. Sense of community was also found to be strongly associated with role identity, $r(292) = .45$, $p < .006$, social responsibility, $r(292) = .43$, $p < .006$, and satisfaction, $r(292) = .48$, $p < .006$.

Contrary to expectations, volunteer role identity and past volunteering was not found to be significantly associated, $r(292) = .02$. However, volunteer role identity was

significantly correlated with all motivations except career motivation, $r(292) = .16$, and social motivation, $r(292) = .15$.

There was a significant association between volunteer role identity and social responsibility, $r(292) = .47$, $p < .006$, and satisfaction, $r(292) = .30$, $p < .006$, respectively. In addition, social responsibility and satisfaction was found to be significantly correlated, $r(292) = .27$, $p < .006$. As social responsibility was not significantly correlated with volunteer motives, satisfaction was correlated with all motives except values and career motives.

Table 7. Inter-correlations between Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Length of Volunteering	-											
2. Time Spent	0.08	-										
3. Length of Past Volunteering	0.11	- 0.09	-									
4. Values	- 0.18*	0.04	0.01	-								
5. Understanding	- 0.10	0.03	0.02	0.61***	-							
6. Enhancement	- 0.07	- 0.02	0.04	0.56***	0.72***	-						
7. Career	- 0.03	- 0.08	- 0.08	0.18**	0.48***	0.52***	-					
8. Social	- 0.03	- 0.10	- 0.02	0.31***	0.43***	0.56***	0.48***	-				
9. Protective	- 0.03	- 0.04	- 0.03	0.39***	0.55***	0.65***	0.48***	0.50***	-			
10. Sense of Community	- 0.17**	0.02	0.04	0.36***	0.44***	0.39***	0.12*	0.19**	0.32***	-		
11. Volunteer Role Identity	- 0.07	0.07	0.02	0.30***	0.42***	0.30***	0.16**	0.15**	0.32***	0.45***	-	
12. Social Responsibility	0.01	- 0.01	0.16**	0.19**	0.20**	0.09	-0.06	-0.04	0.03	0.43***	0.47***	-
13. Satisfaction	- 0.17**	- 0.02	- 0.04	0.19**	0.30***	0.31***	0.12*	0.21***	0.27***	0.48***	0.30***	0.27***

Note. N=294. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .0006$

Analyses of the Factors Predicting Volunteer Activity

To test the hypotheses, motives, volunteer role identity, sense of community, social responsibility and satisfaction were regressed on length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV.

The Effect of Study Variables on Length of Volunteering

A multiple linear regression was performed to assess the influence of six motivations of volunteering, sense of community, role identity, social responsibility, satisfaction and past volunteering on length of volunteering in TEGV.

When the variables were put into the multiple regression through step-wise method, the model was found to be significant, $R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 292) = 8.73$, $p < .01$. Sense of community was the only significant predictor of length of volunteering, $\beta = -.170$, $t(292) = -2.95$, $p < .01$. However, sense of community accounted for only 3% of variance in length of volunteering. The linear regression indicated that the volunteers who had been a TEGV volunteer for a longer period of time reported less sense of community than new TEGV volunteers.

The Effect of Study Variables on Amount of Time Spent Volunteering

A multiple regression was computed to examine how six motivations, sense of community, role identity, social responsibility, satisfaction and past volunteering behavior influenced number of hours spent volunteering in TEGV. All the predictors were entered simultaneously into the model. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the model was not significant, $F(11,282) = 1.03$. Contrary to hypothesis, none of the study variables predicted amount of time spent volunteering.

Analyses Related to Role Identity and Satisfaction

Besides examining the factors predicting volunteer activity in TEGV, volunteer role identity and satisfaction with volunteering experience were examined in relation

to study variables. Motives, sense of community and social responsibility were included in the study as factors. The variables predicting motives, sense of community and social responsibility were not investigated since the nature of the relationship between these variables and the study variables did not allow such an analysis. Therefore, they were only subject to correlational analysis.

Effect of Study Variables on Volunteer Role Identity

A multiple regression was conducted to assess the influence of six motivations, sense of community, social responsibility, satisfaction with volunteering in TEGV, and volunteer activity variables (past volunteering, length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV) on volunteer role identity.

When all the variables were entered with step-wise method, the model was found to be significant, $R^2 = .37$, $F(4,289) = 42.18$, $p < .001$. Understanding and protective motivations, sense of community and social responsibility were found to be significant predictors of role identity (Table 8) accounting for significant proportion, 37%, of variance in role identity.

Table 8. Results of Regression Analysis of Study Variables on Role Identity

Variables	B	β	t	Sig.
(Constant)	0.05		0.39	0.697
Understanding	0.12	0.20	3.34	0.001*
Protective	0.06	0.15	2.64	0.009*
Sense of Community	0.16	0.16	2.82	0.005*
Social Responsibility	0.46	0.35	6.72	0.000* *

Note. N=294, * $p < .01$. * * $p < .001$

Effect of Study Variables on Satisfaction

A multiple regression analysis was computed to examine which factors determine satisfaction with volunteering experience in TEGV.

All the study variables were entered into the multiple regression through step-wise method. The model was found to be significant, $R^2 = .25$, $F(2,291) = 48.01$,

p < .001. Enhancement and sense of community were significant predictors of satisfaction with volunteering experience in TEGV (Table 9), explaining a significant proportion of variance in satisfaction, 25%.

Table 9. Results of Regression Analysis of Study Variables on Satisfaction with Volunteering Experience

Variables	B	β	t	Sig.
(Constant)	0.29		2.79	0.006*
Enhancement	0.07	0.14	2.61	0.009*
Sense of Community	0.42	0.43	7.71	0.000* *

Note. N=294, * *p* < .01. * * *p* < .001

Summary of Results

Women were found to give more importance to volunteering motives than men. While career motive was negatively correlated with age, other motives of volunteering were not found to be related to age. In addition, high school group was found to be spending more time volunteering in TEGV than university group.

A significant correlation was not found between values and career motives while all other motivations were found to be correlated. Sense of community, role identity, social responsibility and satisfaction were found to be intercorrelated and they were also associated with most of motives.

Contrary to hypotheses, study variables were not found to be associated with time spent volunteering in TEGV and with previous volunteering activity. Only variable predicting length of volunteering was sense of community. Moreover, understanding and protective motivations, sense of community, and social responsibility were shown to be significant predictors of role identity while sense of community and enhancement were found to predict satisfaction with volunteering experience in TEGV.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The main aim of the present study is to investigate the factors playing role in

sustained volunteering. There is a broad range of studies on spontaneous helping

behavior, yet the number of studies on volunteering has increased only in the recent

years (e.g., Penner, 2002; Wilson, 2007), demonstrating the shift in importance

attached to volunteering. Volunteering can be considered both as a social and a

financial contribution to society and to non-governmental organizations as well. In

addition, it is an activity that enriches lives of volunteers and results in positive

personal outcomes such as enhanced self-esteem (Clary et al., 1998). These societal,

organizational and personal benefits of volunteering make it important to study the

variables leading to sustained volunteering activities.

Besides the importance of studying volunteering due to the reasons mentioned

above, the present study is also a contribution to volunteering literature since it is

carried out with Turkish volunteers. Although, volunteering has recently become an

important activity, there is still not much information on profile of Turkish

volunteers and on factors determining their volunteering behaviors (Boz & Serap,

2007). So, this study provides a profile of Turkish volunteers and determines the

factors determining volunteering acts of Turkish people.

Before discussing the results, a point related to the design of the study should

be clarified. Assessment of study variables longitudinally and observation of change

in importance given to those variables can be considered as the most reliable way of

analysis in volunteering studies including variables such as motivations (Clary et al.,

1998). However, in the present study, the study variables were not assessed over a

time period due to time constriction and due to the difficulty of keeping track of the

same volunteers. Considering high turnover in TEGV (50% annually), it has been believed that almost half of the participants will no longer be active TEGV volunteers at a second measurement of study variables. In addition, mobility of volunteers, working in different education units in Istanbul and time shifts in schedule will make it hard to reach the same volunteers. So, it has been concluded that the reliability of the analysis of the data collected at a possible second wave would be questionable due to small sample size.

Including volunteers, whose length of volunteering showed variations, into the study has been considered as allowing an analysis of comparing new and old volunteers in terms of study variables. It is assumed that the degree of study variables, such as sense of community, at initiation of volunteering for experienced volunteers had been similar to new volunteers' perception of these variables. So, the volunteers were not grouped as new and old volunteers, and length of volunteering in TEGV was treated as a continuous variable that allowed a more detailed analysis.

Another limitation of the study was the invariability of the amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV. In TEGV the schedule of the programs are fixed on 2 month activity period with attendance of 2 hours each week. Conducting many programs concurrently leads to allocation of more time to volunteering. However, since the attendance is required, volunteers may only conduct one program, making it less likely to spend more than 2 hours each week. 63.9% of the sample reported volunteering for 2 hours in a week that supports the general tendency regarding amount of time spent volunteering.

I will discuss the findings of the present study within the context of my limitations. Firstly, how conducting the study in a non-governmental organization such as TEGV working in the area of education may affect volunteering experience

will be discussed. The findings on demographic correlates and study variables will be discussed with regard to volunteering theories and studies. The specific features of the sample and the organization will be taken into account while discussing the effect of personal and organizational variables on volunteering processes.

Effect of Organization Type on Sustained Volunteering

This study is carried out with volunteers in Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey (TEGV) which has a system based on volunteers. So, commitment of volunteers to TEGV to a great extent is needed for the activities to be conducted timely and effectively.

Depending on the type of organization, the variables determining sustained volunteering and also the extent of those variables' effects on volunteering experience may differ (Celdran & Villar, 2007). The volunteering studies have been conducted mostly with volunteers working in organizations in which the volunteers have caregiver positions (such as AIDS, hospice or elderly-care volunteers) and serve mostly to adults (e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1999; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Ferrari et al., 2007).

TEGV as a non-governmental organization focusing on education ascribes different roles to volunteers than caregiver roles and TEGV volunteers do not conduct social activities with adults, but with children. So, it is reasonable to assume that volunteer work at TEGV is not as much exhausting (e.g., physically difficult or spiritually devastating) compared to other fields of volunteer work. These features of TEGV may not lead to reaching same conclusions derived from previous studies.

Effect of Demographic Variables on Volunteer Activity

Gender, age, work status and education were included in the study as demographic variables and examined in regard to volunteering variables. As these

analyses allow an analysis of demographic factors influencing volunteering, a profile of Turkish volunteers can be drawn from the data.

The number of female volunteers was three times higher than the male volunteers. 66.7% of the sample was under the age of 26 and the volunteers were mostly university students. These numbers are in line with TEGV's volunteer statistics so it can be argued that the sample represents TEGV volunteers and it can be concluded that TEGV volunteers are mostly female university students between the ages of 20 and 25.

Education and work status groups were examined only in relation to amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV. Since the present study was not a longitudinal study, examining these groups in terms of length of volunteering did not seem meaningful. Gender and age will be discussed in regard to volunteer motives later.

Work status groups were not found to differ in terms of amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV. As Role Overloaded Theory (Markham & Bonjean, 1996) argued, having more time in general might lead to spending more time volunteering. However, employed and unemployed were not found to differ amount of time allocated to volunteering. Composition of the sample, half of the sample being university students may account for not finding any differences across groups. Students may be unemployed but they may not have more free time than employed people. It can be argued that with regard to allocation of time in different life domains, studying or working does not affect amount of time allocated to volunteering.

Education was demonstrated to have an effect on amount of time spent volunteering in TEGV. It was found that high school graduates (including primary and secondary school groups) were spending more time volunteering than the

university group. Since educated people were argued to be more aware of the social problems and to have jobs, which provided civic skills needed in volunteering and which allowed more free time (Wilson, 2007), volunteering activities of the university group was expected to outperform the high school group.

The data does not allow seeing real educational differences among TEGV volunteers since the university group consisted of mostly university students and not university graduates. Yet, it should also be taken into account that university students may see volunteering as a temporary leisure activity conducted during university years and as an activity providing many benefits such as increasing career related opportunities. However, the high school group consisting of mostly older subjects may see volunteering as a long-term activity that is driven by different motivations than the university group such as helping others. The finding that the importance attached to career motivation decreases with age strengthens this proposition.

<center>Predictors of Sustained Volunteering</center>

Based on volunteering theories (e.g., Clary et al., Callero et al., 1987) and Sense of Community Theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986), volunteer motives, volunteer role identity, sense of community, social responsibility and satisfaction with volunteering experience were included in the present study as predictors of volunteer activity of TEGV volunteers.

<center><u>Volunteer Motives</u></center>

Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998) emphasizes motivations as important determinants of initiation of volunteering and as factors playing role in sustained volunteering (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Clary et al., 1998). Six motivations; namely, value, enhancement, understanding, social, career and protective motivations have been argued to determine volunteering processes.

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In the present study, values, enhancement, social, protective, understanding and career motivations were found to be strongly correlated as in previous studies (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Okun et al., 1998). Only values and career motives were not found to be correlated. Lack of correlation between values motive and career motive demonstrates that volunteers perceive these two motivations as conceptually distinct. In addition, it was not surprising to find out that understanding and enhancement were the most strongly associated motives since both of these motivations address self-oriented concerns (Clary et al., 1998).

Among six volunteer motives, values motive was demonstrated to be the most important motive to volunteer in many studies (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Papadakis, Griffin, & Frater, 1999) and the importance of altruistic motivations to volunteer were also observed in a sample consisting of Turkish volunteers (Boz & Serap, 2007).

Consistent with previous studies, values motive was rated by TEGV volunteers as the most important reason of volunteering in the present study. So, it can be argued that independent of cultural differences, altruistic motivations lead the individuals to initiate and sustain volunteering.

Career motive was reported as the least important volunteer motive. The nature of the activities in TEGV and the structure of the organization may not allow TEGV volunteers to meet people that will help career advancement. In addition, work done in TEGV, carrying out educational activities with children may benefit volunteers pursuing careers such as teaching, however volunteering activities might not be perceived by volunteers as a way of acquiring or practicing skills that might be needed in other kinds of jobs.

Volunteer Motives in Relation to Demographic Variables

Gender differences in terms of importance attached to motivations to volunteer have been found in various studies (e.g., Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Clary et al, 1998). For instance, in Papadakis et al.'s study (2004) women reported higher scores on values, understanding and enhancement motivations than men.

In the present study, women scored higher on all motivations than men. There was a general tendency for women to judge six volunteer motivations as important for volunteering. Traditional feminine stereotype; women being more altruistic, empathic, caring and expected to help others (Wilson & Musick, 1997), may account for women's higher scores on values motive.

Social Emotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999) proposes that with age, emotional goals such as having stronger social ties become more important than knowledge seeking goals such as being successful at work. In many studies (e.g., Bowen, Andersen, & Urban, 2000; Greenslade & White, 2005) social motive was shown as a more important function of volunteering for older individuals than younger individuals. In addition, career motivation was demonstrated not to be underlying volunteering behavior of elderly volunteers (Okun & Schultz, 2003; Penner et al., 2005).

Contrary to previous studies, social motive was not found to be related to age in the present study. Lack of relationship between age and social motive may be attributed to the composition of the sample, consisting of mostly university students. In previous studies (e.g., Okun & Schultz, 2003), the participants over the age of 55 were considered as elderly. However, in the present study only 1% of the sample consisted of volunteers over the age of 55.

As expected, age was found to be negatively associated with career motive; supporting Social Emotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen et al., 1999). The importance of career-related concerns to volunteers was observed to decrease with age even in a sample like the one in the present study, which was composed of mostly young people.

<u>Volunteer Motives in Relation to Volunteer Activity in TEGV</u>

Motives have been demonstrated to be associated with volunteer activity (Clary et al., 1998). Omoto and Snyder (1995) proposed that self-oriented motivations were more important determinants of length of volunteering than other-oriented motivations. However, values motive was demonstrated to be an important determinant of length of volunteering (Clary & Orenstein, 1991; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) and career motive was found to be negatively associated with length of volunteering (Finkelstein et al., 2005).

With regard to previous studies, it was hypothesized that volunteer motives would predict length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering. However, motives were not found to be associated with volunteer activity in TEGV.

Inconsistent findings with previous studies might have resulted from the design of the study. The fulfillment of personally important motivations was not assessed (Clary et al., 1998), so the motives leading to initiation of volunteering were not compared with motives which were influential after having been volunteering.

The type of volunteer work might account for not finding an effect of values motive on length of volunteering. The previous studies mostly were carried out with volunteers who had caregiver positions (Clary et al., 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998) so it might be more likely for these volunteers to have joined the organizations

due to altruistic reasons. In addition, the caregiver role might have enhanced values motive that had led the volunteers to maintain volunteering.

The nature of volunteer work in TEGV is completely different than other kinds of volunteer work. It can be argued that children are not as dependent on the volunteers as much as the beneficiaries in other organizations working with people infected by HIV or with the elderly. In addition, other motivations such as enhancing self-esteem or learning more about life may also be the dominant motivations for TEGV volunteers. So, TEGV volunteers might have reported all motivations almost equally important that might have caused the relationship between motives and volunteer activity statistically difficult to be specified.

Besides, effect of motives on volunteer activity might have been mediated by other variables such as volunteer role identity (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007). Understanding and enhancement motivations were found to be predictors of volunteer role identity so role identity might have mediated the effect of these motives on volunteer activity (Finkelstein et al., 2005).

In addition, sense of community may be a more important determinant of volunteer activity of TEGV volunteers than motivational factors as sense of community was found to be the only significant predictor of length of volunteering in the present study.

<u>Volunteer Role Identity</u>

Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999) proposes that role identity is shaped by social interactions and as volunteer role is internalized, the individual begins to act consistently with the newly developed role identity, hence engages in more volunteering activities.

Volunteer Role Identity in Relation to Volunteer Activity in TEGV

Volunteer role identity had been demonstrated to predict amount of time spent volunteering and future volunteering behaviors (Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). However, in the present study, role identity was not found to be associated with volunteer activity in TEGV.

Lack of relationship between volunteer role identity and volunteer activity might be attributed to Role Identity Scale (Callero et al., 1987). Number of scale items might not be adequate to assess volunteer identity.

Moreover, Role Identity Scale used in this study assesses general volunteer identity rather than specific role identity. Examining volunteer identity specific to volunteering in TEGV, which can be assessed with questions such as "Volunteering in TEGV is an important part of who I am."(Grube & Piliavin, 2000), may reveal a relationship between role identity and volunteering. However, to investigate volunteer identity in relation to variables such as satisfaction and motives, assessing general volunteer identity seemed more meaningful.

An important conclusion can be drawn from these results. The individuals may maintain volunteering in spite of not internalizing a volunteer identity and without developing specific feelings related to volunteering.

Volunteer Role Identity in Relation to Past Volunteering

Past volunteering was shown to be a determinant of volunteer role identity (e.g., Lee et al., 1999; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Past volunteering experiences have been argued to enhance commitment to the organization. In return, commitment increases the possibility of engaging in volunteering and internalizing volunteer identity.

In the present study, past volunteering was not found to have any significant effect on role identity. This might have resulted from small number of volunteers with previous volunteering experience. Only 17% of the participants had volunteered before being a TEGV volunteer and 244 of the volunteers did not have any previous volunteering experience. So, it might not be possible to specify the relationship between past volunteering and volunteer role identity.

Besides, past volunteering experience may not be comparable with the volunteering activity in TEGV in terms of nature of activities and structure of the non-governmental organization. These differences in volunteer work might have led to lack of association between past volunteering and volunteer role identity.

Volunteer Motives and Volunteer Role Identity

Penner (2002) integrated Functional Approach to Volunteerism (Clary et al., 1992; as cited in Okun & Schultz, 2003) and Role Identity Model of Helping Behavior (Callero et al., 1987) to explain sustained volunteering in relation to volunteer motives and volunteer role identity. This integrated model was applied in few studies. For instance, in Finkelstein et al.'s study (2005), role identity was demonstrated to be positively associated with values motive but negatively with career motive. In addition, role identity was shown to mediate the effect of motives on organizational citizenship behaviors (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004).

In the present study, volunteer role identity was found to be significantly correlated with all motivations except career and social motivations. Development of TEGV volunteers' role identity was not associated with career-related concerns and it was not shaped by others' expectations.

In regression analysis, understanding and protective motives were found to be significant predictors of role identity. Role identity was found to be correlated with

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values and enhancement motives as well as understanding and protective motives. In regression analysis the effect of values and enhancement motives might have been suppressed by other significant predictors; namely, by understanding and protective motives, sense of community and social responsibility.

The structure and field of work of TEGV may account for the effect of protective and understanding motives on role identity. Having continuous interaction with socially disadvantaged children in TEGV might have a soothing effect leading one to forget his personal problems as well as to deal with the feeling of being more fortunate than others.

The interaction with children requires communication skills and other skills that are specific to the activities and the continuous interaction with children brings about sharing their lives and knowing children. So, volunteering might be considered as a way of exercising life skills and learning more about life for TEGV volunteers.

Sense of Community

Sense of community can be defined as a feeling determined by being a member of a particular group and by feeling belonging to the group (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Sense of community in a group becomes stronger as group members share common goals, try to achieve these goals together, and, in addition, support and help each other. Friendly and supportive group atmosphere can be argued to enhance sense of community (Bishop, Chertok & Jason, 1997).

Sense of Community in Relation to Volunteer Activity in TEGV

There are few studies discussing sense of community in relation to volunteering. These studies have been conducted with neighborhood residents (e.g., Ohmer, 2007; Perkins et al., 1990; Pretty et al., 2003). It was emphasized that the extent of one's civic participation was related to the degree of sense of community

felt in the neighborhood and people volunteered to enhance welfare of their own communities due to having some degree of sense of community in the neighborhood. However, in the present study, how volunteering behavior was influenced by sense of community developed in a particular non-governmental organization was examined and sense of community was considered as developing simultaneously with continuous volunteering in the organization.

Among study variables, sense of community was found to be the only significant predictor of length of volunteering. Contrary to hypothesis, a negative relation was found between sense of community and length of volunteering in TEGV. Developing stronger sense of community in the volunteering context was expected to make the volunteer more likely to maintain volunteering behavior for longer duration since stronger sense of community in the organization would indicate that volunteers and employees of non-governmental organization worked together to achieve common goals and there was a supportive atmosphere in the organization.

The negative relationship between sense of community and length of volunteering might be attributed to the design of the study. Since it was not a longitudinal study, the change in degree of sense of community might not have been detected and the relationship between the variables might not have been specified.

Sense of community was also found to be a determinant of satisfaction with volunteering experience. Sense of community and satisfaction were found to be negatively correlated with length of volunteering at the significance level of $p < .01$ but this relationship was not found after Bonferroni correction. Although they were not taken as correlated variables, the negative association between satisfaction and length of volunteering can provide a different perspective.

As volunteers have more experience in TEGV, they may know the organization and the relationships between volunteers better. In addition, they may feel less satisfied with directors and policies of TEGV with time. Satisfaction with volunteering experience can be argued to affect degree of sense of community since items in Satisfaction Scale were also related to the structure and to the atmosphere of the organization. The variables leading volunteers to maintain volunteering in spite of not feeling strong sense of community should be clarified in further studies.

It should be underlined that volunteers may attach less importance to feelings of belonging to the organization or to harmony in the group with time. Volunteer role identity that was also predicted by sense of community might have been internalized. So, other factors such as volunteer role identity may play a more important role in determining length of volunteering service.

The strong relationship between sense of community and length of volunteering demonstrates that sense of community is an important construct that should be taken into account in volunteering studies. It is useful to adopt the approach posited in the present study, examining sense of community not as an antecedent of volunteering behavior but as a variable developing in a volunteering context and investigating sense of community in a relational group rather than a locally bounded group.

Contrary to Ferrari's study (2004), sense of community was not found to be related to amount of time spent volunteering. Having sense of community did not lead to spending more time volunteering. Lack of variability in amount of time spent volunteering or general tendency of 2 hours volunteering each week might have not allowed an analysis of the relationship between the variables.

In addition, the lack of effect of sense of community on amount of time spent volunteering can be attributed to volunteers' reporting only length of the activity

when asked to report how many hours they spent volunteering each week. There is a volunteer room in each learning unit of TEGV. It is observed that volunteers spend substantial amount of time together in volunteer rooms and spending time with other volunteers is an important part of their day in TEGV. Only volunteering acts were in the concern of this study. However, in further studies the frequency and length of interactions with other volunteers and employees can be taken into account as factors determining sense of community.

Sense of Community and Volunteer Motives

Sense of community was found to be significantly correlated with all motives except career and social motives. Volunteering to receive career-related benefits might be considered as contrasting with the mission of the group; the non-governmental organization, and as a factor destroying the group harmony.

It was reasonable not to find any relationship between sense of community and social motive since the expectations of people in the volunteer's existing social network, assessed by social function subscale (Clary et al., 1998), might not be considered as related to sense of community developed in the present group consisting of volunteers and employees of TEGV.

Sense of Community and Volunteer Role Identity

In previous studies, sense of community has not been assessed in relation to volunteer role identity (Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007). In the present study, sense of community was shown to be a significant predictor of volunteer role identity.

The feeling that one's group works to achieve common aims and that group members support each other leads to developing a volunteer role identity. So, sense of community developed in a non-governmental organization may affect future volunteering behaviors. This finding can be considered as an important contribution

to research on sustained volunteering since the effect of positive atmosphere in a

non-governmental organization may be transferred to other volunteering settings.

<u>Sense of Community and Social Responsibility</u>

Sense of community was found to be strongly associated with social

responsibility. As degree of social responsibility of the participants increased, they

reported stronger sense of community. Considering that being a volunteer in a non-

governmental organization is a socially responsible act and that volunteers mostly

share common goals such as supporting education system, it is reasonable to find a

strong association between social responsibility and sense of community**.**

<u>Social Responsibility</u>

Social responsibility has been emphasized as a helping disposition and mostly

discussed in relation to dependency of others on the help giver (Berkowitz &

Daniels, 1963; 1964). However, it has been rarely studied in regard to formal

volunteering (Berkowitz & Lutterman, 1968; Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

In Berkowitz and Lutterman's study (1968), the people with high scores on

Social Responsibility Scale were demonstrated to be more likely to have volunteered

than people with lower social responsibility scores. Social responsibility indicated a

general tendency to help others in the society and non-governmental organizations

focused on societal problems, so it is easy to link these two constructs.

However, social responsibility was not found to be related to volunteer motives

or length of volunteering in Omoto and Snyder's study (1995). In line with that

study, social responsibility was not found to be associated with volunteer motives

and volunteer activity. So, it can be concluded that having a helping orientation does

not necessarily lead to engaging in helping or volunteering acts (Omoto & Snyder,

1995).

Social Responsibility and Volunteer Role Identity

In the present study, it was found that social responsibility was a strong predictor of role identity and as degree of social responsibility increased, the strength of volunteer role identity increased. This finding does not necessarily indicate that for volunteer role identity to develop, the individual should be socially responsible. Volunteer role identity referring basically to identification with volunteering may be argued to include socially responsible orientation in itself since volunteering is a way of helping others. As volunteer role identity develops, people may be more likely to show socially responsible behaviors since they try to act consistently with the volunteer role identity.

As a personality characteristic, social responsibility has been demonstrated to be associated with spontaneous helping behavior (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963; 1964). In the present study, social responsibility has been shown to be related to volunteer role identity and to formal volunteering. So, social responsibility can be argued to be a factor influencing any type of helping behavior.

Satisfaction with Volunteering Experience

Satisfaction with volunteering experience has been examined in relation to many variables including motives (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Wisner et al., 2005) and sense of community (e.g., Ferrari, 2004; Ferrari et al., 2007), and emphasized as a determinant of length of volunteer service (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

Satisfaction and Volunteer Activity in TEGV

Satisfaction with volunteering was found to determine length of volunteer service in AIDS clinics (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Satisfaction was argued to enhance commitment to the organization and hence to result in sustained volunteering. With regard to social-psychological theories, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) argued that

length of volunteer activity was more likely to influence the extent of satisfaction associated with this activity rather than satisfaction was leading to engaging more volunteer activities. In addition, satisfaction was demonstrated to be associated with amount of time spent volunteering (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

In the present study, satisfaction was not found to be associated with length of volunteering and amount of time spent volunteering. Sense of community predicted both satisfaction with volunteering and length of volunteering, but these latter constructs did not have any association. Feeling belonging to the group and perceiving the group as supportive may account for volunteering behaviors of TEGV volunteers better than their satisfaction with how TEGV was managed. Satisfaction Scale (Wisner et al., 2005) consisted of mostly items assessing volunteers' satisfaction with the management of TEGV. The gap between these general feelings and actual volunteering behaviors may be too big to link them conceptually and assessing the relationship between satisfaction and volunteer activity may be statistically difficult.

Satisfaction and Volunteer Motives

Satisfaction was correlated with all motives except values and career motives. Satisfaction with volunteering experience was not found to be related to career related concerns. Volunteering for altruistic concerns was the most important reason to volunteer, but it was not associated with satisfaction with volunteering. The structure of the Satisfaction Scale (Wisner et al., 2005) may account for this finding. The scale assessing satisfaction consisted of items on satisfaction with TEGV personnel and politics of TEGV so the extent of satisfaction associated with the opportunities provided by the organization to help others had not been assessed.

Enhancement was found to be the only volunteer motive predicting satisfaction. As volunteers considered volunteering as a way of contributing to personal development and enhancing self-esteem, their satisfaction with volunteering experience increased. This might have resulted from the characteristics of the sample. The sample consisted of mostly university students who might have given more importance to making new friends in volunteering context and might have had more concerns related to personal development. The volunteers reported more satisfaction with volunteering when volunteering enabled them to enlarge their social network and enhance their self-esteem, and contributed their personal development.

Volunteering motives were not found to be related to satisfaction in previous studies (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Wisner et al., 2005) and lack of relationship was attributed to not assessing fulfillment of motivations (Clary et al., 1998). Although the present study did not examine how fulfillment of personally important motivations affected satisfaction, the results can be explained with regard to Volunteer Process Model (Synder & Omoto, 2001) arguing that three stages; at antecedents, experiences and consequences stages of volunteering were interrelated. The present study led partial support to Volunteer Process Model since enhancement motive, a variable at antecedents stage was found to be associated with satisfaction, a variable at consequences stage.

Satisfaction and Sense of Community

In the present study, rather than assessing the effect of mission, reciprocal responsibility and disharmony separately, sense of community has been assessed as a general feeling. With regard to the Perceived Sense of Community Scale (Bishop et al., 1987), this general feeling of belonging to the group, sense of community indicated stronger mission and reciprocal responsibility, and weaker disharmony in

the group. Ferrari (2004) demonstrated that as sense of community increased, caregiver satisfaction increased.

As expected, sense of community was found to be a significant predictor of satisfaction. As sense of community increased, the volunteer felt more satisfied with their volunteering experience in TEGV. Since the items of Satisfaction Scale (Wisner et al., 2005) emphasized management of TEGV and the support provided to the volunteers, it was meaningful to find sense of community, assessing mutual goals and social support in TEGV, as a determinant of satisfaction with volunteering experience.

<p align="center">Limitations and Future Directions</p>

There are several limitations of the present study and many conclusions can be drawn to be investigated in further studies. Firstly, the data was not collected longitudinally. Assessing the variables such as motivations and determining how importance of these variables change with time and affect volunteering behaviors should be studied in further studies. Fulfillment of motivations has been demonstrated as an important factor playing role in sustained volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). So, a study with a design allowing assessment of motivations longitudinally will be a better way of examining sustained volunteering. In addition, the limitation of lack of variability in the amount of time spent volunteering can be overcome with a longitudinal design.

In present study, motivations important for volunteers to maintain volunteering were not compared with motivations of non-volunteers to initiate volunteering (Papadakis et al., 2004) since some study variables such as sense of community were specific to volunteering experience. However, to fully understand mechanisms

underlying volunteering behaviors, adaptation of such an approach may be meaningful.

Besides investigating the effect of variables on volunteer activity, it is believed that how volunteering variables are related is important to be examined since these variables may interact to influence volunteering. In the present study, to provide a wider perspective on sustained volunteering, the effect of study variables on volunteer role identity and satisfaction with volunteering was examined. In future studies, the mediating of the effects of the factors may also be examined.

Sense of community (Ferrari, 2004) and social responsibility (Omoto & Snyder, 1995) have rarely been included in volunteering studies. However, this study emphasizes these two constructs as important variables for sustained volunteering. Sense of community is suggested to be treated not as an antecedent of volunteering but as a feeling developing with volunteering experience in the non-governmental organization. As non-governmental organizations are formed with clear aims and the volunteers share the mission of the organization, sense of community is believed to be a psychological construct needed to be examined in more volunteering studies.

Social responsibility as a helping disposition has been demonstrated to predict volunteer role identity. It can be argued that social responsibility, feelings of responsibility to the society, is more related to formal volunteering than other dispositional tendencies such as empathic concern or nurturance (Omoto & Snyder, 1995) since volunteers attempt to enhance welfare of the society by being a volunteer in a non-governmental organization. So, the relationship between social responsibility and volunteer activity and other volunteering variables such as volunteer role identity should be studied in more detail.

The effect of type of non-governmental organization on volunteering experience should be clarified in further studies since volunteers in different non-governmental organizations have different volunteering experiences (Celdran & Villar, 2007) resulting from nature of the volunteer work and from the structure of the non-governmental organization.

Finally, more volunteering studies assessing the factors underlying volunteering behaviors of Turkish volunteers should be conducted (Boz & Serap, 2007). Studying formal volunteering in Turkey may allow observing how the structure and work field of non-governmental organizations may be influenced by the culture and the problems specific to the society, and also determining role of cultural values and beliefs in initiation of volunteering and in sustained volunteering.

Conclusion

In the present study, sense of community was demonstrated to be an important determinant of length of volunteering. The aim of the present study was not only to examine the factors influencing volunteer activity, but also to investigate how these factors were related. It was believed that determining the variables predicting volunteer role identity and satisfaction with volunteering experience would provide a more detailed analysis of sustained volunteering since volunteer role identity and satisfaction were important constructs related to volunteering.

As some conclusions regarding the method or inclusion of variables such as sense of community and social responsibility could be considered as contributions to social psychology literature, another important contribution would be its emphasis on the need for more volunteering studies. In addition, this study underlies that Turkey lacks a volunteering research though volunteering has become part of the social system in Turkey. The volunteering studies that would be conducted in Turkey

should go beyond extracting Turkish volunteer profile, and examine the effect of variables specific to Turkish culture and also how mechanisms proposed to underlie volunteering behaviors in other countries operate for Turkish volunteers.

One of the main conclusions of the present study is that non-governmental organizations should provide a friendly and supportive environment for their volunteers. It is the experience, the satisfaction and the sense of community the volunteers benefit in the first place from volunteering. Therefore non-governmental organizations should prioritize those aspects of volunteering. Programs focusing on sense of community, volunteering context, satisfaction and volunteer role identity development can be implemented. In addition, non-governmental organizations with mostly young volunteers may focus on the ways of enhancing personal development of volunteers, satisfying their need to learn more about the world and exercise life skills, and to help them with their personal problems.

Volunteering is becoming an essential part of the social structure as more of the social responsibilities of governments are taken over by non-governmental organizations. It is of great importance that society perceives volunteering as a virtue each individual should possess. Social psychology research may help to increase the consciousness about the importance of volunteering. Within this context, it is believed that the present study is a contribution towards this end.

APPENDIX A

Bu anketler, gönüllülerin, gönüllü çalışmalarını sürdürmelerinde rol oynayan etmenler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak için hazırlanmıştır. Lütfen öncelikle anketlerin üzerindeki açıklamaları dikkatle okuyup hiçbir soru boş kalmayacak şekilde ve sadece tek bir cevap işaretleyerek anketleri cevaplandırınız. Anketlerin üzerine adınızı ve soyadınızı yazmanıza gerek yoktur. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. Anketlerden elde edilen sonuçlar Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Yüksek Lisans tezinde değerlendirilecektir. Araştırmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Anket No: ____

1. Cinsiyet: a) Kadın   b) Erkek

2. Yaş: ____

3. Eğitim: a) İlkokul   b) Ortaokul   c) Lise   d) Yüksekokul

e) Lisans   f) Lisans üstü

4. Çalışma Durumu: a) Öğrenci   b) Yarı-Zamanlı Çalışan

c) Tam Zamanlı Çalışan   d) Emekli   e) İşsiz

5. Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı'ndan önce, sivil toplum kuruluşlarında

çalıştıysanız gönüllü olarak çalışma süreniz ne kadardır?

____ yıl ____ ay

6. Ne kadar süredir Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı'nda gönüllüsünüz?

____ yıl ____ ay

7. Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı'ndaki gönüllü çalışmalarınıza haftada kaç saat

ayırıyorsunuz?

____ saat

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APPENDIX B

Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak (1= Hiç Önemli/Doğru Değil, 7= Çok Önemli/Doğru) ankette belirtilen nedenlerin gönüllü olarak çalışmanız açısından ne kadar önemli/doğru olduğunu değerlendirin.

Ölçek:

1 Hiç Önemli/Doğru Değil	2	3	4	5	6	7 Çok Önemli/Doğru

1	Gönüllülük istediğim işe girmeme yardımcı olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Arkadaşlarım gönüllü olarak çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	İmkanları benim kadar iyi olmayanlar için endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Çevremdeki kişiler gönüllü olarak çalışmamı isterler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Gönüllülük kendimi önemli hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Birlikte çalıştığım/okuduğum kişiler toplum hizmetine ilgi duyarlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Kendimi ne kadar kötü hissedersem hissedeyim, gönüllü olarak çalışmak sorunlarımı unutmama yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Yardım ettiğim topluluğu çok önemserim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Gönüllü çalışarak kendimi daha az yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	İşime ya da kariyerime yardımcı olabilecek yeni kişiler tanıyabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Gönüllü olarak çalışmak başkalarından daha şanslı olmaktan duyduğum suçluluk duygusunu biraz olsun azaltır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Gerçekleşmesi için çalıştığım amaçla ilgili daha çok şey öğrenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Gönüllülük kendime olan güvenimi arttırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Gönüllülük olaylara yeni bir bakış açısı kazanmamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Gönüllülük farklı kariyer seçeneklerini tanımamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Muhtaç kişilere karşı merhamet duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Yakın olduğum kişiler toplum hizmetine büyük önem verirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Gönüllü çalışmalar doğrudan deneyim kazanarak/yaparak öğrenmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Başkalarına yardım etmenin önemli olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Gönüllülük kişisel sorunlarımı çözmeme yardımcı oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Gönüllülük seçtiğim meslekte ilerlememe yardımcı olacak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Önemli bulduğum bir amaç için çalışabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Gönüllülük, yakınlarım için önemli bir etkinliktir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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24	Gönüllü olarak çalışmak dertlerimden uzaklaşmamı sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Farklı insanlarla nasıl ilişki kurabileceğimi öğrenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Gönüllülük bana ihtiyaç duyulduğunu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Gönüllü çalışmak kendimi daha iyi hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Gönüllü çalışmalarım işe başvururken iyi bir izlenim oluşturacak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Gönüllülük arkadaş edinmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Güçlü yanlarımı keşfedebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeği (1=Doğru Değil, 5=Tamamen Doğru) kullanarak Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı'nda (TEGV'de) birlikte çalıştığınız gönüllüleri ve TEGV personelini düşünerek, belirtilen yargıların bu grubu ne kadar doğru tanımladığını değerlendiriniz.

Ölçek:

1	Doğru Değil
2	Kısmen Doğru
3	Oldukça Doğru
4	Çok Doğru
5	Tamamen Doğru

1	Bu grupta görev bilinci vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Grup üyeleri gerektiğinde birbirlerinden yardım alabileceklerini bilirler.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Bu gruptakilerde birbirleriyle fazla yakınlaşmamaları gerektiği duygusu hakimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Bu grubun amaçları grup üyeleri için anlamlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bu gruptakiler birbirlerine güvenebilirler.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Grup üyeleri, diğer grup üyelerinden rahatça yardım isteyemezler.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bu grupta; ortak amaçlar için çalışıldığı duygusu vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Grup üyelerinin birbirlerini kolladıklarına dair bir his vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Grup üyeleri gerçek anlamda grubun amaçlarının ne olduğunu bilmezler.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Bu grubun amaçları üyeler için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Grup, üyelerin yardım etme isteğini arttırır.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Grubun ortamı biraz resmidir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Grubun amaçlarını gerçekleştirmek grup üyeleri için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Grup üyeleri birbirlerine yardım etmek için isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Grupta öne çıkan ve arka planda kalan belirgin gruplar vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Üyeler bu grup için yaptıklarına çok emek harcarlar.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Üyeler arasında arkadaşlık duygusu vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Toplantılarda bazı kişiler kendilerini dışlanmış hissederler.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Grubun üyesi olduğunuzda bunu bilirsiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Grup üyelerinin yaptıkları çalışmalar takdir görür.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Üyeler kendilerini gruba ait hissederler.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Toplantılarda rahat ve dostça bir ortam vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Grup, herkesin yetenek ve becerilerini kullanmasını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Birşey yapılması gerektiğinde bütün üyeler o işe sahip çıkar.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Bu grubun amaçları daha geniş bir kitle için anlamlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Üyeler grupta olanlar üzerinde eşit söz hakkına sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5

27	Grup üyeleri ortak değerlere sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Bu grubun üyesi olmak bir arkadaş grubunun üyesi olmak gibidir.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Grup üyeleri daha fazla sorumluluk almak için cesaretlendirilirler.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Üyeler arasında amaç birliği vardır.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıda yer alan ifadelere hangi oranda katıldığınızı ölçek yardımıyla belirtiniz.

Ölçek:

1	Hiç Katılmıyorum
2	Pek Katılmıyorum
3	Kararsızım / Fikrim yok
4	Biraz Katılıyorum
5	Tamamen Katılıyorum

1	Gönüllülük kim olduğumu tanımlayan önemli bir özelliktir.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Gönüllükle ilgili belirli duygularım yok.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Gönüllü olarak çalışmak nadiren düşündüğüm bir şey.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Gönüllü olarak çalışmayı bırakmak zorunda kalsaydım bu benim için bir kayıp olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Gönüllü olmak, benim için yalnızca TEGV'de gönüllü olarak çalışmaktan çok daha fazla anlam taşıyor.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıda yer alan ifadelere hangi oranda katıldığınızı ölçek yardımıyla belirtiniz.

Ölçek:

1	Hiç Katılmıyorum
2	Pek Katılmıyorum
3	Kararsızım / Fikrim yok
4	Biraz Katılıyorum
5	Tamamen Katılıyorum

1	Gündemdeki olaylar veya toplumsal meseleler için endişelenmek gereksiz. zaten bunlarla ilgili benim yapabileceğim bir şey yok.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Herkes şehrinin ya da ülkesinin yararı için bir şey yapmaya zaman ayırmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Seçimler bu kadar sık olmasaydı ve insanlar bu kadar sık oy vermek zorunda kalmasalardı ülkemiz daha iyi bir durumda olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Arkadaşlarımı hayal kırıklığına uğratmak o kadar kötü değildir çünkü her zaman herkes için iyi bir şey yapamayız.	1	2	3	4	5
5	İşini elinden geldiğince en iyi şekilde yapmak her insanın görevidir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İnsanlar diğer insanlardan uzakta yaşayabilselerdi ve hiç kimse için bir şey yapmak zorunda olmasalardı şu anda çok daha iyi bir durumda olurlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Okuldaki projelerde genellikle gönüllü olurum/olurdum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Yapacağıma söz verdiğim bir işi bitiremediğimde kendimi çok kötü hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıda yer alan ifadelere hangi oranda katıldığınızı ölçek yardımıyla belirtiniz.

<div align="center">Ölçek:</div>

1	Hiç Katılmıyorum
2	Pek Katılmıyorum
3	Kararsızım / Fikrim yok
4	Biraz Katılıyorum
5	Tamamen Katılıyorum

1	Genel olarak, gönüllülük deneyimimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	TEGV'in yöneticilerinden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	TEGV'in politakalarından (örneğin eğitim, yönetim, halkla ilişkiler, gönüllülük politikaları) memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
4	TEGV'in gönüllülere verdiği destekten memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5

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