

Motives for Event Volunteering: Extending the Functional Approach

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Abstract

This research addressed volunteering in the context of an international sports event. The functional approach assumes that matching volunteers' motives and environmental affordances predicts favorable outcomes. We tested this assumption with respect to event volunteering and proposed two additional motivational functions that may be served by event volunteering: good citizenship and excitement. The results show that the total match index (TMI) proposed by Stukas, Worth, Clary, and Snyder accounted for additional variance in satisfaction and the intent to volunteer again, above and beyond the variance explained by motives and affordances alone. Furthermore, beyond the TMI, matching the excitement motive accounted for additional variance in outcomes. The conceptual innovation of excitement as an intrinsic volunteer motive was supported by a theoretically consistent moderator effect: The association between autonomy and volunteer outcomes was stronger for volunteers with a high excitement motive. Theoretical and practical implications regarding the design of volunteer jobs are discussed.

Keywords

volunteerism, motivation, events, functional approach, self-determination theory

Volunteering is an area of increased political and scientific interest. Within the domain of psychology, several studies underlined the importance of matching characteristics of the volunteer environment with volunteers' motives (cf. Clary et al., 1998; Stukas, Worth, Clary, & Snyder, 2009; Tschirhart, Mesch, Perry, Miller, & Lee, 2001). However, these studies mostly applied to traditional long-term volunteering and did

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not address the phenomenon of episodic or event volunteering that is growing in popularity (Macduff, 2004; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). To bridge this gap, we studied event volunteering in the context of the 2008 European football championship, addressing volunteers' motives and—at a different time—the extent to which motives were matched by the volunteer experience.

We made use of the *functional approach* to volunteerism (cf. Clary & Snyder, 1999; Snyder, Clary, & Stukas, 2000). This framework has been productively applied to traditional forms of volunteering. In the present research, we pursued three specific goals. First, we tested the “matching hypothesis” postulating that the matched combination of motives and affordances of the volunteer environment particularly predicts favorable outcomes. Second, acknowledging idiosyncrasies of event volunteering, we suggested two motives: good citizenship (reflecting one's identification with the country or city) and excitement (reflecting the desire to experience something exciting and special). Third, we conceptualized excitement as a motive that is “intrinsic” to the activity itself. To support the validity of this innovation, we made use of *self-determination theory* (cf. Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In the following, we summarize the basic tenets of the functional approach and discuss specific aspects of event volunteering to propose good citizenship and excitement as additional motives. Subsequently, we introduce self-determination theory and present autonomy as a job characteristic that corresponds to the excitement motive.

Functional Approach: Matching Motives and Environmental Affordances

The functional approach proposes that individuals can adopt the same attitudes or be involved in the same activities despite the fact that these attitudes or activities might serve noticeably different psychological functions. Clary et al. (1998) identified a set of six primary motives of volunteers and developed the *Volunteer Functions Inventory* (VFI). This instrument differentiates between the six motivational functions that volunteering may serve: (a) *values*, expressing values that are personally important; (b) *understanding*, learning about the world, exercising skills; (c) *social*, strengthening one's social relationships, being concerned about social rewards; (d) *enhancement*, growing psychologically; (e) *career*, gaining career-relevant experience; and (f) *protective*, addressing personal problems, reducing negative feelings.

The VFI has been applied in a diverse range of studies, of which we can mention only a few. Volunteers' motives were associated with demographics (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996) and the frequency of past volunteering (Okun, Barr, & Herzog, 1998). The predictive validity of VFI dimensions was compared with antecedents suggested by the theory of planned behavior (Greenslade & White, 2005). In a study on hospice volunteering, fulfillment of all VFI motives except for the career function was positively associated with volunteers' satisfaction (Finkelstein, 2008). Furthermore, volunteer functions were differentially linked to the type of “psychological contract” volunteers have with their organizations (Liao-Troth, 2005) and to various constraints limiting volunteerism (Gage & Thapa, 2012).

The key proposition of the functional approach is that matching motives with features of the volunteer job is a crucial factor for success. The term *affordances* is used by Stukas et al. (2009) to characterize the opportunities and benefits a volunteer environment provides to meet volunteers' motives and expectations. Clary et al. (1996) pointed out that not all volunteer activities offer opportunities to meet every motive. Therefore, the functional approach suggests that "volunteers whose motivational concerns are served by their participation would derive greater satisfaction than those whose concerns are not met" (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 158). This matching principle shows some similarity to the person–environment fit (cf. Stukas et al., 2009), a concept broadly used in industrial and organizational psychology.

There is a broad range of studies in support of the matching principle along the volunteer process, that is, with respect to the recruitment of new volunteers, the choice between different activities, and the intent to continue volunteering. In response to persuasive recruitment messages, people show stronger motivation to start volunteering if the message is tailored to meet the specific motivational functions relevant to the individual (Clary et al., 1998; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994). Houle, Sagarin, and Kaplan (2005) showed that individuals preferred tasks with benefits that match their personally relevant motives. Several studies have demonstrated that volunteers' satisfaction and intent to stay with the organization increase if their tasks offer opportunities to fulfill their most important personal motives (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Several ways how to represent the matching between motives and affordances have been proposed (cf. Clary et al., 1998; Tschirhart et al., 2001). We made use of a parsimonious index introduced by Stukas et al. (2009): For every motivational function, each motive score is multiplied by its corresponding affordance score. The sum of these function-specific match scores—or univariate match indices—specifies the *total match index* (TMI). We expected that the TMI would also represent event volunteers' experience that their motives were met by the activity. Thus, we proposed the following:

Hypothesis 1: The TMI can explain additional variance in volunteers' satisfaction and the intent to volunteer again, beyond the variance explained by both the total motive index and the total affordance index.

The matching hypothesis is illustrated in Figure 1a. If volunteers experience their specific motives as being matched by the environment, this motive–affordance match should contribute to the prediction of favorable outcomes, above and beyond motive and affordance ratings alone. Stukas et al. (2009) argued that univariate match indices may "underestimate the potential predictive value of matching" (p. 9). Nevertheless, we additionally explored the predictive value of matches at the level of single volunteer functions and hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 2: Match indices with regard to single volunteer functions can explain additional variance in volunteers' satisfaction and the intent to volunteer again, above and beyond the variance explained by the respective motives and affordances alone.

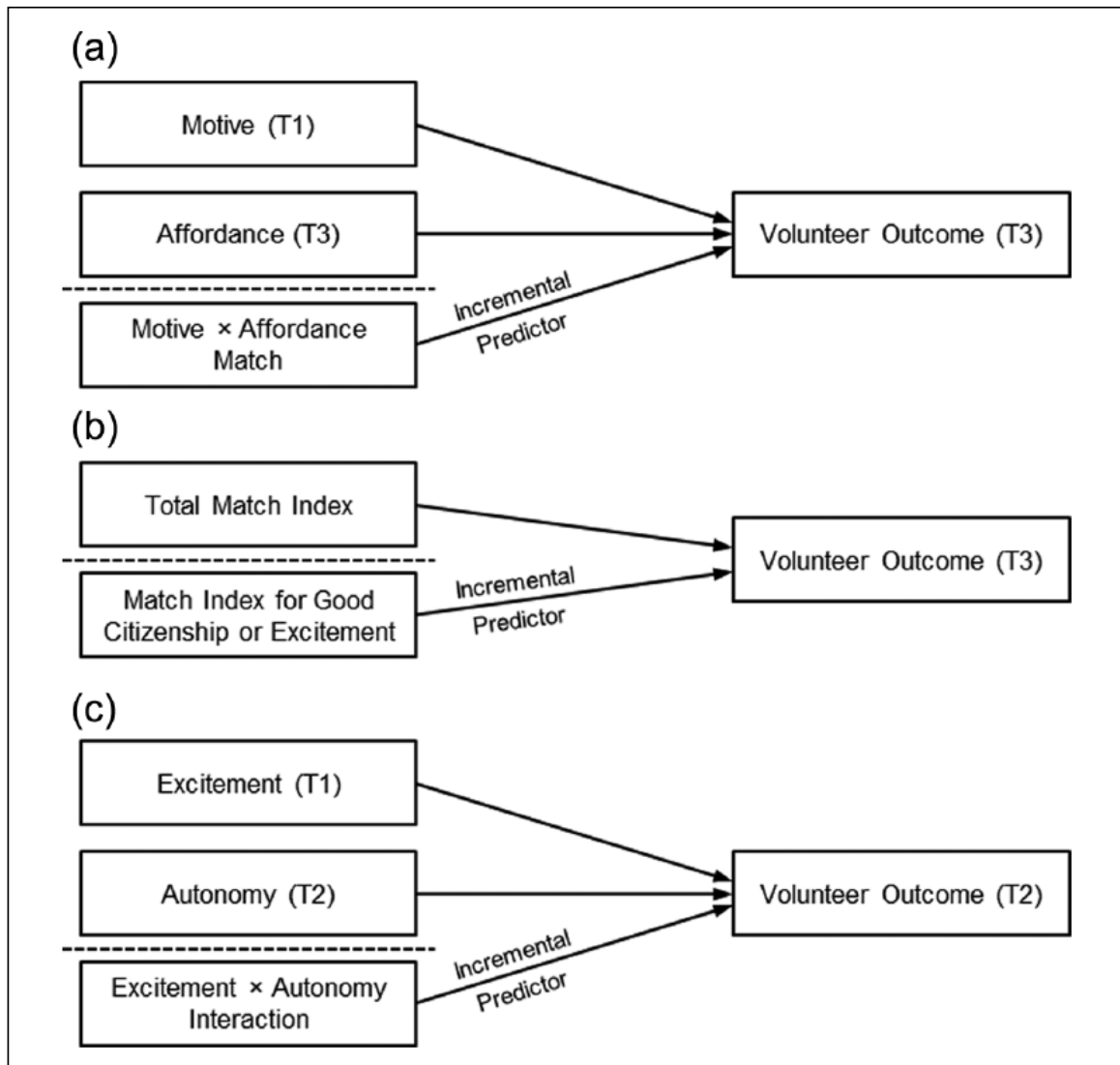


Figure 1. Conceptual figure illustrating Hypotheses 1-4. (a) Matching hypothesis in general (Hypotheses 1 and 2). (b) Good citizenship or excitement match index as incremental predictor (Hypothesis 3). (c) Excitement moderating the impact of autonomy (Hypothesis 4). Note. T1 = Time 1 (before the event), T2 = Time 2 (during the event), T3 = Time 3 (two weeks after the final).

Relevance and Idiosyncrasies of Event Volunteering

Research on volunteering largely relates to the traditional long-term “one-organization” form of volunteering and does not address the pluralism of volunteering (Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996). Among non-traditional forms of volunteering, such as stipended volunteering, employee volunteer programs, campaigning, or virtual volunteering, *episodic volunteering* has particularly grown in popularity (Handy, Brodeur, & Cnaan, 2006; Macduff, 2004). Episodic or event volunteers provide services that are either short in duration (i.e., temporary) or given at regular intervals for a short period of time (i.e., occasionally). The biennial surveys on volunteering in the United States

showed that the relevance of episodic volunteering increased over the 1987-1998 period; furthermore, 41% of all volunteering in the United States can be characterized as a sporadic, one-time activity (Weitzman, Jalandoni, Lampkin, & Pollak, 2002). Although there is less episodic volunteering in Switzerland, still 20% of all volunteers surveyed in 2010 characterized their engagement as temporary (Freitag, Stadelmann-Steffen, Traunmüller, & Gundelach, 2011).

Monga (2006) pointed out that “special events are characterized by festive spirit, uniqueness, tradition, hospitality, celebratory atmosphere, element of leisure, social, and cultural experiences, are of limited duration, and offer a special experience” (p. 51). Given these idiosyncrasies, Monga expected event volunteers’ motives to differ from the more altruistic motivation in traditional volunteering contexts. In congruence with this assumption, Handy et al. (2006) found that episodic volunteers at summer festivals were less likely motivated by other-serving than by self-serving motives.

Remarkably, there is no study applying the VFI as the most common instrument in assessing volunteers’ motivation to the emerging field of event volunteering. Previous research, using mostly customized questionnaires, described multiple facets of episodic volunteers’ motivation (cf. Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Green & Chalip, 2004). Based on a study on winter sport volunteering, Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) proposed a *Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale* (SEVMS), consisting of four factors: *purposive* (i.e., the desire to do something useful and contribute to the community and the event), *solidary* (i.e., incentives related to social interaction, group identification, and networking), *external traditions* (i.e., motivations related to family traditions and the use of free time), and *commitments* (i.e., incentives that link external expectations and personal skills with commitment to volunteering). Extending a facet of the SEVMS’s purposive factor, Monga (2006) introduced the “affiliatory” dimension, recognizing a “sense of affiliation with and attachment to the event or activity” (p. 51) as a motive for event volunteering. To capture the specific nature of international sporting events, Bang and Chelladurai (2009) included “patriotism”—the desire to express one’s pride in the country—as a potential motive.

Good Citizenship and Excitement as Motives for Event Volunteering

Clary et al. (1998) emphasized that “there will be circumstances where either fewer functions, or more functions for that matter, will emerge” (p. 1528). In the present study, we did not measure the protective function because we considered this motive to be of minor relevance in a short-term event-related type of volunteering. Instead, we addressed two additional functions to capture idiosyncrasies of volunteering at this event: good citizenship and excitement.

The *good citizenship* function can be regarded as a modification of the VFI’s values function. Values expressed by volunteering at this event may reflect the volunteers’ commitment to their community, region, or country. Bang and Chelladurai (2009) suggested that, in parallel to patriotism at the national level, volunteers’ attachment to the

hosting community can be a motive at the level of “local patriotism.” This motive shares similarity with the concept of “community concern” by Omoto and Snyder (1995, 2002). The psychological sense of community, however, is conceptually richer and does not necessarily refer to a geographically bounded area. Although we did not choose the label “good citizenship” for its legal meaning, but to express belonging and identification, Swiss citizens may rate this motive as more important than residents who are not legal citizens. In this study, we did not assess legal citizenship, but asked the participants to specify their favorite team at the championship.

The *excitement* function represents a motive we expected to be relevant in many types of event volunteering—and maybe even beyond. The motive refers to a desire for exciting, interesting, and extraordinary experiences during the event. This specific type of volunteering “offers people non-routine extraordinary and charismatic events . . . and opportunities for dramatic experience, activity and performance” (Roche, 2003, p. 110). Allison, Okun, and Dutridge (2002) found that 17% of all people volunteering at an organization that recruits employees for episodic volunteering in the local community reported an “enjoyment” motive when asked about additional motives beyond those assessed by the VFI. Williams, Dossa, and Tompkins (1995) reported that “being part of the action” was a significant motive for volunteers at a sports event. Similarly, “excitement” predicted volunteer commitment at the Olympic Games in Sydney 2000 (Green & Chalip, 2004). The excitement motive is also in line with a stronger focus on self-serving motives in episodic volunteers observed by Handy et al. (2006). Due to its focus on interest and involvement, the affiliatory dimension put forward by Monga (2006) shares some similarity with our proposition. However, the affiliatory dimension also captures aspects that rather refer to the expression of values (e.g., “This event is very close to my heart”).

We assumed that good citizenship and excitement represent motivational functions that can be served by event volunteering. Matching these motives should contribute to favorable outcomes beyond the effect of matching the “traditional” set of volunteer motives. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 3: Match indices with respect to good citizenship and excitement account for additional variance in volunteers’ satisfaction and the intent to volunteer again, above and beyond the variance explained by the TMI.

Figure 1b illustrates the assumption that univariate match indices for good citizenship and excitement, respectively, incrementally predict favorable outcomes.

Excitement as an Intrinsic Volunteer Motive

While good citizenship can be regarded as a specific type of the value-expressive function, excitement represents a motive that is conceptually distinct from the other volunteer functions. Contrary to the excitement function, all traditional VFI functions can be characterized as being instrumental to some goal external of the activity itself: the well-being of people in need (values), expanding one’s skills and knowledge

(understanding), strengthening one's relationships (social), career-related benefits (career), tackling personal problems (protective), and boosting one's self-esteem (enhancement). Instrumentality implies that the reasons for showing a certain behavior reach beyond the immediate experience of performing this behavior. In contrast, the desire to experience something exciting and extraordinary refers to aspects that are inherent in the activity itself; the goal of the activity cannot be separated from doing the activity. Within the framework of self-determination theory (cf. Deci & Ryan, 2000), the label "intrinsic" is used to characterize this quality of activity-inherent motivation.

Intrinsic motivation concerns "active engagement with tasks that people find interesting and that, in turn, promote growth" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233). Both experimental and field studies have shown that supporting autonomy is particularly important to protect intrinsic motivation (cf. Gagné & Deci, 2005). If the basic psychological need for autonomy is thwarted—for instance, by external control and lack of choice—people lose their interest even in those activities they used to enjoy. Given the link between intrinsic motivation and autonomy in self-determination theory, we suppose that autonomy—that is, the extent to which jobs allow freedom and discretion—is particularly relevant for volunteers who expect an exciting experience.

Previous research has documented the impact of autonomy on favorable volunteer outcomes. In a study by Dailey (1986), autonomy positively correlated with volunteers' satisfaction. Millette and Gagné (2008) found that autonomy was positively associated with satisfaction and performance rated by supervisors, and negatively associated with the intent to quit. Conversely, mandatory volunteering—representing a lack of autonomy at a more general level—undermined future intentions to volunteer for those students who experienced this requirement as controlling (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). Against the background of research on autonomy and intrinsic motivation, we hypothesized the following interaction effect:

Hypothesis 4: The excitement motive moderates the association between autonomy and both volunteers' satisfaction and intent to volunteer again, such that the stronger the excitement motive is, the greater is the impact of autonomy on both volunteer outcomes.

Figure 1c illustrates that Hypothesis 4 represents a special case of the general matching hypothesis. Autonomy is addressed as an environmental affordance that corresponds to the intrinsic motive of excitement.

Method

Participants and Procedure

At the 2008 European football championship, we invited 2,300 people volunteering in the German-speaking part of Switzerland to participate in an online study. As an important feature of this study, we separated the assessment of volunteers' motives and

environmental affordances. Motives were assessed before the event started—that is, independent of the actual fulfillment or frustration of these expectations. We expected that some benefits of volunteering at this event (e.g., making career-related contacts) might best be rated after the event. Thus, we decided to measure environmental affordances after the championship. Autonomy (among other aspects that were of particular interest to the organization) was measured during the championship; we assumed that volunteers could rate a job characteristic most appropriately when actually being involved in the activity. Consequently, data were collected at three times:

- Time 1: 1 week before the event started
- Time 2: during the event (i.e., 1 week after the event had started)
- Time 3: 2 weeks after the final

Participants were asked to choose a code, so that we could match the three measurements. The initial response rate was 38% (869 respondents). Of these 869 volunteers, 667 people (77%) returned to the second questionnaire. Finally, of these 667 volunteers, 491 (74%) also returned to the third questionnaire. However, only the data of 275 respondents could be matched because participants had either forgotten the code or given inconsistent information. There were no significant differences between the final sample ($N = 275$) and the “residual” samples at Time 2 ($n = 392$) or Time 3 ($n = 216$) with respect to any variable measured at Time 2 or Time 3. The final sample differed from the residual sample at Time 1 ($n = 594$) with respect to age and the percentage of retired people (to be presented below), and the career motive (cf. the “Results” section).

Fifty-three percent of the respondents were female. The mean age of the participants was 43.4 years ($SD = 15.7$). Fifty-seven percent of the participants were in gainful employment, 22% were retired, 2% were unemployed, 11% were attending a school or university, and 8% specified their primary activity as family care. Forty percent of the participants indicated that, beyond their event volunteering, they were also engaged as volunteers for some type of organization or initiative. Furthermore, we asked the participants to name their favorite team at the championship. Switzerland was specified by 65% of the participants, whereas 25% favored a foreign team. The percentage of retired people was higher in the final than in the residual sample (14%), $\chi^2(1) = 8.82, p < .01$; correspondingly, the mean age was higher in the final than in the residual sample ($M = 41.3$ years, $SD = 15.6$), $t(861) = 2.17, p = .03$. Demographics and the volunteers’ favorite team were assessed at Time 1.

Measures

Volunteer functions. At Time 1, participants responded to a questionnaire that contained the adapted set of volunteer functions. Except for the protective function, we measured all functions described by Clary et al. (1998), using the German version of the VFI (Oostlander, Güntert, van Schie, & Wehner, 2014). However, to reduce the length of the survey, we left out several items that had either shown poor psychometric properties or did not fit properly to the context of this event. In the appendix,

a principal-axis factor analysis of 26 items measuring seven volunteer functions is presented. Six factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounted for 65% of common variance. The three values item did not establish a separate factor and formed a scale with only moderate internal consistency (cf. Table 1). Omitting the items “My friends volunteer” and “Volunteering is a way to make new friends” noticeably improved the internal consistency of the scales measuring the social and enhancement function, respectively.

Consequently, four items measured the career function. Understanding, social, values, and enhancement were each measured by three items. The newly added good citizenship and excitement functions were measured using three and five items, respectively. All items were rated on a seven-point scale (1 = *not at all important* and 7 = *very important*).

Autonomy. At Time 2, autonomy was assessed using the three items of the *Job Diagnostic Survey* (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Two items (“The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work” and “The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work,” reversed scoring) were rated on a scale from 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*). The third item was presented as a question (“How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing your work?”), answered on a seven-point scale with anchors at its middle (“moderate autonomy”) and ends (“very little” and “very much,” respectively).

Affordances. At Time 3, volunteers were asked to rate affordances of their volunteer jobs. Affordances with respect to each volunteer function were tapped on the item level by reformulating each motive item into a corresponding affordance item. Sample items were as follows: understanding (“I had the opportunity to explore my own strengths”), career (“I had the opportunity to make new contacts that might help my business or career”), social (“People I know shared my interest in volunteering”), values (“I had the opportunity to help other people”), enhancement (“Volunteering made me feel better about myself”), good citizenship (“Volunteering helped that my country/city was seen as a good host”), and excitement (“Volunteering at this event, I experienced something exciting”). The affordance items were rated on a seven-point scale (1 = *not at all accurate*, 7 = *extremely accurate*).

Satisfaction. We measured satisfaction at both Time 2 and Time 3. The item “How satisfied are you, overall, with your volunteer activity?” using a five-point scale (1 = *very dissatisfied* and 5 = *very satisfied*) was combined with four items—“I experience this activity as rewarding,” “. . . as satisfying,” “. . . as enjoyable,” and “I am satisfied with my volunteer tasks”—also rated on a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*).

Intent to volunteer again. At both Time 2 and Time 3, the intent to volunteer again was measured with the single item “I would join as a volunteer again,” rated on a five-point

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations and Internal Consistency for All Variables.

Variable	M	SD	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Motives (T1)																					
1. Understanding	4.53	1.28	3	.75																	
2. Career	3.37	1.45	4	.61	.80																
3. Social	3.73	1.44	3	.42	.31	.83															
4. Values	4.85	1.10	3	.45	.27	.56	.61														
5. Enhancement	3.72	1.54	3	.55	.48	.47	.52	.83													
6. Good citizenship	5.24	1.28	3	.32	.18	.29	.53	.43	.80												
7. Excitement	5.70	0.95	5	.33	.28	.13	.34	.29	.24	.83											
Affordances (T3)																					
8. Understanding	4.26	1.38	3	.55	.31	.37	.42	.41	.27	.22	.81										
9. Career	3.15	1.26	4	.53	.56	.29	.37	.41	.24	.24	.67	.80									
10. Social	4.17	1.30	3	.30	.20	.46	.42	.34	.32	.23	.52	.49	.79								
11. Values	5.04	1.02	3	.32	.20	.25	.49	.34	.34	.23	.63	.55	.59	.69							
12. Enhancement	4.46	1.27	3	.42	.30	.32	.46	.59	.41	.22	.65	.59	.53	.69	.81						
13. Good citizenship	5.34	1.11	3	.28	.17	.24	.46	.34	.54	.26	.46	.43	.41	.66	.63	.80					
14. Excitement	5.43	1.11	5	.29	.11	.22	.36	.26	.23	.33	.66	.48	.49	.68	.69	.56	.89				
15. Autonomy (T2)	4.26	1.51	3	.19	.12	.17	.22	.18	.15	.10	.38	.26	.24	.35	.32	.25	.30	.82			
Outcomes																					
16. Satisfaction (T2)	3.71	0.90	5	.20	.07	.17	.26	.23	.17	.17	.50	.34	.32	.47	.48	.37	.55	.50	.90		
17. Intent to vol. again (T2)	4.11	1.02	1	.18	.13	.11	.18	.17	.01	.07	.31	.28	.20	.37	.35	.29	.35	.34	.64	—	
18. Satisfaction (T3)	3.71	0.89	5	.26	.10	.20	.30	.26	.18	.16	.64	.52	.46	.68	.66	.50	.75	.44	.71	.50	.90
19. Intent to vol. again (T3)	4.06	0.99	1	.17	.10	.06	.20	.12	.08	.07	.44	.35	.26	.49	.48	.41	.52	.29	.52	.68	.60

Note. All measures were on a scale from 1 to 7, except for Measures 16 to 19, which are on a scale from 1 to 5. Cronbach's coefficient α is displayed in the diagonal. Level of significance concerning the correlations: $p < .05$, if $.12 \leq \text{abs}(r) \leq .15$; $p < .01$, if $\text{abs}(r) \geq .16$. N = 275. T1 = Time 1 (before the event); T2 = Time 2 (during the event); T3 = Time 3 (2 weeks after the final); vol. = volunteer.

scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*). Although it is unlikely that this specific event will be held again in Switzerland, the organization in charge of recruiting and training the volunteers was involved in a broad range of sports and organized similar events occurring more frequently.

Statistical Analyses

All hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analysis. This method examines if a certain variable significantly adds to the prediction of an outcome variable, beyond a given set of predictors. In this study, we specifically tested if the TMI and function-specific match indices significantly increased the amount of variance explained in volunteer outcomes, above and beyond the respective motive and affordance scores (Hypotheses 1 and 2). Figure 1 illustrates that the same rationale applies to Hypothesis 3 (i.e., univariate match indices as incremental predictors beyond the TMI) and Hypothesis 4 (i.e., the Excitement \times Autonomy interaction as an incremental predictor beyond the effects of excitement and autonomy alone).

Autonomy was measured at Time 2, and function-specific affordances at Time 3. Outcome variables were assessed both at Time 2 and Time 3. Therefore, we used Time 2 outcome measurements for testing the Excitement \times Autonomy interaction, and Time 3 outcome measurements for testing the motive–affordance match.

Results

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of all variables are presented in Table 1. Excitement, good citizenship, and values were rated as the most relevant motivational functions. The newly introduced motives were significantly related to demographic variables. First, the excitement motive showed a negative correlation with age, $r = -.30$, $p < .01$. Second, the good citizenship function was associated with team preference: Participants whose favorite team was Switzerland rated good citizenship higher ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.18$) than people who favored a foreign team ($M = 4.86$, $SD = 1.40$), $t(244) = 3.20$, $p < .01$.

Only with respect to the career function, the final sample differed significantly from those participants who answered the first questionnaire, but either did not participate subsequently or could not be matched based on the code provided. The relevance of the career motive was lower in the final sample ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.45$) than in the residual sample at Time 1 ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.48$), $t(867) = 2.10$, $p = .04$. This finding aligned with the higher percentage of retired people in the final sample.

Matching Motives and Affordances (Hypotheses 1 and 2)

Utilizing the procedure introduced by Stukas et al. (2009), we calculated match indices for each pair of motivational function and affordance by multiplying the corresponding scores. Consequently, univariate match index scores ranged from 1 to 49. We formed the TMI by summing up the match indices for those five functions that were suggested by Clary et al. (1998) and also addressed in this study. We restricted the TMI

to the “traditional” volunteer functions to test whether matching the motives of good citizenship or excitement additionally explained variance in volunteer outcomes beyond the variance explained by the TMI (see Hypothesis 3). Corresponding to the TMI, we formed a total motive score and a total affordance score for the five traditional functions.

The TMI was positively related to satisfaction, $r = .56, p < .01$, and intent to volunteer again, $r = .37, p < .01$ (both outcomes measured at Time 3). The total motive score and the total affordance score predicted volunteers’ satisfaction, $R^2 = .556, F(2, 272) = 169.99, p < .01$; the TMI added to this prediction, $R^2 = .569, \Delta R^2 = .013, F(1, 271) = 8.24, p < .01$. With respect to the intent to volunteer again, the total motive score and the total affordance score accounted for 26.9% of variance, $F(2, 272) = 50.05, p < .01$; the unique variance additionally explained by the TMI was only marginally significant, $R^2 = .277, \Delta R^2 = .008, F(1, 271) = 2.85, p = .09$. Taken together, Hypothesis 1 was supported with regard to satisfaction, but only marginally supported with regard to the intent to volunteer again.

Subsequently, we tested if function-specific match indices additionally explained variance in volunteer outcomes, above and beyond the respective univariate motive and affordance scores. Although all of the seven univariate match indices were positively related to satisfaction and intent to volunteer again, the amount of incrementally explained variance was often not significant (see Table 2). Only the understanding match index accounted for additional variance in both satisfaction and intent to volunteer again. The match indices for the enhancement and the newly introduced good citizenship function additionally explained variance in volunteers’ satisfaction. Taken together, Hypothesis 2 is only partially supported.

Good Citizenship and Excitement Match Indices as Incremental Predictors (Hypothesis 3)

We hypothesized that match indices for good citizenship and excitement explained additional variance in volunteer outcomes beyond the variance predicted by the TMI. This was true for the excitement motive, with respect to both satisfaction, $R^2 = .424, \Delta R^2 = .107, F(1, 272) = 50.74, p < .01$, and intent to volunteer again, $R^2 = .183, \Delta R^2 = .049, F(1, 272) = 16.16, p < .01$. However, the good citizenship match index did not explain unique variance beyond the TMI, with regard to satisfaction, $R^2 = .320, \Delta R^2 = .003, F(1, 272) = 1.28, p = .26$, or intent to volunteer again, $R^2 = .138, \Delta R^2 = .003, F(1, 272) = 0.95, p = .33$. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was supported for excitement, but not for good citizenship.

The Excitement Motive Moderating the Impact of Autonomy (Hypothesis 4)

The job characteristic autonomy was positively associated with satisfaction, $r = .50, p < .01$, and intent to volunteer again, $r = .34, p < .01$ (both outcomes measured at Time

Table 2. Satisfaction and Intent to Volunteer Again Regressed on Motives, Affordances, and Match Indices With Regard to Seven Volunteer Functions.

Outcome/predictor	β						
	UN	CA	SO	VA	EN	GC	EX
Satisfaction							
<i>r</i> (satisfaction, match index)	.54**	.36**	.37**	.56**	.47**	.39**	.60**
Step 1							
Motive score	-.46**	-.44**	-.27	-.33	-.55**	-.70**	-.32†
Affordance score	.33*	.51**	.28*	.45*	.55**	.08	.51*
R ²	.420**	.326**	.208**	.467**	.462**	.257**	.575**
Step 2							
Match index	.63*	.30	.39	.47	.53*	.94**	.41
R ²	.434**	.331**	.215**	.471**	.471**	.276**	.577**
R ² increment	.013*	.005	.007	.004	.009*	.019**	.002
Intent to volunteer again							
<i>r</i> (intent, match index)	.37**	.24**	.19**	.40**	.30**	.27**	.40**
Step 1							
Motive score	-.49**	-.05	-.42*	-.37	-.50*	-.50*	-.31
Affordance score	.04	.52**	.05	.23	.47**	.27	.32
R ²	.197**	.136**	.075**	.239**	.272**	.197**	.288**
Step 2							
Match index	.75*	-.17	.52†	.53	.37	.48	.36
R ²	.216**	.137**	.087**	.244**	.276**	.202**	.289**
R ² increment	.019*	.001	.012†	.005	.005	.005	.002

Note. Satisfaction and the intent to volunteer again were assessed at Time 3 (two weeks after the final). $N = 275$. UN = understanding; CA = career; SO = social; VA = values; EN = enhancement; GC = good citizenship; EX = excitement. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

2). Autonomy was introduced as an affordance corresponding to the activity-inherent excitement motive. Consequently, we hypothesized that excitement would moderate autonomy's impact on volunteer outcomes: Autonomy should affect outcomes more strongly if volunteers emphasize the excitement motive. To test this assumption, we formed an interaction score by centering and multiplying the scores for excitement and autonomy (cf. Aiken & West, 1991). The Excitement \times Autonomy interaction significantly increased the amount of variance explained in both outcomes (see Table 3).

The higher the volunteer's interaction score, the higher his or her level of satisfaction and intent to volunteer again. Considering how the interaction term is formed helps interpreting this result. Two groups of participants showed higher interaction scores and, in turn, higher levels of favorable outcomes: (a) Volunteers with above-average ratings on both autonomy and excitement were able to enjoy their activity-inherent motive and (b) volunteers with below-average ratings on both autonomy and excitement were less frustrated by the low level of autonomy. Figures 2 and 3 show that, for volunteers scoring high on the excitement motive, the extent to which autonomy was granted or denied had a stronger impact on both outcomes.

Table 3. The Impact of Autonomy on Outcomes Moderated by the Excitement Motive.

Predictor	Satisfaction		Intent to volunteer again	
	R^2	β	R^2	β
Step 1	.269**		.118**	
Excitement		.12*		.03
Autonomy		.49**		.34**
Step 2	.282**		.131**	
Excitement \times Autonomy		.12*		.12*
R^2 increment	.013*		.013*	

Note. Satisfaction and intent to volunteer again were assessed at Time 2 (during the event). $N = 275$.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

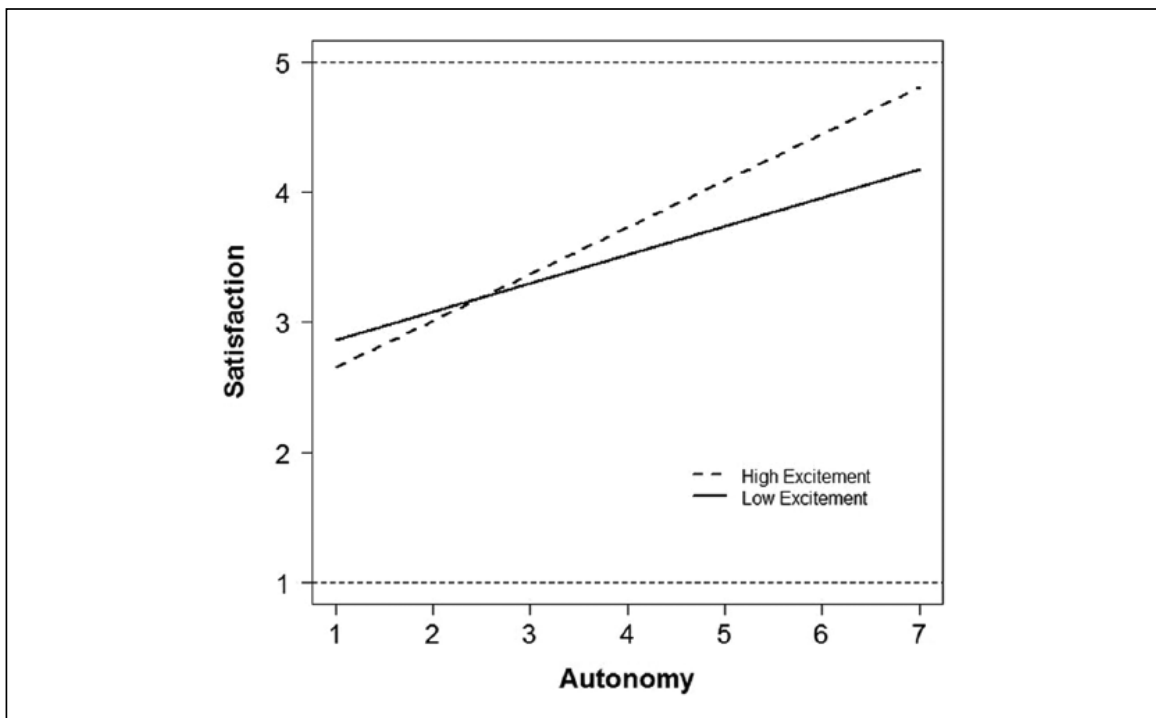


Figure 2. The relation between autonomy and satisfaction for volunteers with high versus low excitement motive. High excitement = $M + 1 \times SD$, low excitement = $M - 1 \times SD$.

Discussion

Although some researchers have identified a trend toward more temporary forms of volunteering, most research on volunteering has focused on long-term engagement. In this study, we addressed event-related volunteering in the context of the 2008 European football championship as a specific type of short-term volunteering. In the following,

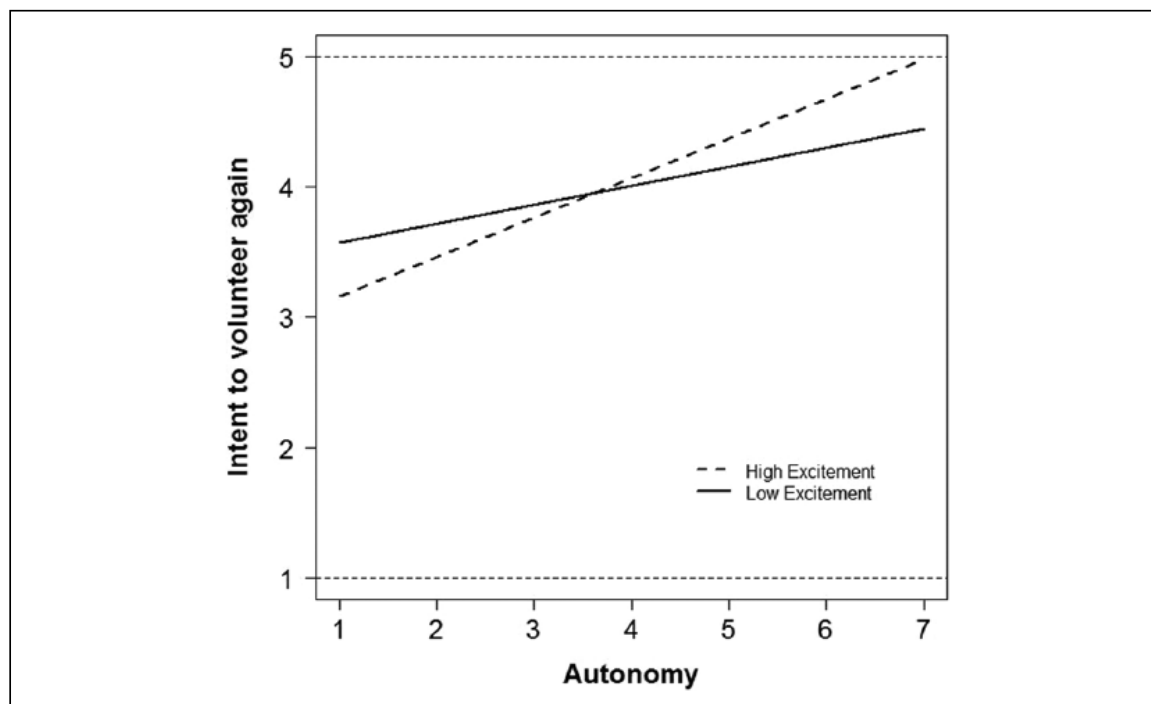


Figure 3. The relationship between autonomy and intent to volunteer again for volunteers with high versus low excitement motive. High excitement = $M + I \times SD$, low excitement = $M - I \times SD$.

we review this study's contributions, before we address limitations and theoretical implications, outline perspectives for future research, and discuss the practical significance of our findings.

Contributions of the Present Research

The present study makes three major contributions to the research on volunteering. First, we tested the matching hypothesis in the context of event volunteering. The functional approach posits that environmental affordances gain or lose their impact on outcomes dependent on volunteers' motives. Stukas et al. (2009) introduced the TMI as a parsimonious index summarizing this idea. The TMI, based on the five VFI dimensions addressed in the present research, predicted unique variance in volunteers' satisfaction after controlling for the effects of motives and affordances alone. However, with respect to the intent to volunteer again, the increment in explained variance was only marginally significant. We suggest that some volunteers who were exclusively interested in football might have found it difficult considering any other future event as similar to this championship. Only for some relationships, univariate match indices (addressing single volunteer functions) incrementally predicted outcomes. This finding aligns with the assumption that "aggregating matches across motivations ensures that volunteers are 'given credit' for their successful experiences in a way that choosing any single motivational category might miss" (Stukas et al., 2009, p. 23).

Second, we proposed two volunteer functions—good citizenship and excitement—in addition to the set of motives measured by the VFI. Good citizenship and excitement were the two motives that volunteers rated highest in personal relevance. Stukas et al. (2009) showed that, in general, the TMI was a better predictor than any function-specific match index. Therefore, analyzing whether a single univariate match index accounted for unique variance beyond the TMI implied a rigorous test of this specific function's relevance. The good citizenship match index did not predict unique variance beyond the TMI. The excitement match index, however, predicted both satisfaction and intent to volunteer again after controlling for the TMI.

Third, we considered autonomy as an environmental affordance corresponding to the excitement function. Our hypothesis that excitement would moderate autonomy's impact on volunteer outcomes was confirmed. This result supports the validity of the excitement function as an activity-inherent or intrinsic motive. Autonomy showed remarkably strong associations with volunteers' satisfaction and intent to volunteer again. This finding lines up with previous research that demonstrated the impact of an autonomy-supportive work climate on volunteers' self-determined motivation (Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2012; Oostlander, Güntert, van Schie, & Wehner, 2013).

Limitations

We recognize a number of limitations of the present study. First, affordances and outcomes were measured at the same time (i.e., after the final). Similarly, both autonomy and outcomes were assessed during the event. Measurements from the same questionnaire raise the issue of common method variance; the relationships might be misrepresented, potentially overestimated. Although it represents the strength of this study that motives and affordances were measured at separate times, future research may also separate affordance and outcome ratings by introducing an additional measurement point. Nevertheless, the key analyses do not focus on main effects of affordances and autonomy, but on interaction effects—between motives and affordances, and excitement and autonomy, respectively. Siemsen, Roth, and Oliveira (2010) showed that common method variance tends to reduce estimated interaction effects. On the contrary, confirming an interaction effect—despite potential impact of common method variance—strongly supports the interaction hypothesis.

Second, this study relied exclusively on self-reported data. Future studies should try to assess sustained effects on actual retention, that is, the extent to which event volunteers either get involved again at similar future events or take up long-term volunteering for organizations. Furthermore, performance ratings by supervisors or beneficiaries may complement the set of outcomes—at least with respect to selected volunteer tasks.

Third, the VFI was not applied in its complete version. The protective function was left out and the remaining functions were measured by a reduced set of items. Consequently, the TMI formed in this study does not correspond to the TMI as it was suggested by Stukas et al. (2009). However, despite the fact that we used a short

version, the VFI was confirmed as a sound instrument for assessing volunteers' motives in a context other than traditional long-term engagement. Environmental affordances and motives were measured by the same number of items. Although this operationalization deviates from the two-item scales presented by Stukas et al., we recommend this extension because it substantially increased the internal consistency of the affordance scales.

Theoretical Implications: Expanding the Set of Volunteer Functions

The six volunteer functions comprised by the VFI do not represent a fixed set of motives. For the specific type of event volunteering addressed in this research, we suggested two additional functions: good citizenship and excitement. The good citizenship motive—addressing values such as patriotism and hospitality—can be regarded as a special instance or a subcategory of the values function. Two of the VFI's values items were left out in the present study: "I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself" and "I feel compassion toward people in need." Some respondents may interpret these items as statements about their personal attitudes in general. We suggest that the measurement of the values function should be extended whenever these values may relate to a cause other than the well-being of people in need. In other volunteering contexts, the cause of one's volunteering might be associated with the preservation of endangered species, the concern for one's community (cf. Omoto & Snyder, 1995, 2002), or the maintenance of cultural traditions. Adhering to the original VFI values items could underestimate the relevance of values as a motive for volunteering.

Excitement addresses an aspect of volunteer motivation that might be relevant in other types of short-term or project-related volunteering as well. Labeling this motive as "intrinsic," we suggested that one's volunteering does not have to imply any instrumental value for some goal that can be separated from the activity itself. The opportunity to engage in an interesting, exciting, entertaining activity may suffice as a reason for volunteering. It might be premature to suggest excitement as an important motive beyond the context of an "exciting" event such as a football championship. However, there are intrinsic qualities of volunteering in general that may function as a motive for taking up the activity. For instance, the enhancement VFI item "Volunteering is a way to make new friends" relates to an aspect that we consider more important than a single item suggests. Enjoying the company of other people represents an activity-inherent benefit that some people may rank as an important reason for volunteering.

Future Perspectives: Matching Motives With Volunteer Job Characteristics

The analysis of the Excitement \times Autonomy interaction illustrates in an unprecedented way how volunteers' motives moderate the impact of affordances measured with instruments from a different theoretical framework. Undoubtedly, it is reasonable to test the functional approach by matching motives and affordances that directly correspond to each other; the respective match indices represent the fulfillment

versus frustration of volunteers' relevant motives. We expect, however, substantial added-value of analyzing the interplay of motives and job characteristics. If volunteer jobs are to be re-designed to match volunteers' motives, these interactions point to distinct and "designable" aspects of the volunteer environment.

Future research may address other combinations of volunteer functions and job or organizational characteristics. Providing training and supervision, for example, may represent an affordance corresponding to the understanding motive. The social function could be matched with organizational practices that make volunteers' efforts more visible (e.g., appearances in the media). The enhancement function might be met by encouraging social interaction among volunteers or between volunteers and paid employees. With respect to the excitement function, future studies may examine other factors that have been shown to affect intrinsic motivation, such as autonomy support (cf. Haivas et al., 2012).

Practical Implications: Volunteer Job Design

Compared with previous research (cf. Millette & Gagné, 2008), autonomy showed particularly strong associations with favorable outcomes in this study. The Excitement \times Autonomy interaction further corroborates the idea that event volunteers are particularly responsive to the extent to which they are granted autonomy. Thus, managers of similar events should consider how to "design" autonomy into potential volunteer tasks. Whenever possible, they should emphasize choice and reduce control to a minimum. Volunteers should be given the opportunity for personal initiative and for making own decisions about how to complete their tasks. Without doubt, the organization of mega events requires many restrictions and regulations that volunteers might experience as controlling. Nevertheless, self-determination theory provides some recommendations how to communicate restrictions in an autonomy-supportive way (cf. Deci & Ryan, 2000), for example, by providing a meaningful rationale for why an uninteresting activity is important for the event's success.

The relationships found in this study may pertain to other forms of temporary volunteering, such as corporate volunteering. The findings regarding the excitement motive may also be relevant for organizations providing more traditional volunteer opportunities. Whenever volunteers are motivated by the desire for an exciting and interesting activity, the support of autonomy should play a crucial role in preserving intrinsic motivation and fostering volunteer satisfaction.

Conclusion

In the context of an international event, this research showed how matching volunteers' motives and environmental affordances affected favorable outcomes. Good citizenship and excitement were presented as important motives for volunteering at this event. Matching the excitement motive by volunteer jobs high in autonomy was identified as a factor for success. We encourage researchers to further investigate activity-inherent motives and practitioners to consider autonomy when designing volunteer tasks.

Appendix

Factor Pattern Matrix (Principal-Axis Factor Analysis, Oblique Rotation, Six Factors Specified)

Volunteer function and items	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Understanding						
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands-on experience.	.49					
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	.53					
I can explore my own strengths.	.41					
Career						
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.						.66
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	.34					.64
Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.						.76
Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.						.37
Social						
Others with whom I am close place high value on community service.				.76		
People I know share an interest in community service.				.76		
Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.				.80		
My friends volunteer.				.32		
Values						
I am genuinely concerned about the people I am serving at this event.				.30		
I feel it is important to help others.				.35		
I can do something for a cause that is important to me.			.38			
Enhancement						
Volunteering makes me feel important.					-.59	
Volunteering makes me feel needed.					-.75	
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.					-.73	
Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	.50					
Good citizenship						
By volunteering at this event, I live up to my role as a citizen of this country/city.			.63			
Volunteering helps my country/city to be seen as a good host.			.85			
I can help my country/city to be presented well.			.88			
Excitement						
As a volunteer, I will experience this event more directly than other people.		.75				
Volunteering at this event, I will experience interest and variety.		.73				
Volunteering at this event, I will experience something exciting.		.71				
At this event, I can experience something special.		.77				
Volunteering brings me into the thick of this event.		.61				

Note. $N = 275$. Only factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are shown.

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