The Psychological Contract of Volunteers

A thesis in fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

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ABSTRACT

Reform of performance expectations has transformed the Australian not-for-profit (NFP) operational environment, with organisational volunteers increasingly regarded as part of the available service delivery workforce. This perspective creates a significant challenge for strategic human resource management (SHRM) principles and practice, particularly the development and consolidation of constructive attitudes on the part of volunteers. To date, research examining the specific relationships between HRM strategy and volunteer attitudinal outcomes has been deficient. It is also understood that while many HRM practices are applicable to both paid staff and volunteers, transfer capacity is not universal. It is therefore proposed that new mechanisms of engagement, based on social exchange, might be usefully applied to organisational volunteers. Organisational behavioural (OB) constructs of organisational commitment (OC) (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and psychological contract (PC) (Rousseau, 1989) show considerable promise in this emergent area of management practice.

This study used self-reported data from 921 volunteers engaged with a large NFP organisation. The quantification of the volunteer-centric psychological contract and the nature of its interaction with commitment were key study objectives. Based on organisational commitment theory (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010) and the volunteer literature, this study examined the direct relationships between the antecedents of affective and normative commitment, using multiple regression analysis. A relational psychological contract was tested as a mediator of the direct commitment paths, and psychological contract fulfillment was tested as a conditional effect on the relational psychological contract – commitment paths.

Findings supported the existence of direct, mediated, and moderated-mediation relationships. Of particular note was the comparative strength of personal importance in predicting affective commitment, and congruence of organisation mission and values with personal values in relation to normative commitment. The study found that the effects of personal importance, role scope, need satisfaction antecedents, on affective commitment were transmitted by a relational psychological contract. The relationships of socialisation, and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values, with normative commitment were mediated by a relational psychological contract. Fulfillment moderated the contract-commitment path for affective commitment only.
The findings of this study contribute to the limited empirical research regarding the relationships relevant to volunteer attitudes, and the role of the psychological contract. The study challenges assumptions in the literature that have led to the neglect of commitment antecedents such as personal importance, formalisation of procedures, need satisfaction, and value congruence. The study utilises the broadened application of the psychological contract beyond the traditional employee focus to a volunteer frame of analysis, and explicitly operationalises the theorised ‘nature’ of the association between dimensions of the psychological contract and organisational commitment.

The study has implications for management theory and practice relevant to volunteers. By considering how OB constructs apply to volunteers, the study provides an opportunity to tap the underlying needs and organisational relationships essential to volunteer involvement. Through the establishment of a promissory and reciprocal exchange agreement, favourable workplace attitudes, such as organisational commitment, can be encouraged by NFP organisations throughout a critical element of the sector workforce.

**Key Terms:** affective commitment, moderated-mediation, normative commitment, not-for-profit, organisational behaviour, psychological contract fulfillment, relational psychological contract, regression analysis, strategic human resource management, volunteer
Declaration

I, Leanne McCormick, declare that this thesis is less than 100,000 words in length (exclusive of tables, figures, reference list, and appendices) and contains no material that has been previously accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma by another institution. To the best of my knowledge, this document contains no material previously published or written by another person, except as duly acknowledged in the text of this thesis.

Acknowledgements

This thesis would not have been completed without the support of a number of individuals. I would like to take the opportunity to acknowledge the departmental and administrative staff at Monash University. Specifically this includes Dr Ross Donohue, my supervisor, who has remained constructive and engaged throughout the research development process. Thanks also to Associate Professor Cathy Sheehan who took on supervisory responsibilities for a semester, as well as Dr Brian Cooper and Mr Lachlan Macquarie who provided valuable guidance on my emerging understanding of inferential statistics.

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<td>$a$</td>
<td>Mediation path coefficient (independent variable to mediator)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$</td>
<td>Alpha or Cronbach’s alpha (statistical abbreviation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* /** /****</td>
<td>Shorthand notation of tolerance band of statistical significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABS</td>
<td>Australian Bureau of Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>ACS</td>
<td>Affective Commitment Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>Mediation path coefficient (mediator to dependent variable)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>Standardised beta coefficient</td>
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<tr>
<td>$c$</td>
<td>Direct path co-efficient</td>
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<tr>
<td>$c^\prime$</td>
<td>Direct path co-efficient, taking account of mediation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAS</td>
<td>Socialisation Content Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>Continuance commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>Confidence interval</td>
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<td>Cont…</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>Change in $R^2$</td>
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<td>DV</td>
<td>Dependent variable</td>
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<td>et al.</td>
<td>And others</td>
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<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>Overall significance of the regression model</td>
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<td>Effect size</td>
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<td>FP</td>
<td>Formal procedures</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>$&gt;$</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
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<td>Human resource</td>
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<td>Independent variable</td>
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<td>JDS</td>
<td>Job Diagnostic Survey</td>
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<td>JS</td>
<td>Job / Role scope</td>
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<td>&lt;</td>
<td>Less than</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>Mediator variable</td>
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<tr>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>Master of Business Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Negative value, direction, or effect</td>
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<tr>
<td>n, N</td>
<td>Number of individuals</td>
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<td>NC</td>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCS</td>
<td>Normative Commitment Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>NFP</td>
<td>Not-for-profit (also referred to as ‘non-profit’)</td>
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<tr>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>Non significant</td>
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<tr>
<td>NSe</td>
<td>Need satisfaction – esteem based</td>
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<td>NSv</td>
<td>Need satisfaction – value based</td>
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<td>OB</td>
<td>Organisational behaviour</td>
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<td>OC</td>
<td>Organisational commitment</td>
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<td>OCB</td>
<td>Organisational citizenship behaviour</td>
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<td>OS</td>
<td>Organisational support</td>
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<tr>
<td>OSI</td>
<td>Organisational Socialisation Inventory</td>
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<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Positive value, direction, or effect</td>
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<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>Statistical significance</td>
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<td>Psychological contract</td>
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<td>PCT</td>
<td>Transactional psychological contract</td>
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<td>PI</td>
<td>Personal importance to the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-O</td>
<td>Person-organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td>Perceived organisational support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RC</td>
<td>Role ambiguity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>Estimate of contribution to overall prediction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$ med.</td>
<td>Effect size of relationship between the IV and DV, through the mediator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>Socialisation experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SE / S$</td>
<td>Standard error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHRM</td>
<td>Strategic human resource management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Significance, also represented as ‘$p$’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNHRM</td>
<td>Strategic non-profit human resource management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPOS</td>
<td>Scale of Perceived Organisational Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (software program)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VC</td>
<td>Congruence of organisational mission and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFI</td>
<td>Volunteer Functions Inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>Variance inflation values</td>
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<tr>
<td>VSI</td>
<td>Volunteer Satisfaction Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>World War II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X$</td>
<td>Independent variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>Chi square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>Dependent variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Z$</td>
<td>Moderating variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$z$-score</td>
<td>a score’s relationship to the mean in a group of scores</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the key elements of this study. It provides an overview of the research context, in terms of both the broader environmental background and the specific research theories. The research problem is articulated and subsidiary research questions are presented. The final part of the chapter notes the relevance of the research presented in this study, before closing with a summary of content by chapter.

Overview of the Research Context

Not-for-profit organisations are increasingly involved in large-scale social services delivery as the public sector continues to retreat from such functions. This transition is reflective of a reconceptualisation of traditional operating models (Cheverton, 2007; Fletcher, Guthrie, & Steane, 2003), although NFP organisations vary widely in approaches to the associated change paradigm. Rising competition, complex regulatory compliance requirements, service delivery, and stakeholder management demands, have led to the reconfiguration of management processes, organisational culture and relationships (Cray, Inglis, & Freeman, 2007; Kontoghiorghes & Bryant, 2004).

Much of the change described above is referred to as ‘professionalisation’ (Stirling, Kilpatrick, & Orpin, 2011), and is predicated on two key assumptions. The first is a shift from ‘service recipient’ to ‘customer’, reflecting a fundamental change to the traditional structure, strategic objectives and service delivery mechanisms of relevant organisations. The second element is the changing role of organisational participants amid escalating levels of accountability, ambiguity, and performance expectations. Management theory and operational contextualisation have much to contribute to ensuring the success of this transformation, potentially enhancing efficiency while protecting the intrinsic value attributed to the sector by the community (Office for the Not-For-Profit Sector, 2012). A preliminary review of management literature has indicated a neglect of the NFP sector (Block, 2004; Fletcher et al., 2003; Crittenden & Crittenden, 2000). This disregard, however, has now given way to emergent theoretical models applicable to both the NFP sector and the organisational volunteer cohort.

Chapter Two charts the socio-political and economic policy transition which has shaped the NFP sector in recent decades, and the uptake of management theory and practice. It
highlights the unique requirements of the sector in comparison to the public and private sectors, most notably the mixed workforce comprised of both paid employees and volunteers, and the realisation of volunteer supply constraints. For the purposes of this study, a volunteer is defined as a “a person who on a regular basis, contributes his or her time and energy” (Du Boulay, 1996, p.5) “without expectation of monetary compensation” (Shin & Kleiner, 2002, p.64). Volunteer work is defined as unpaid labour within an organisational context that benefits other individuals or society more generally (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

The traditional relegation of volunteers as a sizeable, but secondary part of the NFP labour force, based on the dated economic argument that the volunteer contribution is without cost (Handy & Mook, 2011) is no longer an acceptable approach. The reality of a changeable, but ultimately finite pool of volunteers has impacted, over time, on the recruitment and performance requirements for employees and volunteers engaged in the NFP sector. Acknowledgement of the criticality of the volunteer resource to organisational service delivery (Baxter-Tompkins & Wallace, 2009; Jago & Deery, 2002; Van Vuuren, De Jong, & Seydel, 2008; Wymer & Starnes, 2001) supports the application of theories of organisational behaviour to the strategic human resource management principles guiding organisational practice.

In particular, the use of human resource management principles, and resource allocation by organisations to ensure that volunteer contribution adds value (Cunningham, 2000; Leat, 1995; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Netting, Nelson, Borders, & Huber, 2004), supports a broadening of the human resource management function. Organisations dependent on volunteers are seeking “ways to improve recruitment, training, motivation, and retention” (Handy & Hustinx, 2009, p.552), and would benefit from the conceptualisation of volunteer-centric human resource management frameworks that address the issues of volunteer recruitment, development, and motivation (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006).

In addition, the considered application of human resource management principles may potentially ameliorate the negative impacts arising when volunteers perceive their contribution as undervalued. Research has indicated that these perceptions are attributable to organisationally-dependent aspects including poor leadership and communication, organisational neglect, inadequate resources, and an insufficient volunteer profile (Warburton & McDonald, 2009). Some long-term volunteers also struggle with the transition occurring in their organisations, particularly the shift in management practices and business focus, not necessarily because of
resistance to change as such, but the manner in which it is being implemented and justified (Paull, 2009; Warburton & McDonald, 2009).

Despite these insights, researchers maintain that rigorous empirical research on the management of NFP volunteers is scarce (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Pearce, 1993; Studer & Schnurbein, 2013; Vecina, Chacon, Sueiro, & Barron, 2012). This thesis has taken existing constructs from the paid employment literature, and tested their application - with some modification - to a volunteer context. The derived model and findings facilitate better understanding and manipulation of the knowledge capital and human resources within the not-for-profit sector, as embodied by volunteers. A broad review of relevant literature has resulted in the identification of two theoretical constructs applicable to the volunteer context: the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989) and organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Use of these constructs is evident in the literature, as a means of informing the organisational behaviour of traditional employees across the private, public, and NFP sectors.

The review of organisational commitment and psychological contract theories is contained in Chapter Three, but is briefly introduced here. Underpinning both theoretical constructs, is the concept of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960); according to which: “obligations are generated through a series of interactions between parties who are in a state of reciprocal interdependence” (Jose & Mampilly, 2012, p.426). As such, when an individual is in receipt of economic, and / or socio-emotional resources from an organisation, an obligation to respond in kind is created on the part of the individual (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), usually through discretionary behaviours or positive attitudes including commitment.

The construct of organisational commitment is particularly pertinent for volunteers, given its independence from material rewards (Boezeman & Ellemers 2007; Dailey, 1986). In recognition of its wide acceptance as the preeminent model in organisational commitment research (Clugston, 2000; Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008), Allen and Meyer’s (1990) three-component conceptualisation is utilised in this study - with specific reference to affective and normative commitment. Affective commitment is especially relevant to volunteering, given the intrinsic motivation, non-monetiseable, socio-emotional need fulfillment, and positive work experience ascribed to voluntary contributions of time, energy, and expertise to an organisation. Normative commitment reflects perceived obligations. According to the literature, these obligations are judged on the basis of reciprocity (Meyer, Bobocel, & Allen, 1991), a sense of
moral duty (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), socialisation experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wiener, 1982); and importantly for volunteers, the congruence of organisational mission and values with their own values (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens, Dawley, & Stephens, 2004).

The psychological contract, defined as individual beliefs in reciprocal obligations (Rousseau, 1989), has traditionally provided a theoretical framework for the interpretation of the employee-organisational linkage (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). The construct is associated with job satisfaction, performance, commitment, and retention (Grimmer & Oddy, 2007). By capturing an individual’s perception of the reciprocal elements embodied in the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1990); the construct provides a “theoretical foundation for understanding why and how employees’ attitudes and behaviours are affected” (Bellou 2008, p.778).

Specifically, the relational aspects of the psychological contract, fulfillment thereof (Rousseau, 1989), and affective and normative components of organisational commitment (as operationalised by Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) are tested in the context of volunteers within a large NFP organisation engaged in service delivery activities. Despite the concerns regarding the rigour of volunteer-based research noted above, the desirability of organisational commitment on the part of volunteers has led to a substantive level of empirical examination and published research (see Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Batson, Ahmad, & Tsang, 2002; Cuskelly, 1995; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finklestein, 1998; Tidwell, 2005; Van Vuuren et al., 2008). The psychological contract – traditionally applied to paid employees was initially identified as applicable to organisational volunteers by Farmer and Fedor (1999) and Liao-Troth (2005). Since then a small, but highly relevant, body of research has been developed (Kim, Trail, Lim, & Kim, 2009; Netting et al., 2004; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Starnes, 2007; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh, Bidee, Pepermans, Willems, Huybrechts, & Jegers, 2011, 2012, 2013). This rapid uptake reflects the view that the psychological contract construct may act as a key mechanism for NFP organisations struggling with contemporary volunteer governance (Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013).

While a relationship between psychological contract and commitment is identifiable in the literature, Cohen (2011) has highlighted the lack of extant research on the nature of this relationship. This observation has enabled the conceptualisation of dimensions of the psychological contract and the means of intervention in commitment outcomes. Chapter Four
details the mediation and moderation arguments relevant to dimensions of the psychological contract. Sufficient at this point, the nomination of a relational psychological contract as a mediating variable is grounded in existing research and is applicable to the consideration of volunteer commitment. Given the common basis of organisational experience and human resource practices, relationships theoretically exist between a number of commitment antecedents and both commitment and a relational psychological contract, providing for potential transmission effects. In terms of psychological contract fulfillment, a case is made for its function as a moderator of the contract-commitment relationship, premised on the concept of exchange balance.

**Research Problem**

The research objectives for this study were thus comprised of three components. Firstly, to examine the antecedents of organisational commitment (affective and normative) for volunteers involved in the not-for-profit sector. Secondly, on the empirically-supported premise that the psychological contract of volunteers is relational in nature, this study explores relatively new ground regarding the psychological contract of volunteers and the potential for enhanced volunteer commitment through leverage of this same contract. Specifically, as a means of quantifying the psychological contract-commitment relationship, a relational psychological contract was assessed in terms of its indirect effect on the paths between antecedents and commitment outcomes. This was followed by the testing of psychological contract fulfillment as a conditional effect on the relational psychological contract–commitment relationships. The intent behind this research model was to identify a potential means of better leveraging the affective and normative commitment of volunteers in NFP organisations. To this end, four research questions were devised:

1) What are the antecedents of affective commitment for volunteers?
2) What are the antecedents of normative commitment for volunteers?
3) Does a relational psychological contract mediate the direct relationships between the antecedents and dependent variables of affective and normative commitment?
4) Does psychological contract fulfillment moderate the intensity of the relationships between a relational psychological contract, and affective and normative commitment?
Study Relevance

This study has empirically explored the volunteer-centric psychological contract, and the nature of the construct’s relationships with affective and normative commitment. From a theoretical perspective, the study draws on the ‘black box’ of strategic human resource management research (Messersmith, Patel, & Lepak, 2011), which seeks to elucidate the implied mediating mechanisms of the relationship between human resource management practices, and the formation and adjustment of individual attitudes (Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009). Findings provide insight into how organisations dependent on volunteers for aspects of service delivery can better design management strategies through an improved understanding of the psychological contract-commitment relationships.

The key research constructs have been briefly introduced above and will be detailed in the literature review. Suffice to say at this point that the choice of constructs and the nature of the relationships being examined are well grounded theoretically. In addition to studies on volunteer commitment and a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract cited above, affinity has been established between a relational psychological contract and both affective (Bunderson, 2001; Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002; Sels, Janssens, & Van den Brande, 2004) and normative (McInnes, Meyer, & Feldman, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) commitment. However, while previous research has examined the mediating capacity of aspects of the psychological contract construct, examination of contract fulfillment as a moderating influence, specific to the relationship between a relational psychological contract and commitment, does not appear to have occurred.

Chapter Structure

This thesis contains seven chapters, including this introductory chapter. The literature review is presented as two chapters. The initial chapter (Chapter Two) provides the contextual background of the NFP sector and outlines the challenges confronting the sector’s organisations. It highlights the uptake of contemporary management theory and human resource practices in response. Acknowledging volunteers as quasi-employees in a service delivery environment, it notes the potential value of constructs drawn from the organisational behaviour literature in informing organisational governance and volunteer management practices.

Drawing from this broad description of research need, Chapter Three provides a review of the research constructs used in this study: psychological contract and organisational
commitment. Specific to organisational commitment, Allen and Meyer’s (1990) tripartite model is discussed, including the justification of the use of affective and normative commitment only. Progressing to the psychological contract construct (Rousseau, 1989), key aspects of the contract are delineated including: the transactional-relational spectrum; the role of subjective and promissory obligations; and the formation, maintenance, change, and evaluation phases of the contract. A summary of volunteer commitment research, the case for the extension of the psychological contract to volunteers, and assumptions of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract, are presented. The final section of the chapter highlights the research scope created by the consideration of the nature of the associated relationships between a relational psychological contract and organisational commitment.

Chapter Four presents this study’s conceptual model, the research questions, and hypotheses, drawing on the theoretical and empirical literature. Antecedents are discussed, grouped in line with Allen and Meyer’s (1990) classification of work experiences, structural, and dispositional characteristics for affective commitment, and socialisation experiences, and congruence of organisational mission and values and personal values in relation to normative commitment. Detail contained justifies the subsequent conceptual model and interplay of variables: including the extent to which the direct relationships between antecedents of affective and normative commitment are mediated by a relational psychological contract; and the relational psychological contract-organisational commitment relationships are moderated by contract fulfillment.

Chapter Five describes the research design and methodological processes used by this study. Quantitative data required for the testing of hypotheses, were collected via questionnaire from an Australian NFP organisation, dependent on volunteers for completion of service delivery objectives. The individual volunteer was the unit of analysis. Accordingly, details of the research sample, questionnaire construction, and measures, including the psychometric properties, are provided. The theory underlying the main data analysis processes is summarised. Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the level of direct relationship between antecedents and respective outcomes of affective and normative commitment. Subsequent to this, mediated and moderated-mediation techniques were used to determine two relationships: 1) the mediating effect of a relational psychological contract on affective and normative outcomes, and 2) the moderating effect of contract fulfillment on the relational psychological contract – commitment
relationship. Mediated-moderation, as a more recently developed and integrated statistical technique, is a particular focus of this section.

The subsequent chapter (Chapter Six) presents the results of the multivariate data analysis. Support, or otherwise, of hypotheses is noted. The final chapter, entitled Discussion and Conclusion, summarises the contained research process, from initial identification of the research problem, through to results generation. The majority of this chapter is then focused on drawing out the implications of the study findings. Further to this, the contribution to theory and practice, study limitations, capacity for further research, and conclusions are presented.

**Conclusion**

The current chapter has both introduced and provided a synopsis of the study. The contextual background of the NFP sector, and management challenges for NFP organisations, specific to volunteers, has led to the identification of the key research constructs examined in this study. The identification of the research value attributable to the expansion of the psychological contract to volunteers and the nature of a relational psychological contract and fulfillment thereof to the commitment outcomes of volunteers, informed the development of four key research questions and a conceptual model. This model has framed hypothesis testing through use of multiple regression techniques, including the use of moderated-mediation. The structure of the thesis has also been provided to assist with reader navigation. The next chapter commences the review of the NFP sector, and the implications for management and strategic human resource management theory.
CHAPTER TWO: NOT-FOR-PROFIT CONTEXT

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate key elements of the not-for-profit sector as a means of identifying the broad research need and to provide context to the research problem. The content of this chapter will provide a connection from the developmental path, and the common problems and challenges experienced by NFP organisations, through to the value of management, strategic human resource management, and organisational behaviour theory in addressing the same. A review of current literature has identified an overt focus on management theory and applications for the for-profit sector, to the neglect of NFP requirements. While this situation is starting to change, the remaining theoretical gap represents an important opportunity for strategic human resource management, organisational behaviour, and general management principles; focused specifically on the requirements of NFP operations dependent on volunteers.

Organisations within the NFP sector are increasingly involved in large-scale social services delivery as the public sector continues to contract out social service provision requirements (Cheverton, 2007; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Kellock-Hay, Beattie, Livingstone, & Munro, 2001; Lyons, 2001), resulting in a reconceptualisation of traditional operational models within the sector. Changing socio-political and economic policy settings have prompted a shift in perspective from service recipient to customer, resulting in a fundamental change to the traditional structure and service delivery mechanisms of relevant organisations, and an emphasis on satisfaction and efficiency. These changes have been accompanied by the development of an extensive literature and practitioner capacity in support of managing the escalating levels of accountability, ambiguity, and performance expectations encountered by employees and managers.

Despite the ongoing and often overt dependence of NFP service delivery on a volunteer workforce, the organisational structures and human resource management practices of many NFP service providers have not adequately addressed the needs of this vital group of organisational participants. It is acknowledged that progress is being made in this regard. The recognition of organisational volunteers as an integral part of the NFP workforce, has been a vital first step. It is suggested, however, that increased competition, rising customer expectations, and volunteer supply constraints, are continuing to negatively impact the recruitment and performance outcomes for volunteers engaged in the not-for-profit sector.
To elaborate on volunteer supply constraints, the recognition that volunteers are declining in physical numbers and time available (Tidwell, 2005; Vantilborgh et al., 2011), has prompted a flurry of government activity to promote volunteering, and research activity to inform improved volunteer management (see Brudney & Meijs, 2009; Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Ridder & McCandless, 2010). The reconfiguration of volunteer participation is problematic for many a NFP organisation where a substantial component of its workforce might be of a voluntary nature, with volunteers responsible for provision of labour, completion of service delivery tasks, representative and governance roles, or reinforcing a positive image of the organisation (Wymer & Starnes, 2001). A North American-based review by Handy and Mook (2011) reported that in 2009, 80 per cent of NFP organisations used volunteers; that volunteer labour contributed 34 per cent to the total resource base of organisations; and that 67 per cent of the total human resource hours were attributable to volunteers. Moreover, surveyed organisations indicated that use of volunteers, as a cost-effective resource, was only likely to increase (Handy & Mook, 2011). In Australia, it is estimated 4.5 million people volunteer annually, generating an equivalent wage value of 15 billion dollars per annum (Productivity Commission, 2010).

Such dependence, set against the transformative forces associated with the NFP sector underscore the ongoing need for human resource management practices to adapt in support of the relationships characteristic of the environment (Hager & Brudney, 2011; Ridder & McCandless, 2010). The tailored application of management theory can potentially inform operational efficiency, while protecting the ‘essence’ of the sector, which remains integral to its recruitment appeal and community trust (Bryce, 2007; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Wells, 2012; Wong, 2008).

The following components are addressed in this chapter. Firstly, the NFP sector is defined, including the nature of its relationship to the private and public sectors. Secondly, a summary is provided of the environmental change experienced by the NFP sector in recent decades, and the change imperatives now apparent in the interests of sector sustainability and recognition of volunteers as ‘quasi-employees’ in terms of organisational service delivery. The final part of the chapter establishes the challenges for management theory and practice, particularly the role of strategic human resource management and organisational behaviour literature, in relation to volunteer management. This broad contextual overview will thus allow for the introduction of the chosen research theories – organisational commitment (Allen &
Meyer, 1990) and the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989) - both derived from the broader concept of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Detail of these two research theories is contained in the next chapter. While these constructs are considered part of the organisational behaviour literature, human resource management practices are pivotal to the formation, maintenance, and change of these relationships, as perceived by the individual, and as demonstrated by resultant behaviours.

**Defining the Not-for-Profit Sector**

Not-for-profit organisations have traditionally been defined by what they are *not*. NFP organisations are *not* profit-driven; that is, operating on the basis of achieving a maximum return to shareholders as companies in the *private sector* are. Rather, objectives are generally socially oriented, with financial surpluses reinvested in services or the organisation (Wells, 2012). Neither is the not-for-profit sector a part of the government or *public sector*, although NFP organisations may receive substantial government funding (Fletcher et al., 2003; Housego & O’Brien, 2012).

The lack of a commonly accepted definition of the NFP sector has led to the use of a variety of terms. These include the ‘third-sector’, the ‘community sector’, the ‘non-profit sector’, and / or the ‘charities sector’ - any of which can be “misleading as they have contested technical meanings and describe classes of organisations with overlapping boundaries” (State Services Authority, 2007, p.7). The use of charity and not-for-profit labels, have been used in Australia to describe the sector in its entirety, critiqued by Salamon (2010) as too narrow in terms of activity, scope, and management implications.

The working definitions adopted by both the Victorian State Services Authority (2007) and Commonwealth Productivity Commission (2010) have described NFP organisations as operating for social and community purposes, independent, self-governing, and not engaged in the distribution of profits to members. This view is derived from common law (*Statute of Charitable Uses Act, 1601*), which holds that a ‘charitable’ organisation is an entity with a charitable purpose and operates to the public benefit, and has been supported by further decisions of the Australian High Court (John, 2004). Enacting a key recommendation of the Productivity Commission (2010), a statutory definition encompassing the above elements was passed by the Australian parliament in June 2013, and becomes effective in 2014 (Australian Charities and
Not-for-profits Commission, 2013). For the purposes of this discussion, charitable, not-for-profit, and volunteer elements of the sector will be the focus (see Figure 2.1). All of these organisational types may utilise volunteers to enable service delivery, but will be referred to collectively as NFP from hereon.

For the sake of clarity, the Australian private sector consists of companies, partnerships, and sole traders, while the public sector is comprised of municipal, state, and federal government, and associated departments, statutory authorities, and administrative entities. The NFP sector encompasses churches, trade unions, professional organisations, clubs, as well as charity, advocacy, and voluntary organisations, as shown in Figure 2.1.

NFP organisations assume responsibility for a wide variety of functions within the community including: political and human rights based advocacy; religious, artistic, and cultural expression; improvement of emotional and physical health; and education (Block, 2004; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Productivity Commission, 2010). Funding and accountabilities fall into two major categories. The first is comprised of contracted, grant-based, and/or sales funded, service delivery organisations (such as contract-funded charities, housing organisations, schools, and hospitals). Success for such organisations is characterised in terms of ability to meet purchaser’s specifications for services in the most cost effective way (Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Wong, 2008). The second is donor and member funded organisations, which exist primarily to champion causes. There is often only a weak link between the funding source and activities, promoting greater freedom and discretionary use of resources, but organisations may be “expected to more clearly demonstrate the results they achieve with their funds, be subject to greater public scrutiny, and will be held more accountable by stakeholders” (Burton, 2003, p.185).

Other aspects differentiate the NFP organisation from its public and private sector counterparts, as illustrated in Figure 2.2. Broad objectives - often religiously or ideologically grounded - complicate strategy development, and politicise the working environment. Intricate management structures reflect the consultative expectations of governing bodies, committees, funding and user groups. Volunteers are essential and are involved from a frontline capacity to occupying governance positions at the Executive Board level (Epstein & McFarlan, 2011).

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1 Subject to alternative action by the newly elected Federal Coalition Government (November 2013).
1. CHARITABLE
ALL ORGANISATIONS MEETING STRICT CONDITIONS FOR CHARITY REGISTRATION

2. NOT-FOR-PROFIT
INCLUDES INDEPENDENT NOT-FOR-PROFIT UNIVERSITIES AND HOSPITALS, TRADE UNIONS, PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND OTHER ORGANISATIONS THAT CAN MAKE PROFITS, BUT DO NOT DISTRIBUTE THEM

3. VOLUNTEER
CHARITIES AND OTHER ORGANISATIONS WITH SOCIAL / POLITICAL AIMS THAT DO NOT MEET REGISTRATION CONDITIONS

COMMON ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA
• Possess social purpose rather than being profit-driven
• Governance structure is independent of the State
• Reinvestment of financial surpluses in service delivery or organisation

ORGANISATIONAL TYPE (AUSTRALIAN NFP SECTOR)
• CHARITIES
• VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS
• CAMPAIGNING ORGANISATIONS
• SUBSIDISED ORGANISATIONS
• CHURCHES
• TRADE UNIONS
• EMPLOYERS’ ORGANISATIONS
• PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATIONS
• CLUBS

Figure 2.1: Categorising the Australian NFP sector
Figure 2.2: Characteristic features of NFP organisations
Development of the Not-For-Profit Sector

The centrality of the NFP sector as a means of service provision and other activities has evolved substantively in recent decades, reflecting changing political-economic and social expectations (Block, 2004; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). After the post-WWII centralisation of key services (such as health and education), the early 1970s saw a reinvigoration of the NFP sector, as a mechanism to address emergent social and environmental issues. Imaginative new ideas and increased funding from private and government sources saw an explosion of growth in the sector (Hudson, 1999; Productivity Commission, 2010).

Since the 1980s, however, the NFP sector has witnessed simultaneous trends of funding constraints and accreditation development (Block, 2004; Fletcher et al., 2002; Goerke, 2003). The prevailing political economy of the mid 1980s brought fundamental change. The assumption that large public sector organisations, funded and managed by the State, were the best way to provide public services, was challenged (Davies, 2006). Instead, a dual relationship emerged in service provision, consisting of purchasers, who defined the requisite services and providers who delivered those services (Housego & O’Brien, 2012).

This framework seems logical decades later, but was transformative at the time. Organisations began to compete for work previously the province of the public sector (Block, 2004). Additionally, many public sector entities, particularly those in community care or employment services, were also required to bid for government contracts (Productivity Commission, 2010; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). With the contraction of funding, sources (both public and private sector) began to require demonstrable levels of efficiency and effectiveness from organisations requesting support (Block, 2004; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Warburton & McDonald, 2009). The new emphasis on accountability created a quantum shift in the management philosophy of NFP organisations (Goerke, 2003), and for the first time, an appreciation of the value of management skills in defining organisational success.

The mid-1990s witnessed another shift in public policy. The Australian public sector adopted ‘managerialism’ principles from the private sector; characterised by principles of efficiency and performance management (Cheverton, 2007; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Warburton & McDonald, 2009). Government rhetoric reflected the notion of partnerships between the public, private, and NFP sectors, citing associated changes as important to the provision of more comprehensive and better integrated services (Productivity Commission,
This transition reflected the perceived efficiency limitations of the public sector in operational service delivery, combined with recognition of the NFP sector’s contribution to the national economy\(^2\) and furtherance of social capital (Fletcher et al., 2003; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Lyons, 2001).

The shift to terms of “partnership” and “efficiency” has substantively impacted the NFP sector. Providers have been caught between the contrary expectations of funding sources, community, and end users, particularly the problematic perception that the service is ‘free’ (Evers, 2004; Productivity Commission, 2010). Some theorists suggest that the mission-driven and community-focused NFP organisation, does not easily conform to management models designed for the private sector, and as increasingly used by the public sector (Akingbola, 2006, 2013; Cray et al., 2007; Helmig, Jegers, & Lapsley, 2004; Warburton & McDonald, 2009; Wong, 2008). Indeed, Cheverton (2007) has suggested, in an Australian environment, that the mission-driven, value-centric characterisation of the sector is its key strength, and thereby promotes effectiveness.

**The Changing Environment and Implications for Management Strategy**

It could be argued that the ‘not-for-profit’ label, while differentiating the NFP sector from private and public sectors; is a misnomer that taints the public perception of the typical NFP organisation (Goerke 2003; Productivity Commission, 2010). Just because revenues are not distributed to shareholders, members, or taxpayers; these organisations are still required to be financially sustainable. As such, NFP organisations need to generate sufficient revenue to cover operational costs, replenish capital, and fund new activities (Gilligan & Golden, 2009; Ryan & Irvine, 2012).

Rising socio-economic and governance pressures have prompted an initial transformation of management methodologies within the Australian NFP sector (Wells, 2012). Economic

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\(^2\) The dollar value of Australian NFP activity doubled between 2000 and 2007, from 21 to 43 billion dollars, outstripping the communications, tourism, and agricultural sectors (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002; Productivity Commission, 2010). In terms of paid employment, non-profit institutions accounted for 604,000 jobs or seven per cent of national employment in 1999-2000 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002), rising to eight per cent (approximately 900,000 people) in 2006-07 (Productivity Commission, 2010). A further 4.5 million people volunteer on an annual basis, valued at 15 billion dollars (wage equivalence) in 2006-2007 (Productivity Commission, 2010).
constraints, increasing social expectations and regulatory requirements, and historic legacies may once have been interpreted as barriers to the further development of the sector. However, as shown in Figure 2.3, each of the categories can be connected with specific responses and strategies being undertaken by NFP organisations in proactive response to the changing environment (Akingbola, 2006).

To firstly deal with *economic* constraints, decreased funding from traditional public sector sources, in conjunction with the proliferation of service providers, has created a more competitive funding environment. There is a marked increase in *demand-side* funding (where the recipient preference is paramount) to the detriment of traditional *supply-side* funding (where the service provider received the original subsidy) models (Davies, 2006; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Productivity Commission, 2010). A practical example of this shift in principle is *DisabilityCare Australia*, launched in July 2013 by the Australian Government, which shifts the funding decision from disability service providers to the recipient seeking service provision through a publicly funded insurance scheme.

The subsequent increase in volatility has prompted two common internal or organisational responses. Traditional service recipients have become *customers*; and the associated expectations of satisfactory service and value levels have effectively forced organisations to re-examine their *product offer* and *service format* (Cray et al., 2007; Davies, 2006; Rutowski, Guiler, & Schimmel, 2009). In terms of securing funding, organisations are developing diverse revenue sources that include contractual partnerships with government agencies (e.g. employment and vocational training services), fundraising alliances with high-profile corporate entities (e.g. the *Pink Ribbon* campaign run by the National Breast Cancer Foundation), and pursuing lucrative social enterprise or commercial strategies.
Figure 2.3: Assessment of the NFP environment
Moving to *social and regulatory requirements*, increasing accountability and a focus on demonstrable and reportable results, has become a prerequisite to retaining community trust, and maintenance of funding (Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Vantilborgh et al., 2011; Wong, 2008). Corporate scandals of the late-1990s, the hyper-vigilance post-September 11 (Rutowski et al., 2009), and the still-evolving legacy of the 2008 global financial crisis has resulted in funding sources – government, corporate, or philanthropic foundation – encouraging NFP organisations to “adopt more business-like principles to diversity their funding and ensure sustainability” (Rutowski et al., 2009, p.136). For a significant proportion of organisations engaged in the sector, competent management and communication structures, an awareness of finite resources and the transparent management thereof (Block, 2004; Ryan & Irvine, 2012); have been identified as an effective way to manage stakeholders, and realise the NFP sector’s socio-economic mission. There is evidence of the proactive uptake of contemporary business management and improvement methodologies (Anheier, 2009; Vantilborgh et al., 2010).

Organisations have invested in improved financial and human resources systems and practices. This is partially attributable to the imposition of more rigorous financial audit requirements, legislation relevant to occupational health and safety and industrial relations, as well as development of social responsibility and corporate governance norms across all sectors. In terms of human resource management, the attraction and retention of skilled employees may be linked to ethical appeal of organisational objectives, improved remuneration, professional development opportunities, and enhanced work-life balance (Rutowski et al., 2009; Suarez, 2009). However, this is not the norm, prompting Rutowski et al. (2009) to claim a ‘crisis’ of human capital, with graduates less interested in NFP careers due to the pay gap associated with employment in other sectors; a perspective also reflected by the research of the Productivity Commission (2010). Additionally, “skills and trades often sought in the nonprofit field, including social work, nursing, advocacy, and resource development, are now translating into careers in the business sector” (Rutowski et al., 2009, p.135).

In terms of information technology, use of email, websites, e-commerce, other knowledge management platforms, and the more recent explosion of social media interfaces have assisted with the transformation of the workplace, service delivery, and stakeholder interaction (Fletcher et al., 2003; Georke, 2003). Many NFP organisations have sought to specialise as niche advantages become apparent, and to evaluate non-cost-effective programs
more promptly (Hudson, 1999; Productivity Commission, 2010). Where relevant, organisations have developed greater expertise in policy, research, education, and advocacy, or have moved into social enterprise and entrepreneurial activities (Board of Taxation, 2002). Many NFPs have entered into strategic alliances with other service providers, to better harness resources, improve performance, and attract funding (Capochino, 2005; Georke, 2003).

The final element of Figure 2.3 has been labelled *historic legacies*, but in reality consists of multiple components. The first of these is the ongoing community recognition of the value contributed by NFP organisations - not just for service delivery - but also in reference to their long held role as a community’s *social conscience*. Ott (2001) observed that the “nonprofit sector has become the object of high expectations among elected officials and a large segment of the general public” (p.49). Common characterisations of the NFP sector include its significant role as a part of the social fabric (Lyons, 2001), or the “conscience of society” (Block, 2004, p.7). This being the case, “individual and institutional support is likely to continue as long as nonprofit organisations remain free of scandal, demonstrate accountability and remain mission-directed” (Block, 2004, p.8). However, this perception has meant that programs and activities have not traditionally been analysed in terms of real costs or tangible benefit, but rather intangibles including maintenance of community or social values (Fletcher et al., 2003).

“The non-profit sector has a great strength: it attracts people who want to make a difference and feel they are doing something worthwhile” (Light, 2002, in Rutowski et al., 2009, p.137). Yet, terms such as ‘crisis’ and ‘chaos’ have long been used to describe haphazard NFP operations (Block, 2004; McDonald, 1999). Indeed, until the mid-1980s, the very concept of management was anathema to many organisations. According to Drucker (1989): management “meant business, and nonprofits prided themselves on being free of the taint of commercialism, and above such sordid considerations as the bottom line” (p.89).

While a discernible shift in management attitudes has now occurred within the NFP sector, negativity remains regarding the value of some contemporary management principles (Evers, 2004). Many NFP sector professionals, and volunteers in particular, are deeply uncomfortable with the notion of competition (Evers, 2004; Goerke, 2003), associated with twinned concepts of cost reduction and service improvement (Wong, 2008). This mindset is particularly marked in the provision of social and community welfare, health and education
services; where demand can be disproportionate to supply capacity (Evers, 2004; Kellock-Hay et al., 2001; McDonald & Warburton, 2009).

However, increasing community reliance, changing role and regulatory expectations, as well as a more turbulent external environment, has complicated the management paradigm for those NFP organisations assuming responsibility for the delivery of essential community services (Fletcher et al., 2003, Stirling et al. 2011; Vantilborgh et al. 2011). An “unwillingness to explore organisational issues in alternative ways can lead to organisational turmoil, dysfunction, and ultimately organisational failure” (Block, 2004, p.5). Akin to the public and private sectors, management frameworks must be seen as competent, results-oriented (Evers, 2004), foster individual and organisational learning (Kontoghiorghes & Bryant, 2004), satisfaction and commitment (Stirling et al., 2011).

Moreover, there is significant evidence of the capacity for the greater cross-sectoral applicability of management theory and practices (Epstein & McFarlan 2011; Wong, 2008) that will support the transition from “amateur administration to professional management” (Helmig et al., 2004, p.102). The trend towards social enterprise and commercial activities by many not-for-profit and charity organisations (Davies, 2006; Goerke, 2003; Productivity Commission, 2010) or the use of service contracts that link funding to defined and measurable outcomes (Cheverton, 2007; Housego & O’Brien, 2012; Wong, 2008) are clear examples.

All sectors are seeking managers with the ability to formulate and implement performance objectives, promote efficient resource use, create and manage teams (Goerke, 2003), and to foster employee commitment and learning, in order to facilitate the successful implementation of business strategy (Kontoghiorghes & Bryant, 2004). Success for the NFP sector organisation is arguably underpinned by a firm adherence to a workable mission (Block, 2004), a broadly defined strategy, with associated objectives that will integrate various stakeholder motivations (Akingbola, 2006) and enable continuing transition.

There is little doubt that many of the larger or high profile NFP organisations recognised the need for change some years ago and have in many cases, already realigned governance structures, operational philosophy, and sought required competencies (e.g. strategic planning and evaluation capacity). It is questionable, however, whether the majority of Australian NFP organisations have the resources to manage the complex human dynamics that accompany such organisational development initiatives, particularly when complicated by volunteer or mission-
based contexts (Block, 2004; Evers, 2004; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). Studies (e.g. Kellock-Hay et al., 2001; Warburton & McDonald, 2009) indicate that older or long-term volunteers in particular may struggle to make the transition from the traditional ‘charity’ model to the new ‘business’ model characterising the contemporary NFP organisation, in the absence of strong and facilitative transitional support programs on the part of the organisation. Provision of training, skills development, and the need for a collaborative approach (Warburton & McDonald, 2009), adequate resources and formalised communication structures (Kellock-Hay et al., 2001) are highlighted as particularly relevant.

Block (2004) suggested “non-profit organisation management is still evolving as an academic discipline” (p.18), and advocated for the further improvement of NFP sector management techniques and paradigms, cognisant of the fundamental importance of mission and other elements intrinsic to the sector. The final assumption, and certainly one to be further explored in this study, is the premise that organisational development models derived predominantly from the for-profit literature will be successful when applied in a NFP context.

**Constructing the NFP Organisation in Terms of Strategic Human Resource Management and Organisational Behavioural Theory**

It is suggested by Cuskelly et al. (2006) that human resource management theory has not, in fact, overlooked the not-for-profit environment. Indeed, the literature contains many prescriptive recommendations regarding the “need” of NFP organisations to invest in their workforce and “to modify their systems to ensure they are able to attract and retain qualified and committed staff” (Rutowski et al., 2009, p.137). Action to date has leveraged the literature applicable to strategic human resource frameworks in the private and public sectors, in recognition of the importance of such principles in improving management practice (Guo, Brown, Ashcraft, Yoshioka, & Dong, 2011; Lynn, 2003).

However, Taylor and McGraw (2006) have proposed that the consideration of human resource management in NFP organisations comprised of paid staff and volunteers is a highly neglected area of scholarly research. Where volunteers have been considered as human resources, “research has been dominated by a ‘work-place’ conception of volunteers as part-time employees, giving a few hours each week, and the volunteer program as a systematic effort to involve volunteers in the work, outputs, and outcomes of an organisation” (Brudney & Meijs, 2009, p.567). This should be little surprise given the functions of the contemporary volunteer
management program typically include recruitment, socialisation, placement, and evaluation. Resources commonly made available to volunteer managers have typically included non-empirical ‘how to’ manuals “which provide organisations with template forms, ideas on how to reward and motivate volunteers, tips for resolving conflict and best practice examples” (Taylor & McGraw, 2006, p.234).

Arguably, significant gaps in knowledge remain regarding the influences or underlying assumptions of these human resource practices (Taylor & McGraw, 2006; Ridder & McCandless, 2010). To this end, recent literature has indicated that researchers and practitioners are seeking more tailored models and tools that organisations can usefully apply within the distinctive contexts of NFP and volunteer management (see Brudney & Meijs, 2009; Florea, Cheung & Herndon, 2013; Hager & Brudney, 2011; Ridder & McCandless, 2010; Studer & Schnurbein, 2013; Wymer, 2012).

The importance of human resources strategies and activities to organisational capacity, function, and success, is notable in the literature (see Guo et al., 2011; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Takeuchi et al., 2009). The transition from the limited interpretation of human resource management as ‘personnel administration’ to a model in which human resource management practices are integrated with the strategic objectives of the organisation, has seen the emphasis shift to constructs such as employee motivation and job satisfaction (Hartel, Fujimoto, Strybosh, & Fitzpatrick, 2007). Contemporary definitions of human resource management reflect the strategically oriented development and implementation of policies and practices, such that that an organisation’s “human capital contributes to the achievement of its business objectives” (Guo et al, 2011, p. 250). As such, human resource management practices allow employers to “signal their expectations” (Koster, 2011, p.2839) more clearly with regard to employee knowledge, engagement, behaviour, and performance (Guest, 2002; Huselid, 1995; Wright, 2003).

Shen and Zhu (2011) contended that the objectives informing the strategic human resource management framework (for example, perceptions of organisational justice, or simply attraction and retention), will have differential impacts on an employee. In this vein, Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chenevert, and Vandenberghhe (2010) have observed the organisational value contributed by human resource practices apparent in the literature. Of particular note is the capacity of strategic human resource management frameworks to encourage positive behaviours, performance and stability on the part of employees. A number of studies have found correlations
between workplace behaviour and attitudes, including commitment (see Allen et al., 2003; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Pare & Tremblay, 2007; Takeuchi et al., 2009; Tremblay et al., 2010). Moreover, Tremblay et al. (2010) emphasised that “the effect of human resource management practices on attitudes and extra-role behaviours is attracting growing attention, as are the links between these mechanisms and social exchange theory” (p.406), a point reiterated in current research (Chien & Lin, 2013; Scheible & Bastos, 2013; Takeuchi et al., 2009).

The research emphasis on positive attitudinal outcomes in response to human resource management practices is particularly appropriate for the NFP sector. NFP organisations rely on their stated social mission as a recruitment drawcard for prospective staff and volunteers (Drucker, 1989), given the intrinsic interest of individuals in being involved with organisations perceived to contribute to societal function, or ‘make a difference’ (De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans, & Jegers, 2009). Research has indicated that the mission orientation of individuals allows managers to tap the intrinsic motivations of employees when managing performance and retention (Ban, Drahnak-Faller, & Towers, 2002; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007; Nickson, Warhurst, Durron, & Hurrell, 2008).

The previously stated assertion by Cheverton (2007) that the mission-centric character of the NFP sector promotes effectiveness runs counter to the literature describing the sector as unorganised and haphazard, but is not without support. A review by Akingbola (2013), framed in terms of organisational resources and capabilities, resulted in the proposition that the noted complexity of organisational structures creates distinctive resources and capabilities. Additional revenues (due to favourable tax structures and lack of corporate dividend requirements) can be channelled into organisational resources.

Moreover, the use of volunteers further decreases labour costs, while simultaneously providing a diverse skill set. The dependence of NFP organisations on external stakeholders and funding sources, promotes social networks that can be leveraged through marketing techniques. Furthermore, NFP organisations “encompass a value-laden strategic orientation and a motivational foundation with regard to their employees” (Ridder & McCandless, 2010, p.137). As such, competitive advantage can theoretically be achieved when NFP organisations “emphasise the values-driven side of strategy over operational efficiency”; the “values
congruence perceived in human resource practices” enabling social exchange between the organisation and the employees (Akingbola, 2013, p. 221).

In recognition of the complex linkages between strategic human resource management policy, employee attitudes, and organisational performance, Akingbola (2013) has proposed a useful model of strategic NFP human resource management (SNHRM), which is illustrated in Figure 2.4. Drawing on the work of Ridder and McCandless (2010)\(^3\), Figure 2.4 reflects the NFP sectoral and organisational environment, as described in this chapter, as well as the systemic connection between human resource management policy and practice, and employee attitudes. Specifically, it concisely presents the key steps integral to the operationalisation of strategic objectives within an NFP organisation, including the essential role of attitudes, in support of important organisational outcomes such as performance and retention (Akingbola, 2013). It is notable that the arrow between ‘policy and practices’ and ‘employee skills and attitudes’ is bidirectional. Also emphasised is the essential role of the “value-driven” (Ridder & McCandless, 2010, p.13) ‘SNHRM principle’.

Accordingly, the **SNHRM value-driven principle** is “defined as the overarching values, beliefs and approach adopted by management and/or board of directors in the design of its human resource management system” (Akingbola, 2013, p.223). It underpins how an NFP organisation recruits and motivates employees, assigns resources and manages the human resource function (Akingbola, 2013). Values-driven human resource management reflects the substantive degree to which the organisational mission and associated values drive organisational strategy, such that the human resource strategy is subservient to these same parameters (Ridder & McCandless, 2010). For example, values-driven human resource management “draws on the power of mission to attract and motivate employees, acknowledges the role of staff synergy in the selection of new staff, designs motivation and retention systems in light of the motivational foundation of the human resource base, and finally, retains and develops staff” (Ridder & McCandless, 2010, p.136).

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\(^3\) Ridder and McCandless (2010) proposed a four-part matrix by which to differentiate the distinctive strategic orientation and complex human resource architecture of NFP organisations. Human resources management approaches have been classified as motivational, administrative, strategic, or values-driven. Strategy is thereby determined by the priority placed on the differential needs and motivations of employees, or the organisationally derived values, mission, and goals.
Figure 2.4: A model of strategic NFP human resource management (Akingbola, 2013, p.224)
Connecting SNHRM with the Volunteer and Social Exchange Constructs

According to Jago and Deery (2002), the volunteer workforce is an economically and socially significant element of the contemporary organisation. This view is endorsed by a number of researchers (see Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace, 2009; Garner & Garner, 2011; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Wicker & Breuer, 2013). Moreover, there is clear agreement on the critical importance of encouraging volunteers to remain motivated and committed to an organisation (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Brudney & Meij, 2009; Garner & Garner, 2011; Govekar & Govekar, 2002; Stirling et al., 2011; Tidwell, 2005; Vantilborgh et al., 2011).

Volunteers do not exist in isolation, but require the commitment of resources by the responsible organisation for their contribution to be considered effective (Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Netting et al., 2004). Given both staff and volunteers undertake “activities requiring a commitment of time and effort, as well as responsible behaviour within an organisation” (Vecina et al., 2012, p.131), it is a fair suggestion that volunteers be extended the same respect, support, resources, and recognition, as is provided to their paid colleagues.

In line with the consideration given to the participation of multiple groups (e.g. employees, stakeholders, customers) within contemporary service delivery environments (see Cutcher, 2008; Meyer, 2009, Rousseau, 1995), organisational volunteers have been described as ‘quasi’ or “partial employees” (Rousseau, 1995, p.204). In addition, there is evidence that the utilisation of constructive human resource management principles within volunteer programs is relevant (see Baxter-Tompkins & Wallace, 2009; Cunningham, 2000; Leat, 1995). For example, research on volunteer participation and voice has indicated the value of integrating volunteers in formal organisational communication processes and feedback loops (Garner & Garner, 2011). Alternatively, Ferreira, Proença, and Proença (2012), in a study of volunteers across three hospital providers, identified that the quality of human resource management practices, specifically, “recruitment, training, reward, and recognition” influenced “volunteers’ satisfaction and attitudes” (p.37).

Ensuring volunteers tangibly assist in adding value to the service concept however, is not an easy process to define and manage (Vantilborgh et al., 2011). Ironically, the professionalisation of the NFP sector, manifest by the uptake of contemporary management methodologies, and the recognition of volunteers as a critical resource group, has also created the potential to drive volunteers out of
organisations that prove too enthusiastic in embracing these principles. It is timely to recall the earlier reference to the unique management requirements characteristic of the NFP sector (see Figure 2.2). Likewise, human resource management in the NFP sector might be different from its private and public sector counterparts (De Cooman et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2011), based on the differential job attitudes, compensation, and professional development requirements between paid staff and volunteers (Guo et al., 2011; Liao-Troth, 2001; Pearce, 1993).

Volunteers often do not want to be treated in the same manner as paid staff (Stirling et al., 2011), to the extent that this creates more rigorous administration requirements and a more formal hierarchy. Rather it is “known that volunteers want appreciation and a caring management approach” (Stirling et al., 2011, p.324), and that training and other organisational requirements need to be perceived as supportive, rather than onerous (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). When this strategy is not apparent, the “frustration of their emotional needs will influence organisational performance”, promoting passivity and withdrawal (Stirling et al., 2011, p.324).

Part of the challenge of this study is to test whether theoretical constructs derived from the paid staff environment and literature, are applicable to the organisational volunteer, and if so, contribute to the understanding and manipulation of knowledge capital and human resources within the NFP sector. A broad review of relevant literature has resulted in the identification of two theoretical constructs applicable to the volunteer context: the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989) and the tripartite organisational commitment model (Allen & Meyer, 1990). To be explored in more detail in the next chapter, basic themes underpinning both organisational commitment and the psychological contract include needs, obligations, and the capacity to deliver on promises - albeit to the volunteer rather than traditional employee base - by the organisation.

Tidwell (2005) contended, in line with previous research (see Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992; Shore & Martin, 1989), that a “volunteer’s organisational satisfaction and commitment are essential” (Tidwell, 2005, p.453) to a NFP organisation; for the simple reason that unsatisfied or uncommitted volunteers (much like their paid colleagues) tend to reduce, or cease entirely, their level of organisational involvement. The majority of NFP organisations cannot afford the associated human, and in some financial, resource loss created by these departures (Garner & Garner, 2011; Hoge, Zech, McNamara, & Donahue, 1998; Stirling et al., 2011; Tidwell, 2005).
While the importance of organisational satisfaction is not discounted, organisational commitment has been selected as a research construct in this study for a couple of reasons. Firstly, organisational commitment is held to provide “persisting motivation” rather than the “short-term motivation associated with incentives” (Wayne, Coyle-Shapiro, Eisenberger, Liden, Rousseau, & Shore, 2009, p.259). Secondly, previous research has established the causal ordering of the satisfaction-organisational commitment relationship (see Brown & Peterson, 1993; Testa, 2001). Indeed, more recent studies have identified commitment as the primary attitudinal variable in the development of volunteer engagement and long-term retention, over and above role satisfaction (Garner & Garner, 2011; Jimenez, Fuertes, & Abad, 2011; Vecina et al., 2012; Vecina, Chacón, & Sueiro, 2010).

Regarding the linkage between human resource management practices and organisational commitment specifically, a positive relationship has been identified when human resource management policies are perceived of benefit to the employee (Scheible & Bastos, 2013; Shen & Zhu, 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2009). Opportunities for skill development and internal promotion, in conjunction with constructive feedback and performance management, are indicative of an organisation’s confidence in its human capital. Theoretically, an individual’s perception of this confidence is associated with the reciprocative generation of affective organisational commitment (Koster, 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Shen & Zhu, 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2009; Tremblay et al., 2010).

To borrow from Scheible and Bastos (2013): “it is important for organisations to foster linkages for people to remain, but it is also important to assess the nature of these bonds” (p. 59). In the context of the NFP sector and the volunteer labour force, the application of the psychological contract construct, provides interpretative support as to the nature of this form of employee-employer - or individual-organisation – relationship; the associated research potential recently noted by Stirling et al. (2011) and Vantilborgh et al. (2011). The psychological contract construct offers scope to understand and improve volunteer management by exploiting the “positive relationship between organisation commitment and volunteering” (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finklestein, 1998; Tidwell, 2005, p.454), as well as providing insights into volunteer behaviour (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stirling et al., 2011). As promoted by a number of researchers (see Kim et al., 2009; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2011), an enhanced understanding of the volunteer psychological contract and commitment
increases the capacity to provide “applied solutions to nonprofit problems with recruitment, retention, and the satisfaction of volunteers” (Tidwell, 2005, p.450).

Summary of the Not-For-Profit Environment and Research Scope

Evident from the content of this chapter, the external operating environment for these organisations has become increasingly volatile and competitive due to a range of socio-political and economic changes. Reform of public spending programs; legal requirements regarding financial management, employment relations, and occupational health and safety; changing community expectations; norms of social responsibility, and contemporary governance, performance and reporting expectations have prompted several fundamental changes to the sector. These changes include the realisation that not-for-profit is not necessarily synonymous with no profit; and that the traditional service recipient has become the customer - generating new strategic parameters.

Volunteers within organisations are increasingly regarded (both in the literature and in practice) as quasi-employees. As such, volunteers are embedded in human resource management practices; and their input is considered critical to the fulfillment of service delivery objectives. Yet their efforts are not financially compensated, they receive no remuneration, and as a result, volunteers can feel mismanaged, taken for granted, or even over-worked. Organisations continue to seek a better understanding of volunteer motivations, and tools to leverage productive attitudes and behaviours that take into account the ongoing value-laden and idiosyncratic nature of the sector.

Many of the challenges confronting NFP organisations can be understood and to an extent, resolved with the management, human resource, and organisational behavioural models presently available, known, and tested in the paid-staff domain. Work has commenced on the formal adaptation of the models to the NFP environment, exemplified by Akingbola’s (2013) SNHRM model. It is from this broad literature base that the research theories for this study have been identified and conceptual research model constructed. Moreover, acknowledging the point that literature specific to the NFP organisation and the volunteer is less than sufficient; this study provides significant scope for research into this specific relationship.

Research (to be detailed in next chapter) has established the connection between targeted human resource management practices and organisational commitment in the context of paid staff. Organisational commitment has been identified as a beneficial, and important, attitude on the part of volunteers with regard to satisfaction,
productivity, and retention. The psychological contract is viewed as a means of interpreting the nature of the traditional employer-employee relationship, but also offers scope to be applied to the individual (volunteer) – organisational relationship; particularly given Rousseau’s (1995) broadening of the ‘employee’ definition. A relationship has been established between psychological contract and organisational commitment (Cohen, 2011). However, there is only limited research to date on the psychological contract as held by volunteers; or how commitment antecedents might interact specific to the volunteer context. It is arguable that just as both commitment and psychological contract constructs are derived from the broader concept of social exchange, so is the very concept of volunteering; and so related models are particularly applicable to volunteers.

**Conclusion**

The research problem noted at the beginning of this chapter stated as its objective the examination of NFP volunteer organisational commitment, and the held psychological contract, prior to assessing the level of relationship between both constructs. This scope was identified on the basis of needs apparent within the NFP sector, and volunteer management in particular; and the positive relationship of enhanced commitment with organisational participation and output. The following chapter explores the key research theories of organisational commitment and psychological contract in detail, and identifies the capacity for targeted empirical research.
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview and critical discussion of the key theoretical constructs underpinning this study: namely organisational commitment and psychological contract. Through the review of the relevant literature, gaps will be identified, and elements or relationships likely to benefit from further empirical research will be delineated.

The preceding chapter attempted to problematise the research context, based on a number of assumptions. This study is premised on the changes occurring in the NFP sector; and the acknowledgement of volunteers as a critical human resource for many NFP organisations engaged in service delivery. A major concern common to NFP organisations, dependent on volunteers, is the level of churn of these same volunteers, with rates of loss in the local Victorian NFP sector estimated to be as high as 30 per cent per annum (State Services Authority, 2007). Additionally, availability of volunteer resources continues to reflect the constraints of changing societal work patterns, including more women in the workplace, people working longer prior to retiring, and just the sheer number of organisations and worthy causes competing for the same volunteer’s attention. Given the lack of explicit reward mechanisms for volunteers (such as monetary wages), there is an identifiable need for understanding of other available tools to create organisational commitment - and associated aspects of job behaviour such as satisfaction and retention - by organisations and managers working in this environment.

The structure of this chapter will be as follows. The development of organisational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct, contemporary interpretation, and usage will be briefly reviewed. The subsequent focus on affective and normative commitment reflects both the dominance of the Allen and Meyer (1990) tripartite model of organisational commitment, as well as its application within the NFP and research context. The second theoretical construct relevant to this study will then be addressed. The psychological contract, as championed by Rousseau (1989, 1990, 1995), is particularly valuable as a means of interpreting the relationship individuals develop and maintain with their respective organisations. Review content will include established aspects such as the transactional-relational continuum; contract
development, maintenance, and evaluation; and concepts of contract fulfillment and breach.

From the broad review of both theoretical constructs, it is necessary to identify the specific research theories and opportunities. This part of the discussion will be comprised of three sections. Firstly, the notion of volunteer commitment, and related empirical research, will be summarised. Secondly, the theoretical potential to extend the application of the psychological contract beyond the traditional employee to the organisational volunteer presents an exciting empirical research opportunity. Accordingly, analysis of the literature will demonstrate the relevance of a relational psychological contract, and aspects of fulfillment, in the context of volunteers engaged in service delivery activities.

The final section deals with the association - drawn from the literature - of a relational psychological contract and organisational commitment. In particular, it highlights the research potential of examining the nature of the relationship between the two constructs. Specifically, the designation of the psychological contract as a mediating influence in the formation of commitment is an emergent theme in the literature. McInnes et al. (2009) proposed that commitment outcomes are influenced through the perception of contract holders - dependent on the key features or basic character of their own individual contracts. The current study seeks to contribute to the limited empirical research on this point. To date, fulfillment and breach of the psychological contract have been predominantly examined as mediators in relation to organisational commitment. However, this chapter, by highlighting of aspects of the literature, will provide initial support for the examination of psychological contract fulfillment as a conditional effect on the relationship on the relational psychological contract-organisational commitment relationship.

**Organisational Commitment**

The linkage of organisational commitment to important workplace attitudes and behaviours is apparent in the literature. Organisational commitment has been positively associated with job performance (Sakires, Doherty, & Misener, 2009; Steers, 1977), and negatively with intent to leave (Sakires et al., 2009), absenteeism (Blau, 1986; Pierce & Dunham, 1987), and turnover (Meyer et al., 2002; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Riketta, 2002; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Moreover, Meyer and Parfynova (2010) argued that given the volatile nature of contemporary
organisations, it is more important than ever to “understand the nature, development, and implications of employee commitment” (p.283). Thus, for organisations to encourage commitment, as a desirable attitudinal attribute on the part of their workforces, an understanding of how it develops, and can be encouraged, is important (Meyer et al., 1991). Chelladurai (2006) has suggested organisational commitment is a critical factor in organisational effectiveness, regardless of paid staff or volunteer status.

The following subsection will cover the historical development and definition of organisational commitment. Specific to Allen and Meyer’s (1990) multi-dimensional model, the ongoing debate about the integrity of individual commitment elements within the tripartite construct will be acknowledged.

**Development and Definition of the Organisational Commitment Model**

Organisational commitment is a form of psychological linkage between the organisation and individual; defined as the extent to which individuals deem group or organisational characteristics applicable to themselves (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). A meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990), confirmed organisational commitment as the “most common form of attitudinal commitment” (p.172) studied. A subsequent meta-analysis, conducted by Meyer et al. (2002), counted 70 published articles, dissertations and other empirical research between 1985 and 2000, and endorsed the ongoing scope for investigation (Stephens et al., 2004). A December 2012 PsychInfo database search for articles dealing with organisational commitment for the period of 2002 to the end of 2012, listed 4,255 items. The volume of contemporary research provides a strong indication of the continued relevance of organisational commitment to managerial theory. Klein, Becker, and Meyer (2009) suggested that while volume should not be equated with importance, the impressive “breadth, diversity, and longevity of commitment research point to the recognition that commitment has tremendous value as a key theoretical mechanism for influencing critical employee and organisational outcomes” (p.29).

Researchers have proposed alternate models of organisational commitment (see Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Allen and Meyer (1990), however, devised a multi-dimensional tripartite model that is now firmly established as the most widely used organisational commitment model (Becker, Klein, & Meyer, 2009; Judeh, 2011; Rutowski et al., 2009; Wasti, 2005). Indeed, the Meyer et al. (2002) review had two objectives. While the first of these was a comparison of the “strength of
true correlations between variables identified” (Meyer et al., 2002, p.21), the second was to frame the research context going forward. Research recommendations included cross-cultural application of the commitment model, and further exploration of normative commitment antecedents and workplace behaviours. The number of studies published since exploring cross-cultural applications, particularly in the Middle East and Asia, reflects the popularity of this advice (see Allen & Vandenberge, 2003; Bhatti, Nawab, & Akbar, 2011; Chen & Chui, 2009; Chen & Indartono, 2011; Cohen, 2011; Hu, Tetrick, & Shore, 2011; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004; Jha, 2011; Steinmetz, Park, & Kabst, 2011; Yoshie, Saito, & Kai, 2008). By contrast, normative commitment and its antecedents have received only limited attention (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

Preceding the formulation of the tripartite model, much of the initial work on validating organisational commitment as a form of attitudinal commitment (albeit unidimensional in nature) was undertaken by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979, 1982). The definition of organisational commitment as the “relative strength as of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation” (Mowday et al., 1979, p.226), remains heavily quoted to the current day, even by researchers utilising the Allen and Meyer (1990) model. Organisational commitment, as conceptualised by Mowday et al. (1982) consists of a: “a) strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; b) willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and c) strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation” (p.27). The construct represents more than loyalty or job satisfaction, as it “involves an active relationship with the organisation such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation’s well-being” (Mowday et al., 1982, p.27).

According to Prabhakar and Ram (2011), Porter and Steers (1973) further distinguished their model of attitudinal organisational commitment from behavioural commitment. Yet, “the complementarity of attitudinal and behavioural commitment was integral” (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011, p.55) to Meyer and Allen’s (1990) tripartite

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5 In studies that utilise this definition, and/or the related OCQ (Organisational Commitment Questionnaire) instrument devised by Mowday et al. (1982), this generic form of organisational commitment is frequently read as affective commitment. This complementary alignment becomes clear when assessing OCQ content. In this study, the same line will be taken where possible. Otherwise, studies using the OCQ will be referred to as a ‘generic’ form of commitment.

6 “The process by which individuals’ past behaviour in an organisation binds them to the organisation” (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011, p.55).
model; described as the “psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.14). The multi-dimensional nature of the construct is reflective of its three distinct commitment components: namely affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Despite the common usage of commitment ‘kind’ or ‘type’ in the literature, it has more recently been suggested that each form is better interpreted as a ‘mindset’ (Meyer, 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

**Exploration of the Tripartite Organisational Commitment Model**

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), the three-component commitment model was derivative of the common themes found in the attitudinal commitment literature: “affective attachment, perceived costs, and obligation” (p.2). These themes were subsequently conceptualised as ‘affective,’ ‘continuance’, and ‘normative’ commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and are discussed below.

**Affective commitment.**

Affective commitment is the perceived ‘want to stay’ on the part of the individual (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). This commitment mindset refers to a sense of emotional attachment to the organisation, “such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.2). Prior to the development of the tripartite model, this form of commitment was variously referred to as “cohesion commitment” (Kanter, 1968, p.507); “affective attachment” (Buchanan, 1974, p.533), and organisational commitment (as defined by Mowday et al., 1979, 1982; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). It was in 1984 that Meyer and Allen first established ‘affective commitment’ as a distinct component of their multi-dimensional model, subsequent to reaffirmation of the above definition on multiple occasions (see Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1991).

Affective commitment has received the most research attention of the three components (Bergman, 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Established correlates of affective commitment fall into one of four groups: work experiences, job characteristics, structural characteristics, and personal characteristics (Meyer et al., 1993). Work experiences are further assessed based on the ‘comfort’ and ‘competence’ that the employee gains from their work role (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This group has generated the “strongest and most consistent relationships” (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539).
with examination of the contained variables extensively represented in the extant literature. Further discussion of these variables, however, is more appropriately contained in the next chapter, where commitment antecedents are detailed.

**Continuance commitment.**

The second component of the tripartite model, continuance commitment (CC), is the calculative attachment to an organisation, based on substantial costs associated with organisational exit (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). Such commitment is dependent on two factors: the “magnitude and/or number of investments (or side-bets) individuals make and a perceived lack of alternatives” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.4).

Employees make decisions that increase the perceived costs associated with discontinuation of another activity (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Becker, 1960, Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Continuance commitment reflects the perception of a “cost” (Kanter, 1968, p.504) associated with organisational exit, in comparison to a “profit” of continued participation (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.3). For example, an employee may invest considerable effort in gaining a job skill not easily transferable to another work environment (a potential cost). The mitigation strategy is continued employment within the organisation where the particular skill is relevant.

More generally, the recognition by an employee that limited alternate employment opportunities exist external to the organisation, increase the perceived exit costs (Meyer et al., 1993; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), particularly if departure is also equated with loss of seniority, personal relationships, or generous remuneration (Meyer et al., 1991; Scheible & Bastos, 2013). Therefore, the “fewer viable alternatives employees believe are available; the stronger will be their continuance commitment to their current employer” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.4).

Given the nature of the research sample, continuance commitment is not included in this study. The costs of this form of commitment are largely conceptualised in material or financial (income) terms (Powell & Meyer, 2004; Scheible & Bastos, 2013), a constraint not relevant to volunteer activity (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Van Vuuren et al., 2008). Likewise, given the increasing demand for volunteers in contrast to the levels of volunteers available (Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Vantilborgh et al., 2011), there is no lack of alternate engagement opportunities for the prospective or restive volunteer. The inclusion of only affective and normative commitment components is, moreover, consistent with existing volunteer commitment literature and associated
empirical studies (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Liao-Troth, 2001; Stephens et al., 2004; Van Vuuren et al., 2008).

**Normative commitment.**

Normative commitment is the perceived ‘obligation to stay’ on the part of the individual (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bergman, 2006). “Last introduced and least studied” (Bergman, 2006, p.647), the definition and antecedents of normative commitment have been refined and expanded over time (Allen & Vandenberghe, 2003). Initially, normative commitment was thought to develop in response to socialisation experiences that emphasised loyalty to an employer. The fostering of beliefs regarding an individual’s sense of organisational responsibility, promoted compliance with the collective goals and interests, based on “internalised normative pressures” (Wiener, 1982, p.471). On this basis, the normative component of organisational commitment would be influenced by the individual’s experiences both prior to, and following, entry into the organisation (Wiener, 1982). For example, an employee might be more likely to develop strong normative commitment to the organisation if significant others (such as parents) had been long-term employees of an organisation or had stressed the importance of organisational loyalty. With respect to socialisation, those employees led to believe — via various organisational practices — that the organisation expected their loyalty would be more likely to have strong normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Moreover, exhibited behaviours on the part of those individuals would be due to the belief that such behaviour was “right” and “moral” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.3).

While socialisation remains an important antecedent in determining normative commitment, later explanations, omitted references to loyalty, in favour of ‘reciprocity’ (see Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 1993). This shift in perspective is attributable to work of Scholl (1981), regarding the ‘norm of reciprocity’ (Gouldner, 1960). Scholl (1981) argued that normative commitment would act to stabilise behaviour in the face of unmet expectations or inequitable conditions. Subject to the degree to which the norm of reciprocity is operating, an individual would recognise the “debt incurred through advance rewards” (Scholl, 1981, p.594), and remain with the organisation until the debt was met. As such, positive perceptions of organisational support (Meyer et al., 1991; Meyer et al., 1993) or receipt of some other benefit such as training, professional development, or educational support (Bergman, 2006, Meyer et al., 2002), would
generate a “sense of obligation to reciprocate” (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539) on the part of the employee.

Complications have arisen from this line of reasoning. For example, while positive perceptions of organisational support, are thought to generate a sense of obligation, and the associated reciprocal response can be linked to normative commitment (Wayne et al. 2009), perceived organisational support (POS) is held to be primarily an antecedent of affective commitment, based on the stronger correlations (see Meyer et al., 2002). To explore this example a little further, researchers have found that positive perceptions of organisational support can lead to ‘felt obligations’ to assist the organisation (see Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007; Meyer et al., 1991; Tekleab & Taylor, 2005). Felt obligations have been categorised as normative commitment (see Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Scholl, 1981; Wayne et al., 2009). This position is consistent with the definition of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960), whereby employees who have developed a sense of POS tend to commit themselves to the organisation because POS creates an obligation to behave in a way that benefits the provider (the organisation) of support (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Yet POS is defined as a means of meeting socio-emotional needs and assessing the “organisation’s readiness to reward increased effort on its behalf” (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008, p.56). According to Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Lynch (1998) and Eisenberger, Huntingdon, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986), the creation of a ‘felt obligation’ through socio-emotional need fulfillment, contributes to an individual’s social identity, creating affective rather than normative commitment. The norm of reciprocity will act to promote care regarding the organisation’s welfare. By contributing to the attainment of organisational objectives, individuals show greater affective commitment (Wayne et al., 2009).

As such, it is suggested (see Eisenberger et al., 2001; Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Hu et al., 2011; Maertz et al., 2007) that the direct linkage of POS to affective commitment, will be stronger than reciprocity (through POS) to normative commitment. This is not to say that the relationships cannot coexist, but that obligations to assist the organisation, as associated with affective commitment (Koster, 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Shen & Zhu, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2010), will encompass the obligation to remain of normative commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Hornung &
Glaser, 2010; Hu et al., 2011; Maertz et al., 2007). This position largely reflects the consensus in the research literature, until recently. Drawn from a recent assessment of the research literature, it has been suggested by Wayne et al. (2009) that POS should be considered a “major antecedent of both affective and normative commitment” (p.260). While this study, has considered organisational support as an antecedent of affective commitment only, the evolving conception of normative commitment provides justification for further evaluation of the relationships relevant to the construct.

Meyer et al. (2002) stated that “more work is needed to understand what normative commitment is, how it develops, and whether it contributes uniquely to the prediction of behaviour” (p.41). In recognition of the further development of the tripartite commitment construct, as referenced above, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) have sought to reposition the conceptualisation of normative commitment in the current theoretical debate. This work builds on themes found in the literature in recent years (see Klein et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Specifically, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) have suggested that a) obligations associated with normative commitment can be interpreted as both “moral duty” and “indebted obligation” (p.284), b) the use of commitment ‘profiles’ contributes to an enhanced understanding of the implications of affective and normative commitment in the workplace, and c) the linkage of mission and values in relation to normative commitment.

Meyer and Parfyonova (2010), in accord with recent commitment literature, suggested that ‘obligation’ is being interpreted more broadly (see Assor, Vansteenkiste, & Kaplan, 2009; Sideridis, 2008), moving away from an emphasis on retention to a wider set of obligations to the organisation, on the part of an individual (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wayne et al., 2009). To take the example of POS above, the associated training might contribute to either affective, normative, or continuance commitment (or a combination thereof). The outcome is dependent on whether the activity is viewed as: a) “a reflection of organisational support” which generates “desire;” b) a benefit requiring reciprocation, triggering a sense of obligation; or c) an “investment of time to acquire organisation-specific skills” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.285). Many researchers would assign the outcomes by each perspective as affective, normative, and continuance commitment, in that order. If training was associated with the development of both affective and normative commitment it would help to account for the high correlation between the two constructs (Meyer et al., 2002). According to their latest reconceptualisation, however, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) suggested, that
POS would contribute to more than basic reciprocation, “instil[ling] a sense of moral duty to a mutually caring relationship” (p. 291). The key point is that normative commitment moves beyond basic principles of obligation through reciprocity, to a dual perception of “a sense of indebtedness” and a “moral duty” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.283). Moreover, the aspect of moral duty should be fostered for the most beneficial effects of commitment to emerge (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

The potential duality of normative commitment is further illustrated using the idea of commitment “profiles,” defined by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p.308) as a reflection of the measurable strength of the mindset accompanying each commitment component (i.e. desire, perceived cost, or obligation). As such, an individual can be described as affective commitment ‘dominant’, or affective / normative commitment ‘dominant’, or any combination derivative of the tripartite commitment model. This still allows for the distinction between the motivational potential of obligations of normative and affective commitment (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). For example, “employees can feel obliged to stay without liking the organisation currently [normative commitment], or like the organisation [affective commitment] without feeling any great obligation” (Maertz et al., 2007, p.1061). However, subsequent research by Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak (2006), has led to the proposition that an individual’s commitment profile, “provides a ‘context’ that can influence how a particular component of commitment is experienced” (p.343). Accordingly, the inherent sense of obligation relevant to normative commitment was found to be experienced as a “moral imperative” (a desire to do the right thing), when paired with affective commitment, but as an “indebted obligation” (something that must be done to avoid social costs) when continuance commitment was strong, and affective commitment weak (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2001, p. 287). It is further suggested, based on research (see Herscovitch & Meyer, 2001; Somers, 2009; Wasti, 2005), that a strong combination of affective and normative commitment is likely to be associated with increased levels of employee wellbeing and positive work attributes including organisational citizenship behaviour, intent to remain, and support for change, than might be attributed to a commitment profile dominated by affective commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

The linkage of values congruence to normative commitment by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) reflects the proposition by Stephens et al. (2004) that the congruence of organisational mission and values, with personal values, be regarded as an antecedent of normative commitment. This suggestion has received comparatively little research
attention to date, but may be highly applicable to the context of volunteers engaged in service provision. Similar to POS, mission and value identification has traditionally been included as part of affective commitment. While this attribution may be due to the theoretically based suggestion that values held may act to moderate work experience variables, and thus influence the development of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), recent empirical research has supported a positive relationship between value congruence and affective commitment (see Finegan, 2000; Howell, Kirk-Brown, & Cooper, 2012).

Other empirical studies of volunteer commitment, however, have led to a tentative case being made to include mission orientation as a predictor of normative commitment, specific only to a volunteer (rather than paid staff) context. For example, based on normative commitment, an individual volunteer “may feel that it is immoral to leave the organisation because the mission of the organisation” is so compelling (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, p.773). Alternatively, depending on the type of values held or espoused by both individual and organisation, the level of congruence may generate both affective and normative commitment. The relationship of mission and values congruence with organisational commitment will be the subject of further discussion in the next chapter.

Criticism and Defence of the Tripartite Commitment Model

Rutowski et al. (2009) cited Allen and Meyer’s (1990, 1997) organisational commitment model as the most-widely accepted within the body of research, further supporting the conclusion of previous reviews (Becker et al., 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Despite the general acceptance of the model itself - and the many empirical studies that have been conducted using the associated measures - debate regarding the discriminant validity of the model’s affective and normative components continues. This has prompted calls for further research scrutiny (Bergman, 2006; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997).

Affective and normative commitment components “have not been as empirically differentiated as theoretically expected” (Bergman, 2006, p.645). Meyer et al. (2002) found affective and normative commitment to be correlated at .63, meaning “nearly 40 per cent - a substantial value - of the variance in one is explained by the other” (Bergman, 2006, p.646). Despite investigative attempts and calling for further research into the level of correlation, Bergman (2006) concluded that commitment researchers
should continue to examine the three forms of commitment as an established construct. Certainly, the model authors have vigorously maintained that the correlation between affective and normative commitment should not be interpreted as singularity or unity (Meyer et al., 2002, Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

Furthermore, as a multidimensional construct, it is appropriate that the “antecedents, correlates, and consequences of commitment vary across dimensions” (Meyer et al., 2002, p.21). Figure 3.1 presents the assorted linkages between the three components of commitments.

In line with Allen and Meyer’s (1990) assertion that each of the types develop independently from distinct antecedents; the left-hand side of Figure 3.1 identifies the “general categories of variables hypothesised to be involved in the development of affective, continuance, and normative commitment” (Meyer et al., 2002, p.21). It illustrates how individual antecedents of each commitment component, influenced by levels of job satisfaction and involvement, can have simultaneous relationships with multiple outcomes, but differing levels of intensity with those same outcomes due to the distinct nature of the independent variables.

For example, positive work experiences, such as role scope and clarity, have been associated with affective commitment, while socialisation experiences are a key predictor for normative commitment. Moreover, an employee can experience a single or multiple commitment types to varying degrees, creating a ‘net sum’ of organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For instance, an employee might feel both a strong need and obligation to remain, but no desire to do so, while another individual might feel neither a need nor obligation, but desire to remain (Maertz et al., 2007).
Figure 3.1: Antecedents, correlates, and outcomes of organisational commitment
(Meyer et al., 2002, p.21)
Discrepancies in job performance and related behaviours are attributed to the type of commitment(s) held (Meyer et al., 1991; Meyer et al., 2002) - reflected on the right side of Figure 3.1. Each form of organisational commitment differentially influences the nature of the organisational attachment and behaviour of individuals (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). For example, affective and normative commitment types have been positively associated with job performance and organisational citizenship. By contrast, the continuance commitment component is, negatively related to the same outcomes (beyond minimum membership requirements) because of its calculative nature (Bergman, 2006; Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 1991; Meyer et al., 2002).

In a further attempt to address concerns regarding affective and normative commitment, the interpretation of normative commitment, in particular, has continued to evolve (a notable reframing occurring in 1993, and further reconceptualisation in 2010). Normative commitment transitioned from its original emphasis on socialisation and internalisation of obligation to reciprocity (Meyer et al., 1993). While Cohen (2007) argued that normative commitment should be considered a commitment propensity, rather than a unique component, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) responded by stating that the 1993 revision by Meyer et al. made this claim redundant. The revised measurement scale (from eight to six items) increased the correlation between affective and normative commitment scales. Meyer et al. (2002, p.40) rationalised that this increased correlation “allows for the possibility that employees can develop a sense of obligation to their organisation for reasons other than socialisation”. A plausible argument was made that positive work experiences, exemplified by POS, which contribute strongly to affective commitment, might also contribute to a sense of obligation, resulting in normative commitment (albeit to a lesser degree) (Meyer et al., 2002).

More recently, a reconceptualisation of normative commitment encompassing moral duty, and a sense of indebtedness, has been advanced (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). This reinterpretation has coincided with recognition of the potentially associative role of an organisational mission and value framework when congruent with personal values (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004), with normative commitment. Underlying these emergent propositions is a salient reconsideration of workplace attributes that have previously, been allocated predominantly to affective commitment.
Certainly, there appears to be a growing consensus by researchers that commitment “mindsets operate simultaneously and thus individuals can show multiple forms of commitment to their organisation, as well as varying and interactive levels of each” (Becker et al., 2009; Johnson, Groff, & Taing, 2009, p.432; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). The empirically supported reality of multiple commitments and potentially additive effects (see Somers, 2009; Wasti, 2005) has subsequently led to the development of commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), and prompted research interest in the measurement of comparative effects (see Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Somers, 2009; Wasti, 2005). Indeed, Johnson et al. (2009) found no evidence of “competitive effects between commitment” (p.431) types; with tested outcomes actually enhanced through the identification of multiple commitments.

Two other items were worth noting from the review by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010). The first was the clarification that the formation and effects of normative commitment extend beyond the early stages of employment. As such, normative commitment may influence behavioural outcomes throughout the period of an employee’s tenure with an organisation. This interpretation is similar to that developed for socialisation (see Judeh, 2011; Reio & Callahan, 2004; Schein, 1988). The second point is that “normative commitment is an important motivational force that has been overlooked and underutilised” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.292), particularly the potentially “powerful” and “beneficial” implications of it being “experienced as sense of moral duty rather than as an indebted obligation” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.292). In a similar vein, Wayne et al. (2009) suggested “more research into the dynamics and overlap [of normative commitment] with other constructs is critical” (p.272).

In summary, this section has provided a review of the organisational commitment literature. The key elements of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) multi-dimensional organisational commitment model – affective, continuance, and normative – have been described, including the recent reconceptualisation of normative commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Periodic criticism of affective and normative commitment elements for a lack of discriminant validity has failed to dent the extensive use of the model for contemporary research purposes, including the theoretical underpinning of this study. The next section reviews the second major construct for this study: the psychological contract.
The Psychological Contract

The interpretation of the psychological contract as “individual beliefs in reciprocal obligations between employees and employers” (Rousseau, 1989, p.389) has underpinned the bulk of the construct research to date. The psychological contract literature has evolved over the last two decades alongside the transformation of the workplace; its value in informing human resource management noted as particularly relevant for employees engaged in community services delivery (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003). This view remains, however, premised on the assumption that the traditional employee-employer psychological contract is the only one that can exist. Reconsideration of the research parameters leads to the realisation that contract parties may comfortably include relationships other than the traditional employee.

The following review of the psychological contract literature will be broken down into several components in order to highlight the key aspects of the construct used to inform this research study. Commencing with the historical development of the psychological contract literature, the review will transition through the employee-centric, idiosyncratic, promissory, belief, and value-laden nature of the construct, through to the characterisation provided by the concept of a transaction-relational continuum. A synopsis of formation, maintenance, and evaluation phases of the psychological contract will be provided, including delineation of contract fulfillment, breach, and violation.

Development of the Psychological Contract Construct

The concept of the ‘psychological work contract’ was first introduced by Argyris (1960), based on analysis of interviews of employees and managers in two manufacturing plants. This contract reflected the relationship found between employees and managers, and subsequent behaviour between the parties (Lee & Liu, 2009). Further exploration of the concept was conducted by Levinson, Price, Munden, and Solley (1962), and Schein (1965) before a prolonged hiatus (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007).

Rousseau (1989, 1995) revitalised, and has continued to champion, psychological contract theory, as a “framework for understanding the employment relationship” (Zhao et al., 2007, p.648); generating sustained research interest since. A meta-analysis by Zhao et al. (2007) examining psychological contract breach noted fifty-one empirical studies to 2006. These studies, in conjunction with theoretical
papers, have clarified aspects of the psychological contract, distinguishing it from related constructs (see Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Robinson 1996; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & Parks, 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Tallman & Bruning, 2008; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Rousseau’s original intent has been retained; the definition of psychological contract as “an employee’s beliefs and attitudes about the mutual obligations between the employee and his or her organisation” (Chrobot-Mason, 2003; Del Campo, 2007; Lemire & Rouillard, 2005; Rousseau, 2001; Tallman & Bruning, 2008, p.688). As such, the psychological contract fosters a sense of individual control and security in the association with the employing organisation (Shore & Tetrick, 1994).

As a “metaphor for describing the contemporary employment relationship” (Millward-Purvis & Cropley, 2003, p.214), the psychological construct is important. It enables the classification of employee – employer relations (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Millward-Purvis & Cropley, 2003; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1989, 1990, 1995, 2001; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998), through provision of an analytical framework (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Guest, 1998; Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Millward-Purvis & Cropley, 2003). According to Zhang and Agarwal (2009), the model represents an emergent human resource management tool ensuring that the recruitment, orientation, and ongoing employee management, is compatible with strategic goals of the organisation and consistent across the organisational structure. The construct provides employers with a subtle means of directing employee behaviour and attitudes (Chen & Chiu, 2009; Chien & Lin, 2013). For example, the identification of appropriate schema facilitates the manipulation of the psychological contract in support of an organisational change program where staff knowledge and acceptance is a prerequisite of success (Rousseau, 1995).

**Promises, Idiosyncrasy, Beliefs, and Reciprocity**

Definition of the psychological contract aside, a more comprehensive understanding encompasses a number of features. These include: a) the concept of promissory versus general expectations; b) the idiosyncratic employee-centric nature of

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7 “Schema organise ...personal experiences into mental models linking concrete observations to larger patterns and meanings, providing ways to make sense of information regarding the intentions and goals of an employer and its agents – and one’s own role and obligations” (Rousseau, 2003, p.233).
the contract; and c) the role of beliefs and reciprocity within the exchange relationship, as detailed below.

A distinction exists between the broader concept of general expectations and the narrower promissory expectations that form the basis of the psychological contract (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). In terms of the employment relationship, a promise is defined as any communication of future intent (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Numerous mechanisms may lead to a promise inference, including written documents, verbal discussion, representation by an organisational agent, or organisational policy and practice (Hormung & Glaser, 2010; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Rousseau & Parks, 1993).

As such, the formative psychological contract may reflect not only formally stated, explicit obligations, but also perceived obligations generated through implicit means (Robinson, 1996; Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009; Rousseau, 1989; Zhao et al., 2007), both of which extend beyond the boundaries of the legal employment agreement. Therefore, if a perceived obligation is not accompanied by the belief that a promise has been conveyed (for example, if the perceived obligation is based solely on previous experience in other employment relationships), then it falls outside of the psychological contract (Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Shore & Tetrick, 1994).

The psychological contract is idiosyncratic in its perspective. Individuals will differ in the perceived terms of their relationship with their organisation (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008) dependent on personal schema. Based on the ambiguity of early work by Kotter (1973), Levinson et al. (1962) and Schein (1965), Guest (2004) took an alternate position and contended that the psychological contract reflected the “mutual expectation of two parties” (Lee & Liu, 2009, p.322). Rousseau (1989), however, while emphasising the reciprocal nature of the contracting relationship, defined obligations as being subjectively perceived, on the part of the employee only – a view which is broadly supported by contemporary researchers (Lee & Liu, 2009; Vantilborgh et al., 2013). As such, a psychological contract is, held by an individual employee, rather than by an agent of the organisation (Robinson & Morrison, 1997). This position, that an organisation cannot possess a psychological contract of its own, is generally supported by the literature (see Levinson et al., 1962; Lucero & Allen, 1994; Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1989; Schein, 1965; Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Sims, 1994).
In a further attempt to reduce ambiguity regarding interpretation of the construct, Rousseau (1995) stated that the psychological contract consists of “individual beliefs, shaped by the organisation, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organisation” (p.9). However, while this reference to ‘terms’ invokes a law-based sense of contract, a psychological contract remains far “more subjective than a legal contract” (Zhao et al., 2007, p.649), due to its fundamental reliance on beliefs held by the employee.

Employees form beliefs about the resources the organisation is obliged to provide, and the resources that the individual must supply in return (Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1989, 1995); the associated norm of reciprocity underpinning the resultant exchange agreement. Exchange items typically include time, effort, and loyalty on the part of the employee, in return for material and/or socio-emotional benefits from the organisation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Blau, 1964; Porter et al., 1974; Rosen et al., 2009). Beliefs will be unique to each individual, and influence the terms and conditions of the exchange agreement. According to the literature, beliefs develop through the combination of multiple sources including overt promises of bonuses made during recruitment, interpretation of past change initiatives, witnessing the experiences of other employees, as well personal convictions of good faith or fairness (MacNeil, 1985; Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Individuals will believe contract parties “have made promises” and “accepted contract terms” (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p.244). The promissory and reciprocal nature of the contract notwithstanding, contract terms may differ through the subjective interpretation of contract parties (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The level of alignment of such terms can have “important implications for the enactment of the contract over time” (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; McInnes et al. 2009, p.166; Vantilborgh et al., 2013).

The Transactional-Relational Continuum

The psychological contract has traditionally been viewed as comprised of a number of elements; referred to as either ‘transactional’ or ‘relational’ (Rousseau, 1990). Consistent with Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) and Arnold (1996), the perspective taken in this discussion is that contract content falls across a spectrum, as is shown in Figure 3.2.
Figure 3.2: Psychological contract continuum (MacNeil, 1985)
The spectrum represents a content-based classification. It is widely referenced in the literature (see Kickul, Lester, & Finkl, 2002; Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, & Hochwarter, 2009; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007), and forms the basis of several instruments (De Meuse, Bergmann, & Lester, 2001; Hui et al., 2004; Millward & Hopkins, 1998). Key elements include focus, timeframe, stability, scope, and tangibility, each of which is differentially, reflected along the continuum. The transactional side of the spectrum is characterised by specific, easily definable terms (Rousseau & Parks, 1993).

The focus element in a transactional context refers to explicit, economically bound, “exchanges over a limited period of time” (Zhao et al., 2007, p.657), with “limited involvement between the parties” (Tallman & Bruning, 2008, p.689). By contrast, relational contracts can be characterised as long term, supportive, and value-laden in composition (Robinson et al., 1994; Rousseau & Parks, 1993; Zhao et al., 2007). Moreover, according to Rousseau and Parks (1993) this relational contract is often associated with a broader network of social concerns such as interpersonal relationships, reputation, and justice. The focus dimension in a relational context reflects socio-emotional and intrinsic motivations on the part of the individual.

While ratings by individual elements might vary in terms of position on the continuum, an individual’s psychological contract may be characterised holistically as relational or transactional. For example, inducements used by an employer favouring a transactional contract might include financial incentives and career fast tracking in exchange for tangible outputs by the employee. By contrast, development opportunities, personal support, and flexible working conditions, reflect a relational psychological contract, and engender employee obligations including “extra-role effort and pro-social behaviours benefitting the organisation” (Hornung & Glaser, 2010, p.75). In practical terms, however, a contract may be comprised of both transactional and relational dimensions; an assumption based on organisational practices that variously convey “more relational or transactional terms or a mixture of both” (Hornung & Glaser, 2010, p.75). It is to be noted that the term ‘relational psychological contract’ in this thesis is to be interpreted as a holistic characterisation of the predominant type of obligations, and does not preclude the existence of more transactional items for an individual’s psychological contract.
**Expansion of the Transactional-Relational Continuum**

The perceived limitation of a bipolar depiction of psychological contract content has prompted the development of two distinct ideas in the research literature. The ideologically-infused psychological contract and the psychological contract matrix are briefly reviewed below.

**The ideologically-infused or value laden psychological contract.**

In addition to transactional and relational contract dimensions, an ideologically-infused form of psychological contract has been proposed by Thompson and Bunderson (2003). According to Meyer and Parfyonova (2010), ideological contracts reflect an “employee-employer obligation to advance a valued cause or ideology” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p. 289), or organisational mission (Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009). Contract content is informed by values of social significance (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), altruistic exchange norms, and internalised values (Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Vantilborgh et al., 2011).

A limited number of studies have established, using conventional relational and transactional psychological scales, that ideological infused aspects, linked to individual membership in a profession (e.g. nurse, voluntary hospital worker, scientist) transcend the relational-transactional contract characterisation (see O’Donohue & Nelson, 2007, 2009; O’Donohue, Sheehan, Hecker, & Holland, 2007). Scheel and Mohr (2013) have claimed that a value-laden contract is a distinct dimension, distinguishable from relational and transactional contracts, relevant to volunteers. Breaking ideology down into core purpose and core values, Scheel and Mohr (2013) defined the latter as “a small set of timeless guiding principles that require no external justification, have intrinsic worth and importance to those inside the organisation, and are not to be changed” (p.393), and that will inform the assessment of contract obligations.

O’Donohue and Nelson (2009) are more explicit, and have attempted to define the differences in relational and ideological obligations; a theme which has also been noted in the work by Vantilborgh et al. (2011, 2014). Accordingly, an organisation’s obligations from the socio-emotional perspective might include training and career development opportunities, while an ideologically-infused obligation might require the “demonstration of a credible commitment to a valued social cause” (O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009, p.2). In the same vein an individual might reciprocate the fulfillment of socio-emotional obligations with commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour,
while an ideologically-infused sense of fulfillment might generate participation in the organisation’s mission or “social” citizenship behaviour (O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009, p.2).

While this form of contract is sympathetic to NFP organisations and volunteers (Vantilborgh et al., 2011), it had not been adopted, or specifically operationalised, by the general research literature at the time of the structuring of this study’s conceptual design and therefore was not pursued. Given the subsequent development of specific instruments (see Bal & Vink, 2011; Bingham, 2005), although these scales require further work, as well as the recent studies of aspects of the ideological psychological contract of volunteers (see Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Vantilborgh et al., 2013), this position could be reconsidered as an avenue for future research.

The psychological contract matrix.

The acknowledgement that psychological contracts can contain a mixture of relational and transactional components prompted the development of a contract type matrix (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994) in a conceptual expansion of the transactional-relational continuum. The resultant four contract forms, based on duration (short and long) and performance (weak and strong) terms, were entitled as transitional, relational, transactional, and balanced. The transitional contract is the least stable; characterised by Lester, Kickul, and Bergman (2007) as an “eroding exchange relationship” (p.193), with highly ambiguous performance expectations, and tenuous employment status. By contrast, the relational contract (as previously defined) is the most stable, due to the ability to change aspects by contract parties, owing to the undercurrent of trust and mutual agreement or reciprocity inherent in this contract form. The transactional contract is short-term, but relatively stable with highly specified performance terms that reduce ambiguity levels for both parties. The balanced contract, as a ‘hybrid’ (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1996), is likely to contain a number of transactional and relational elements. The balanced contract emphasises flexibility and reflects the dynamics of the contemporary workplace. While stability is subject to changing performance expectations over time, a facilitative training and professional development environment can ameliorate this situation, such that employees retain ‘employability’ (Lester et al., 2007).

The human resources strategy utilised by the individual organisation in combination with broader external industry factors will often provide the major
determinant of the type of psychological contract fostered by the organisation (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008). The crucial role human resource management practices play in determining the nature and state of the psychological contract and related outcomes is noted in the literature (see Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Freese & Schalk, 1996; Guest, 1998; King, 2000; Kotter 1973; Lester & Kickul, 2001; Rousseau, 1990, 1995; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). As such, a number of factors, commencing from the first point of employment, mould the psychological contract, and its promissory expectations (Westwood, Sparrow, & Leung, 2001). The following section covers the formation, maintenance, and evaluation of the psychological contract, integral to the employment process.

**Formation, Maintenance, and Evaluation of the Psychological Contract**

Human resource management practices, reward mechanisms and other organisational channels, communicate promises and organisational intent. The transmission and subsequent individual interpretation process commences in the initial stages of employment and continues for the employment period (Robinson & Morrison, 1997). Resultant behaviour and held attitudes, on the part of the individual, can be quite enduring; and will continue to be consolidated, adjusted or revised, dependent on his or her experience within an organisation (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Chien & Lin, 2013; De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Rousseau, 1995, 2001; Robinson et al., 1994). This sequence is shown in Figure 3.3.

Derived from Rousseau (2001), Figure 3.3 describes the progressive phases of psychological contract development and maintenance against employment phase. The first two phases (pre-employment and recruitment) are denoted as contract ‘formation’, before the transition to the third phase of contract ‘maintenance’. The formation phase incorporates aspects of prior employment and organisational experiences of the part of the employee, and socialisation mechanisms by the employing organisation (Grant, 1999). This creates a lens by which an individual can interpret his or her new contract (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Chen & Chiu, 2009; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). Newcomers will revise or augment their view dependent on this combination and subsequent organisational experiences.
Figure 3.3: Progressive phases in psychological contract formation
(adapted from Rousseau, 2001, p.512)
The maintenance phase is distinguishable by the dual reduction of information seeking behaviour on the part of the employee, and socialisation efforts by the organisation. To a significant extent, the transition to the maintenance phase will be dependent on the outcomes of the formation process and the extent to which the new employee is able to reconcile the information received and promises perceived with day-to-day organisational reality. The challenge for employers once employees transition to this comparatively stable maintenance stage, is to ensure that subsequent organisational or personal events do not cause an adverse evaluation of contract status.

The transition from maintenance to evaluation can be due to a number of events, but will result in the employee incorporating beneficial or non-threatening change into their existing contract, or the assessment of change as incongruent, potentially leading to a sense of contract breach (Grant, 1999). Organisations, even with the best of intent, cannot ensure all outcomes are positive for all employees, all of the time; and employees will engage in a sensemaking\(^7\) process in an attempt to rationalise events. This process may result in the perception of psychological contract status as variously fulfilled, breached, or violated by the individual contract holder (the final element of Figure 3.3).

Levels of fulfillment or breach, and incidents of violation, have been found to have tangible impacts on the nature of employee involvement in the workplace (see Bunderson, 2001; De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Johnson & O’Leary-Kelly, 2003; Lester et al., 2007; Pugh, Skarlicki, & Passell, 2003; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau & Parks, 1993; Sutton & Griffin, 2004; Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

The section below provides a synopsis of fulfillment, violation, and breach, in line with Rousseau’s (1995) assertion of the conceptual distinctiveness of fulfillment and violation, and differential consequences in terms of behaviour and attitudes.

**Contract Evaluation: Fulfillment, Breach, and Violation**

The results of contract evaluation - generally referred to as fulfillment, breach, or violation - are potentially informed by a number of elements; including the reasons for change provided by the organisation, the sense-making process engaged in by an individual, and the underlying type of psychological contract held. Contract evaluation may thus, be triggered by circumstances external to the organisation’s control, due to

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\(^7\) Sensemaking is undertaken by employees as a means of sorting and making sense of discrepancies in individual predictions and experiences (Hamel, 2009); resulting in a coherent - if subjective – account of events (Weick, 1995).
internal change priorities, miscommunication, or just bad luck (Zhao et al., 2007), but will be subjectively interpreted on the part of the contract holder (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011). The organisational explanations provided in conjunction with these events are, predominately, derived from the contract breach literature.

Accordingly, causal attribution has been negatively classified as; ‘reneging’, ‘incongruence’ (Robinson & Brown, 2004; Robinson & Morrison, 1997), ‘perceived goal displacement’, and ‘perceived value interpenetration’ (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Reneging occurs when the organisation deliberately neglects its provision of an exchange obligation (Rosen et al., 2009). Incongruence arises when employees and employers differ in their understanding about an obligation’s existence or its nature (Rosen et al., 2009). Perceived goal displacement is the result of an organisation changing an emphasis on certain objectives. For example, as part of the professionalisation of many NFP organisations, the increasing importance of administrative or reporting processes may be seen as a dilution of core ideals (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). Finally, perceived value interpenetration, occurs when the organisation establishes relationships with other organisations that hold different ideologies or espouse different values (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). All of these scenarios may lead to a perceived discrepancy on the part of an individual between the promise and actual experience, and trigger evaluation of the psychological contract status (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1997).

Evaluation may result in a perception of psychological contract fulfillment. Experienced fulfillment refers to an employee’s perceptions of the extent to which his or her employer has met obligations and/or honoured its promises (Chen & Chui, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Hornung & Glaser 2010; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This awareness is, theoretically fostered, when an organisation is able to demonstrate it values the employment relationship (Lester et al., 2007). Perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment, as formed through the initial socialisation process and subsequent work experiences, can encourage the ongoing alignment of an individual’s values and norms with those of the organisation, and contribute to the formation of desirable work attitudes and behaviours (Chen & Chiu, 2009; Parzefall & Hakenen, 2010).

Perceived fulfillment represents a successful social exchange on the part of the individual (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Research has identified that fulfillment of
psychological contract obligations contributes independently, and more substantially, to the prediction of trust, commitment, satisfaction, and retention, when compared with non-promissory expectations (Lester et al., 2007; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000). Moreover, the relational dimension of the contract is deemed more pertinent to the prediction of these same outcomes (see Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). Particular to the NFP sector, Cunningham (2010) suggested that value-laden psychological contracts promote a level of resilience in the face of incongruent events, alliances, or changing organisational objectives. This resilience is thought to be due to an individual’s perception that they are contributing to a socially worthwhile objective; which promotes intrinsic motivation and dampens the search for alternatives (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

It is also noted in the literature that the positive outcomes of psychological contract have been paid insufficient attention (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Guest, Michie, Conway, & Sheehan, 2003; Hornung & Glaser, 2010). Studies have sought to address this gap (see Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Parzefall & Hakenen, 2010; Turnley et al., 2003), while Zhang and Argawal (2009) have suggested an expanded research focus on fulfillment.

Relational aspects of contracts may be particularly vulnerable to perceptions of non-fulfillment, being less tangible in nature. As such it possible for individuals to view their contracts (or parts thereof) as less than fulfilled; but not breached, particularly if the organisation can promote positive social accounts of otherwise unpalatable events (Lester et al., 2007). Just as causal attribution can be interpreted in the negative, social accounts allow for the “reframing” of outcomes, or “exoneration” of motives through appeal to shared goals, or “mitigating responsibility” by shifting blame (Lester et al., 2007, p.193). The extent to which such accounts will be believed is further dependent on the perceived quality of the organisational relationship, and the level of acceptance employees have of aberrant behaviour; on the part of the organisation (see Conway & Briner, 2002; Rigotti, 2009; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Where the lack of fulfillment is attributable by the employee to a deliberate betrayal on the part of the employer (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007), or if too many obligations are judged as unfulfilled (Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Rousseau, 1989); the employee is likely to view his or her psychological contract as having been
breached. Contract breach is thus, defined as “the failure of an organisation to fulfil employee perceived promises and obligations” (Zhao et al., 2007, p.649). Despite the claim that breach remains the ‘poor cousin’ of psychological contract research, it has been the focus of many studies, including the Zhao et al. (2007) meta-analysis, following the example of Robinson (1996), Robinson and Rousseau (1994), and Robinson and Morrison (1997).

Breach of the psychological contract adversely affects workplace attitudes and behaviours (Argawal & Bhargava, 2013; Suazo, 2009), and is therefore an issue for the contemporary organisation. Individuals with a perception of contract breach believe that the organisation has become unsupportive of their contribution (Zagenczyk, Gibney, Kiewitz, & Restubog, 2009), and are likely to query the employer’s commitment to the underlying exchange relationship (Lester et al., 2007). Where this is the case, contract terms may be subject to revision (for example, relational dimensions may become more transactionally oriented) (Chen & Chiu, 2009). Other adverse findings of contract breach include reductions in trust (Atkinson, 2007), job satisfaction, performance, and intent to remain (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; De Vos & Meganck, 2009; Lester & Kickul, 2001; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rosen et al., 2009; Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefooghe, 2005; Turnley & Feldman, 1998, 2000; Zhao et al., 2007).

Affective commitment specifically, is negatively impacted by psychological contract breach (Argawal & Bhargava, 2013; Sturges et al., 2005), through a lessening of employee identification (Zhao et al., 2007) and job satisfaction (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van Der Velde, 2010). Organisational commitment, more generally, is also negatively influenced (see Bunderson, 2001; Conway & Briner, 2005; Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006; Rousseau, 1990; Suazo 2009; Zhao et al., 2007). Additionally the more relational the contract held; the more damaging a breach is to both the individual and the organisation (Atkinson, 2007; Cavanagh, 1996; Raja, Johns, & Bilgrami, 2011; Sturges et al., 2005).

While there is a tendency by some authors to use violation and breach as interchangeable terms, there now appears to be a general agreement regarding the conceptual distinctiveness of these terms, in line with Robinson and Morrison (1997). Breach is the “cognitive evaluation that one’s organisation has failed to fulfil its obligations, whereas violation is the emotional and affective state that may follow from the breach cognition” (Zhao et al., 2007, p.649). Violation is represented by intense
emotional responses, such as anger, frustration, resentment and betrayal (Chen & Chui, 2009; Rousseau, 1989), and disillusionment with the relationship (Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Whether breach progresses to violation is dependent on an interpretative process on the part of the employee (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Similar to contact breach, negative relationships have been identified between violation; and increased rates of expressed dissatisfaction, decreased in-role job performance, loyalty, and exit (Raja et al., 2011; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

**Extending the Research Constructs**

The appraisal of the literature has incorporated a review of the key change drivers and management requirements of the NFP sector, the role of human resource management in addressing the problems associated with volunteer management, and in this chapter, the detail of relevant organisational behavioural constructs held to be of value to the domain of volunteer management. The mission-driven and value-centric orientation of NFP organisations has been posited by some researchers as central to the legitimacy and efficiency of the sector (Akingbola, 2013; Cheverton, 2007; Handy & Mook, 2011) implying that, NFP workers:

> have a higher connection with the mission, a need to contribute to public good, and a commitment to their work. Hence, the goal of human resource systems to attract and motivate employees who are committed to the mission of the organisation is not as much a challenge as the need to sustain the level of commitment (Akingbola, 2013, p. 226).

However, while it is evident from the literature that the social and psychological relationships between an employee and employee are important, it is less clear how those relationships are constructed and interact; particularly in the context of organisational volunteers. To this end, three specific themes have been identified in the literature. The following section will elaborate on the potential research opportunities provided by: a) an evaluation of the antecedents of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) components of affective and normative commitment in the context of organisational volunteers; b) the extension of the psychological contract from employee to volunteer; and c) the nature of the associations between psychological contract characterisation, psychological contract evaluation, and commitment.
Extension of the Theoretical Constructs to a Volunteer Context

Volunteer work was defined in the opening chapter. According to Snyder and Omoto (2008), volunteering or “helping activities” are “freely chosen and deliberate”, and are “engaged in without expectation of reward or other compensation” (pp.3-5). Snyder and Omoto (2008) noted the imprecise nature of the definition of volunteer work, based on the argument previously advanced by Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996), that in practice, whether or not activity is deemed as volunteering, is not always straightforward (Wilson, 2012). The reference to free choice notwithstanding, volunteers still encounter the advantages and disadvantages integral to organisational involvement (Vecina et al., 2012). To the extent possible, organisations should facilitate a volunteer experience that is perceived by the targeted individual as variously positive, energising, challenging, and engaging, rather than stressful or demanding (Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Vecina et al., 2012). As such, the organisation generates the potential for sustained volunteerism or volunteer permanence (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner, 2002; Stukas, Worth, Clary, & Snyder, 2008). Volunteer retention is a highly desirable outcome for an NFP organisation, indicative of engaged participants and effective management processes, as well as sustainable and superior service outcomes for recipients (Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace, 2009; Jimenez et al., 2010; Vecina et al., 2012).

Central to the character of the NFP sector, however, are the “hybrid” (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, p.316) or “mixed employee force” (Van Vuuren et al., 2008, p.316) organisations - where both paid and unpaid individuals work together in pursuit of organisational objectives. Organisations of this type create a complex working environment for paid staff, volunteers, and managers (Taylor & McGraw, 2006; Van Vuuren et al., 2008), the features of which were presented in Figure 2.2 in the previous chapter. Relevant features include perceptions of volunteer non-reliability, non-appreciation of work efforts, and complicated governance structures. For example, the dynamic between paid staff and volunteers can take a number of forms. The literature reflects instances where paid staff perceived volunteers as a threat to their own organisational position (McCurlay & Lynch, 1996); and consequently sought to demoralise those same volunteers. Conversely, volunteers have noted that they do not always perceive themselves, or their contribution, as respected by paid staff (Van Vuuren et al., 2008).

Another factor complicating hybrid organisations is confusion or overlap as to who is in charge, and input into decisions (Taylor & McGraw, 2006). A volunteer may
variously regard himself or herself as self-managed, reporting to a paid staff volunteer coordinator, be directly responsible for the management of other volunteers, or even some combination of these scenarios. Volunteers also sit on organisational boards and governance committees in many NFP organisations, potentially using paid staff as support resources. As noted by Yousaf, Sanders, Torka, and Ardt (2011), there are relatively few studies examining how employees or volunteers, develop simultaneous but diverse loyalties to the complex web of organisational affiliations symptomatic of contemporary organisations, let alone the relationships between attitudinal and behavioural outcomes for each.

On the part of managers, a number of identified tensions have resulted in the perceived unreliability (Pearce, 1993) of the volunteer resource. Managers may be reluctant to use volunteers, because there is no “stick of a paid contract” (Cookman, Haynes, & Streatfield, 2000, p.20). Volunteers have a reputation for non-performance and non-attendance, and with no financial consequences, can disengage from an organisation at will. Alternatively, managers may misjudge their volunteers’ intentions as being completely altruistic, and thus be disappointed when volunteers limit their contributions (Van Vuuren et al., 2008). This issue of reliability represents a key resource constraint for organisations dependent on volunteers for aspects of organisational service delivery, with various forms of resolutions suggested; derived from economic, marketing, human resource management, and other social science disciplines (Wilson, 2012).

**Affective and normative commitment.**

This thesis has pursued an organisational behavioural approach, partly based on the suggestion by Testa (2001) that employee attitudes are fundamental to the quality of output in services-based organisations, particularly those engaged in human or social services. As such, Rutowski et al. (2009) has advocated for NFP organisations to not only allocate appropriate resourcing to human capital initiatives, but - as part of the underlying strategy - to also determine an optimum level of organisational commitment.

Research on volunteer commitment has established potential differences in how volunteers and paid staff view commitment types. Moreover, multiple researchers over time have noted that there still is much to learn about the attitudes and organisational behaviour of volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Pearce,
Being able to quantify the concept of organisational commitment is of particular importance to NFP organisations endeavouring to harness the goodwill and initiative of volunteers, alongside the associated rights and responsibilities (Vecina et al., 2012).

The affinity of volunteering and commitment has led to a number of studies (see Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Batson et al., 2002; Becker & Dhiringa, 2001; Cuskelly, 1995; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finklestein, 1998; Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Tidwell, 2005). Volunteers are intrinsically motivated to contribute time, energy, and expertise, in exchange for non-monetiseable, socio-emotional need fulfillment, and a positive work experience. Therefore, the commitment mindsets that are most relevant are those with the capacity to be shaped without reference to material rewards (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007), namely affective and normative commitment.

In terms of contemporary studies, Tidwell (2005) found that organisational identification was positively associated with level of volunteerism (Tidwell, 2005). Through this escalation of involvement, volunteers experience increased commitment and satisfaction (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1996; Kramer, 1993; Tidwell, 2005). “Participants begin to see themselves as integral to the collective and their fates intertwined” decreasing fears of exploitation and promoting trust, and sympathy (Tidwell, 2005, p.451). In noting the resultant interdependence, Van Vuuren et al. (2008, p.324) suggested that volunteers may “need the organisation as much as the organisation needs them”.

Van Vuuren’s et al. (2008) study attempted to reframe the perceived lack of volunteer reliability in terms of organisational commitment. Consistent with previous research (see Catano, Pond, & Kelloway, 2001; Clary et al., 1998; Wilson & Pimm, 1996), surveyed volunteers were found to have stronger levels of affective and normative commitment than the paid staff of the same organisation. Van Vuuren et al. (2008) concluded that volunteer commitment “may not be as fragile as is often assumed” (p.384).

The promotion of affective commitment in the literature as the preferred organisational commitment option (in comparison to normative commitment), is due to an established connection with desired employee behaviour (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Meyer et al., 2002) in a paid employee environment. Research specific to volunteer commitment, suggests that the normative commitment construct may be of greater importance than previously considered, based on the personal normative beliefs.
that motivate volunteer efforts (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). This contention is further supported by research, such that a study of the commitment levels of volunteer Board members found normative commitment to be markedly stronger in comparison to affective commitment (Stephens et al., 2004). Similarly, a study of fundraising volunteers found evidence of affective and normative commitment, however only normative commitment mediated the relationship between volunteer pride and intent to remain (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). It is worth recalling at this point, the recent reconceptualisation of normative commitment by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010); that recommended researchers “look beyond affective commitment as the primary and most desirable outcome and also consider normative commitment, and more importantly, their combination” (p. 291).

**Reframing the paradigm: the relevance of a volunteer-centric, relational psychological contract.**

Despite the traditional research focus on employee perceptions of the employment relationship, Rousseau (1995) conceded that parties to a psychological contract could also include “a client, customer, supplier, or any other interdependent party” (p.20). This reference to an alternate entity allows for the reframing of the construct definition as an “individual’s belief in the terms and conditions of a reciprocal agreement between the focal person and another group” (Rousseau, 1989, p.123).

In terms of this broadened interpretation, a number of studies have been undertaken in relation to the psychological contract of customers, suppliers (see Hill, Ekerd, Wilson, & Greer, 2009; Kingshott & Pecotich, 2007; Lovblad & Bantekas, 2010; Mason & Simmons, 2012), and professional groups (see Bellou, 2007; Bunderson, 2001). This does not contradict the premise that an organisation cannot hold a psychological contract; but simply shifts the emphasis from the employee to other individual parties forming an exchange agreement with an organisation. As Farmer and Fedor (1999) observed, psychological “contracting processes seem to operate in a broad variety of contexts, peoples, and working relationships” (p.252). Similarly, Netting et al. (2004) referenced the interpretative value of the construct, albeit to a paid or volunteer role. The extension of the contract to volunteers is almost normalised, given the contention by Scheel and Mohr (2013) that volunteering is a “form of employment relationship between volunteers and their organisation” (p.395). This is complementary to the thread in the literature of partial employees (Cutch, 2008; Rousseau, 1995).
particularly relevant to the highly interconnected relationships between staff, volunteer labour force, and customers of the NFP sector. According to Stirling et al. (2011), the psychological contract when applied to volunteers, is “the volunteer’s perception of the reciprocal agreement they hold with the organisation, the benefits they will receive in return for unpaid work” (p.323).

The extension of the psychological contract construct to NFP volunteers is premised on the conclusion that key elements of the traditional employee-centric contract are applicable to volunteers. While only a limited group has sought to take advantage of this latitude to date, it is testament to the rising research interest. For example, Thompson and Bunderson (2003) used the psychological contract as a means of explaining the relationship between a volunteer and the NFP organisation. Farmer and Fedor (1999) attempted to test how the psychological contract influenced volunteer participation in a large US-based, NFP fundraising and health advocacy organisation. Starnes (2007) found that volunteers developed a psychological contract with their NFP organisation, but she did not assess contract type. This study found breach perceptions resulted in reduced volunteer hours, but did not affect intent to remain (Starnes, 2007). Liao-Troth (2001) compared contract types between staff and volunteers doing the same jobs in formalised organisational settings (including a hospital and firefighting service), and found the key aspects of the psychological contract to be similar.

In further studies, O’Donohue and Nelson (2009) found that the psychological contract, as held by voluntary hospital workers, was predominantly relational, positing that certain obligations were ideologically driven. A similar conclusion was drawn by Scheel and Mohr (2013), based on German parish volunteers. Kim et al. (2009) tested psychological contract fulfillment as a moderator on the relationship between person-organisational fit and empowerment. Most recently, Vantilborgh et al. (2013) tested how transactional, relational, and ideological psychological contracts might mediate the relationships between the Big Five personality traits and time donated by volunteers, identifying that transactional and relational forms exerted an indirect effect.

Stirling et al. (2011) have suggested that the application of the psychological contract to volunteers has the capacity to generate “fresh insights for researchers and voluntary organisations” (Stirling & Bull, 2010, p.321). This last assertion draws on the efforts of several authors (see Blackman & Benson, 2010; Brudney, 1999; Callow, 2004; Cunningham, 2010, Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Taylor, Darcy, Hoye, & Cuskelley,
2006), with a common theme being the potential of the volunteer-centric psychological contract for management practice.

Similarities between paid staff and volunteers aside, Farmer and Fedor (1999) and Netting et al. (2004) concurred that the underlying contract content and priorities are likely to differ in terms of particular expectations; the type of contract held, and how instances of fulfillment or breach are determined. Voluntary workers have different motivations for joining an organisation, and are reportedly more vulnerable to ambiguous role objectives and performance standards in comparison to their paid colleagues (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

The study by Farmer and Fedor (1999), sought – in their words - to partly fill “a critical gap in … knowledge of volunteer behaviour” (p.349). Farmer and Fedor (1999) concluded the more volunteers, “felt valued and appreciated, and felt that the organisation genuinely cared about their efforts and wellbeing” (p.349), the more likely they were to extend the period of intended commitment. Farmer and Fedor (1999) promoted the psychological contract as a potent means for volunteer-dependent organisations to comprehend and manage the volunteer contribution. Similarly, Taylor et al. (2006) and Stirling et al. (2011) have contended that elements of the psychological contract construct assist in understanding the quality of a volunteer experience, essential to volunteer recruitment and retention processes. Comprehension of psychological contracting processes provides organisations managing volunteers with a framework by which to categorise the type of relationship the volunteer believes she or he has with the organisation: “explicit exchange or the more intangible long-term loyalty” (Liao-Troth, 2005, p.512). Alignment of the associated expectations, is not only likely to contribute to satisfaction and commitment levels of individual volunteers, but also save organisations costly recruitment activities through improved retention (Stirling et al., 2011). Moreover, in less formal organisations, with poorly defined volunteer roles (typical of the NFP sector), Liao-Troth (2005) theorised the psychological contract may be all volunteers have “to go on in understanding their relationship with their organisation” (p.511).

volunteers is still in an early stage” (Vantilborgh et al., 2011, p.655); a statement that prompts consideration of research possibilities. For example, according to the reviewed literature, relational aspects of the psychological contract are more appropriate to the volunteer context than transactional components, in interpreting the volunteer-organisational relationship (Kim et al., 2009). Indeed, Kim et al. (2009) stated categorically that, “for most volunteers, transactional contracts do not exist” (p.557). Instead, the volunteer relies heavily on relational contract fulfillment (e.g. volunteer duties, social relationships, career, or learning related benefits)”, all associated with the relational side of the contract spectrum. Popular theoretically, the determination of a volunteer-centric contract as relational has been examined empirically on a limited basis only (see O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2012, 2013). Stirling et al. (2011) cited the relational elements of social networks, norms and identity, trust, and doing something worthwhile, as important elements in the qualitative and quantitative data.

On a related note, the theoretical benefit of a fulfilled relational psychological contract on desired workplace attitudes and behaviours (Grimmer & Oddy, 2007; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2008; Hornung & Glaser, 2010), underscores the value of examining the specific relationships, in a volunteer context. This is particularly relevant to the Australian NFP environment where the simultaneous professionalisation of NFP organisations, and resultant formalised management processes, may undermine the capacity to meet relational obligations and negatively impact volunteer performance (Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Taylor et al., 2006), underscoring the value of closer examination (Stirling et al., 2011). As such, this study seeks to contribute to an identified gap in knowledge regarding how volunteers might interpret the psychological contract; and explores the implications of the findings for the management of volunteers. This type of information is important, as NFP organisations deal with the need to improve service delivery dependent on volunteer contribution, yet often lack an understanding of how volunteers should be relating to an individual organisation, or the associated organisational experience.

In summarising this section, it is argued that NFP organisations, increasingly dependent on volunteer as a part of their service delivery processes, can benefit from the interpretative value of the psychological contract. Zhao et al. (2007) emphasised the “important role of the psychological contract in understanding workplace emotions, attitudes, and behaviours” (p.667). Volunteers are difficult to retain in the best of
circumstances, and it is believed that an additive approach - as provided by the construct of a relational psychological contract and associated fulfillment - provides an appealing strategy for human resource managers and volunteer coordinators concerned with personnel retention (De Vos & Meganck, 2009). However, further research is required to inform the understanding of a volunteer-centric contract and ensure that volunteers become a strategic organisational asset; an opportunity of which this study seeks to take full advantage. Establishing the validity of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract, and facilitating understanding of how a fulfilled psychological contract might interact with the contract type - commitment relationship are key objectives.

Interpreting a Relational Psychological Contract and Contract Fulfillment in Relation to Organisational Commitment

As one of the main processes for explaining working relationships, the psychological contract offers a deep and thorough underlying explanation for the nature of the exchange relationship...and can thus increase our understanding of commitment to the degree that it is based on the notion of exchange.

(Cohen, 2011, pp.648-649)

While affinity between the psychological contract and organisational commitment constructs is evident in the literature (see Cohen, 2011; Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Parzefall & Hakenen, 2010; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1990), there is still significant scope for research. Schalk and Roe (2007) suggested that knowledge regarding the “conditions that initiate and influence changes in the psychological contract is still limited” (p.169) as well as how these changes “affect changes in attitudes and behaviours” (p.170). It is further claimed that examination of the psychological contract and the nature of its relationship to commitment remains under examined by researchers (Cohen, 2011; McInnis et al., 2009).

The contention, moreover, that an individual’s perception of the psychological contract is a potentially important determinant of his or her organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), exposes a rich seam of empirical research possibilities. While the statement that “empirical…research has not kept pace with recent developments in the broader contracts and commitment literatures” (McInnes et al., 2009, p.165) has validity, it is not entirely accurate. Rather, it misrepresents or
oversimplifies the conceptualisation of the psychological contract and organisational commitment constructs interface. It glosses over the obvious questions as to the characterisation of the psychological contract held, the specific commitment outcome (affective, normative, or otherwise), and whether the held contract is deemed to be fulfilled in comparison to perceptions of violation or breach. Also neglected is the type of organisational engagement on the part of the psychological contract holder – such as a paid employee, a contractor, or a volunteer – and how this status may affect the contract held or related attitudes.

In terms of existing research, a number of researchers have examined aspects of the psychological contract - commitment relationship. Findings have included that contract content, and level of breach or fulfillment of those same contracts, influence commitment (Behery, Paton, & Hussain, 2012; Bunderson, 2001; Cohen, 2011; Lester et al., 2002; Lovblad & Bantekas, 2010; Restubog et al., 2006; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Zhao et al., 2007). While Meyer and his colleagues have consistently proposed the psychological construct as an antecedent of normative commitment (see Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; McInnes et al., 2009), research studies have also identified relationships between psychological contract and affective commitment (see Bunderson, 2001; Lester et al., 2002; Sels et al., 2004).

The literature includes the suggestions that characterisation of the psychological contract, particularly when predominantly relational, or strongly value-laden, will have critical implications for the commitment experience (Bal, Chiaburu, & Jansen, 2010; Cohen, 2011; Jam, Haq, & Fatima, 2012; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Scheel & Mohr, 2013). People experience each commitment mindset (or combination thereof) differently (Becker et al., 2009). Obligations specific to contract characterisation will generate different employee responses (Hui et al., 2004). Accordingly, individuals with a relational psychological contract will value the association with the organisation, and will seek to further the interests of the organisation, even at a personal cost. By contrast, a transactional psychological contract is likely only to engender contributions of a minimally sufficient nature to acquit the obligation (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Indeed, Behery et al. (2012) suggested that organisations “expect commitment beyond the simple execution of assigned tasks” and as such, “require more than transactional contracts can provide” (p.301). Multiple empirical studies have established a positive relationship between a relational psychological contract and organisational commitment, compared with the negative effect of a transactional contract (see Ali,
As theories mature, it is a natural progression for the research focus to migrate from the examination of direct relationships to more complex associations. Constructs of organisational commitment and psychological contract fall into this second category. Relevant to commitment, “a greater appreciation has emerged in the literature for the complexity of the phenomenon of workplace commitments” (Klein et al., 2009, p.29). Becker et al. (2009), based on the premise that “commitment theory is richer in its description of process than is apparent from the current body of research” (p.441), recommended “research should shift from simply identifying correlates of commitment that are likely antecedents, to examining the development of commitment as a process that unfolds over time” (Becker et al., 2009, p.441). Specifically there is scope for the identification of mechanisms (e.g. attributions, perceived organisational support, or organisational justice) that “might help explain how work experiences exert their influence on commitment” (Becker et al., 2009, p.442). It is arguable that a relational psychological contract can be conceptualised as a further mechanism, reflective of Rousseau’s (1995) position that affective commitment be interpreted as an attitudinal reaction to the employment experience and underlying beliefs. Indeed, the review by Wayne et al. (2009) of the psychological contract – commitment ‘connection’ emphasised the importance of assessing the content and conditions of the psychological contract for individuals engaged in the variety of work arrangements that characterise the contemporary organisation. Likewise, the psychological contract construct is held to provide a theoretical foundation for the understanding of how and why attitudes adjust over time (Bellou, 2008; Cortvriend, 2004; Freese & Schalk, 2000; Vantilborgh et al., 2013).

In recognition of the above advice, researchers have begun considering how aspects of the psychological contract construct might act as a mediating or moderating influence on commitment (see Anvari, Amin, Ahmad, Seliman, & Garmsari, 2011; Guest et al., 2005; Richard et al., 2009; Uen, Chien, & Yen, 2009). This research interest only partly addresses the investigative opportunities noted by Liao-Troth (1999) regarding the “application of the psychological contract to organisational affiliation” including the “relationships between the psychological contract and other existing constructs” (p.16).
In addition to the direct affective and normative commitment relationships, two further relationships have been identified for testing in this study. The first deals with the relationship between contract character, and commitment outcomes, such that a relational psychological contract may be regarded as a mediating factor on a subset of independent variables in the antecedent-commitment relationship. The second component reviews the potential of psychological contract fulfillment to moderate the proposed contract-commitment relationship.

Just as aspects of the workplace and personal disposition are represented as antecedents in the Allen and Meyer (1990) commitment model, a number of these elements are also held to be formative to the composition of an individual’s psychological contract, and how the ongoing organisational experience is interpreted and adjusted for (Lee, Liu, Rousseau, Hui, & Chen, 2011). For those individuals with a more relational psychological contract, the investment of time, energy, and development of a relationship with an organisation is likened to a ‘calling’ rather than a mere job (Bal et al., 2010; Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009). For volunteers, the value-laden, socio-emotional, and sometimes ideologically-infused, nature of their relationship with an organisation; this description is particularly apt. As such, while an individual will adjust the level of contribution and commitment in response to the perceived quality of the organisational experience (Hornung & Glaser, 2010); the underlying relational contract characterisation will promote “positive attitudes” (Bal et al., 2010, p.503), such as commitment. The consideration of both affective and normative commitment is appropriate, not only due to the inclusion of both in existing contracting-commitment research (as cited above), but also the “the sense of moral duty characterising the affective / normative commitment dominant profile” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.290). The full case for a relational psychological contract as a mediating variable will be detailed in the next chapter.

Turning to psychological contract fulfillment, theory dictates that perceptions of fulfillment of a relational psychological are assessed against the delivery of the initial promises relating to aspects of socio-emotional needs. Where at least partially fulfilled, theory indicates the norm of reciprocity will activate, with commitment posited as one form of reciprocal attitudinal response (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Parzefall, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007). A number of researchers have endorsed the “need for a closer examination of the positive effects of relational psychological contract fulfillment” (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Guest et al., 2003; Hornung
& Glaser, 2010, p.77). Wayne et al. (2009) suggested that, specific to the relationship of organisational support and affective commitment, future research on “moderating variables that involve socio-emotional needs” (p.265) might be of value.

**Conclusion**

The challenges acknowledged in Chapter Two regarding volunteer attraction, retention, and productivity, by NFP service delivery organisations, highlighted the need for a model that leverages the unique context of volunteer management as an integral component of the contemporary organisation. In response, this chapter has identified two theoretical constructs of potential value, derived from social exchange theory: organisational commitment and psychological contract. As well as delineating the key aspect of each construct and its application to volunteers, this chapter has also prefaced the interaction between the psychological contract and organisational commitment constructs, as a means of creating the initial space for further research conceptualisation.

Meyer and Allen’s (1990) multi-dimensional organisational commitment model is the most widely used today, although only the normative and affective elements are examined in this study. The continuing sideline debate as to the level of discriminant validity of affective and normative components has also been acknowledged. Meyer and Allen are firm that the level of correlation is not representative of singularity (Meyer et al., 2002). Moreover, these commitment mindsets have been positively associated with role satisfaction, performance, and intent to remain; all highly desirous from the organisational perspective. The existence of direct relationships is evident through the literature review, and the logic of each antecedent underpins the composition of the Allen and Meyer (1990) model (Mowday, 1998). This study, based on volunteers, allows for the further critical examination of accepted antecedents as used previously for paid staff; and potential re-allocation by commitment component, particularly with reference to congruence of organisational and personal values and normative commitment.

Psychological contract theory has been reviewed for its value in contemporary management theory, and its ability to underpin and interpret an employee’s relationship with the organisation from initial recruitment, through socialisation, maintenance, and change. At the core of psychological contract theory is the distinction between expectations and promissory obligations; the fulfillment or breach of the latter directly
related to the magnitude of reciprocal outcomes, including commitment on the part of the individual contract holder. The construct has significant capacity to be broadened from its traditional focus on employees to volunteers, although to date very few studies have taken advantage of this opportunity.
CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Introduction

The critical review of the literature contained in the previous chapters has identified scope for further empirical research. A noted issue of volunteer management is the lack of explicit motivation and retention mechanisms. By acknowledging volunteers as an essential organisational resource, it appears that constructs traditional to the paid staff environment may be usefully applied to organisational volunteers. The search for intrinsically-based alternatives leads naturally to constructs of psychological contract and organisational commitment, premised as they both are on principles of social exchange. However, while it is recognised that these constructs are integrally connected to the human resource management strategy and practices of an organisation, there is less understanding of how dimensions of these constructs relate to each other.

In this chapter, the conceptual model is presented, as well as related research questions and hypotheses. From a technical perspective, the relationships to be tested are conceptualised as three distinct types of effect: direct, indirect, and conditional. This designation also underpins the chapter structure, to the extent that the theoretical rationale provided for each set of hypotheses is grouped by effect type. Given the fundamental transformation of the NFP organisational environment in recent years, examination of the direct path between commitment antecedents and outcomes for volunteers is timely. Moreover, the extrication of mediating and moderating relationships as generated by a relational psychological contract, provides a means of unpacking the ‘black box’ of volunteer commitment formation and adjustment, thus informing NFP strategic human resource management. The chapter will close with a summary of the potential value of the identified research theory, and the perceived significance or contribution of this study.

Presenting the Conceptual Model and Research Questions

The conceptual research model for this study has been constructed from the key themes described in the literature review. Elements have included the NFP sector, the extension of strategic human resource management principles to organisational volunteers, and the potential applicability of organisational behaviour constructs of organisational commitment and psychological contract to volunteer management.
Furthermore, this appraisal process has enabled the formulation of research questions and identification of research relationships.

Before presenting the conceptual model, however, it is useful to recall the model of SNHRM (Akingbola, 2013) presented in the second chapter. Figure 4.1 contains a slightly modified version of this model to assist in the conceptual transition between the broader issues of NFP management, the priorities of an NFP-centric strategic human resource management framework, and the specific relationships examined in this study. As previously noted, contemporary strategic human resource management research is focused on the identification and examination of potential mediators of the relationships between human resource management practices and outcomes such as organisational efficiency and commitment (Takeuchi et al., 2009) – the so-called ‘black box’. The current study is nested within this context, but taking account of the distinctive nature of organisational volunteers as a workplace element, drills down to further examine the specific relationships thought to be relevant to volunteer involvement.
Figure 4.1: Theoretical linkage between human resource management policy and practices, and organisational commitment, in an NFP organisation using volunteers
The research process thus seeks to explore four inter-related research questions relevant to identification of the antecedents of volunteer commitment, and the nature of the interface between dimensions of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract and commitment. To this end, four questions have been proposed:

1. What are the antecedents of affective commitment relevant to volunteers?
2. What are the antecedents of normative commitment relevant to volunteers?
3. Does a relational psychological contract mediate the direct relationships between the antecedents and dependent variables of affective and normative commitment?
4. Does psychological contract fulfillment moderate the intensity of the relationships between a relational psychological contract, and affective and normative commitment?

The first research question.

The first research question was formulated following the review of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) organisational commitment model, in light of contemporary theory and research. The appraisal affirmed the ongoing applicability of several antecedents of affective commitment, particularly those attributable to work experiences. However, it is also apparent that other antecedents have been overlooked, particularly those allocated to structural and dispositional categories. This neglect appears partly attributable to researchers adhering to the findings of meta-analyses constructed from research in conventional paid-staff contexts (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This study, set against the backdrop of a transformed NFP sector, and designation of the organisational volunteer as a critical human resource, provides new impetus to the empirical consideration of affective commitment antecedents.

The second research question.

The second research question is based on the preceding review of the normative commitment literature, which has highlighted the less established understanding of normative commitment and its antecedents in comparison to affective commitment. Moreover, an argument has been advanced that normative commitment, and its predictors, merit further consideration (see Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Of particular note is the potential of the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values as a positive and significant predictor of normative commitment, as theorised in the literature.
Figure 4.2 shows the detailed relationships alluded to in Figure 4.1 and that are the subject of study examination. The first diagram reflects the direct path between the antecedents of affective and normative commitment, and operationalises the first two research questions.
1. Direct paths

2. Mediated and moderated paths

Figure 4.2: Direct, mediated, and moderated paths for normative and affective commitment outcomes
The third research question.

The proliferation of studies on aspects of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract (see Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Kim, et al., 2009; Liao-Troth, 1999, 2001, 2005; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Starnes, 2007; Steel & Mohr, 2012; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2011, 2013) is testament to the growth in research interest on this topic. Drawing from the paid staff literature, the psychological contract has been proffered as a valuable construct in the understanding of organisational attitudes and behaviours on the part of individuals (Chen & Chiu, 2009). While the psychological contract has been previously conceived as an antecedent of normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002), this study takes a more sophisticated approach, reflecting and building on the logic proposed by Takeuchi et al. (2009). As such, the relational psychological contract is conceptualised not simply as an antecedent of normative commitment, but as a transmission factor relevant to multiple commitment components. Thus, the third research question seeks to assess the mediation potential of a relational psychological contract on the relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of affective and normative commitment. These relationships are shown in the lower diagram of Figure 4.2.

The argument supporting the relational psychological contract as a mediating variable on the commitment relationships is detailed in a later section in this chapter. However, it is important to note at this point, that theoretical and empirical support is available with regard to the ‘a and b paths’ (see Figure 4.2) essential to the examination of an indirect effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986), and it is therefore reasonable to propose that the relational psychological contract might act in this capacity.

The theoretical rationale underpinning the ‘a path’ - from commitment antecedent to a relational psychological contract - reflects the strategic human resource management framework and its integral role in the determination of psychological contract characteristics and obligations (Mowday, 1989; Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). Psychological contract formation draws on a combination of dispositional and organisational factors (Lee et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al. 2013), the latter being experienced through specific human resource practices as well as the organisational environment more generally (Grant, 1999). The encouragement of a relational contract characterisation and obligations, on the part of an individual, is theoretically dependent on a positive organisational experience in this early period (Guchait, 2007; Guzzo, Nelson, & Noonan, 1994). As a means of further unpacking the
theoretical link between human resource management strategy and psychological contract character, this study has identified, on a preliminary basis, a number of discrete relationships, drawn from the commitment antecedents. For example, commitment antecedents such as role scope or organisational support are also held to be important influences on the relational characterisation of the psychological contract (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Uen et al., 2009).

Progressing to the ‘b path’ - the association between a relational psychological contract and commitment components - while Meyer and his colleagues have emphasised the relationship between a psychological contract and normative commitment only (see McInnes et al., 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002), a number of other researchers have sought to quantify other aspects. Attention has been given to the association between a relational psychological contract and both affective and normative commitment. Initial studies have identified empirical relationships between psychological contract and affective commitment (see Bunderson, 2001; Lester et al., 2002; Philipp & Lopez, 2003; Sels et al., 2004). Moreover, a connection between the level of contract relationalism and commitment – albeit normative - has been theorised (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1997; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994).

As a final point, investigation of the indirect effect in this manner is valuable as it allows for the empirical consideration of potential antecedents of a relational psychological contract (albeit commitment derived), addressing a research gap identified by Liao-Troth (2005). The current study also builds on the recent research assessing a relational psychological contract as a mediator of commitment relationships (Richard et al., 2009; Uen et al., 2009), generating further understanding of the potentially important role of a specific form of psychological contract, on well-established relationships.

**The fourth research question.**

Inclusion of a moderating variable represents the final type of effect being examined – and is referred to as an interactive or conditional effect (see Figure 4.2, part 2). While it is common for a moderator variable to be presented as the third variable in relation to the association between antecedent and outcome variables, in this study, it is the fourth variable to be examined, specifically for its potential influence on the b path of the mediated relationship. Accordingly, and relevant to each of the antecedents identified as part of the third research question, psychological contract fulfillment is
proposed to moderate the relationships between a relational psychological contract and affective and normative commitment. This form of interaction is referred to as moderated-mediation (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). The supporting argument is detailed in another section of this chapter, but to briefly indicate how this avenue of investigation was derived, a couple of points are worth noting here.

From a logical perspective, fulfillment of contract obligations can only be assessed following the formation and characterisation of the psychological contract - given this process determines the nature and content of the obligations attributed to the organisation in the first instance. While commitment has been advanced in the literature as an individual’s reciprocative response to fulfilled psychological contract obligations on the part of the organisation (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Parzefall, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007), there has been little consideration of how this exchange of obligations occurs. This may be partly due to the lack of clarity among certain researchers on the distinctiveness of dimensions of the psychological contract, in this case, between contract characterisation, and contract evaluation status. By recognising this distinction, as proposed by Bal and colleagues (see Bal & Vink, 2011; De Lange, Bal, Van der Heijden, De Jong, & Schaufeli, 2011), it is possible to conceptualise the relationships between relational obligations, and fulfillment thereof, as separate forms of effect. This position is aligned with that of Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2012), who posited that reciprocity of contract obligations is a complex space, and would benefit from exploration of potential moderators of the associated exchange.

Rousseau (2003) suggested that the schema associated with an individual’s psychological contract is pivotal to the adjustment of contract terms and attitudinal outcomes: informing the assessment of fulfillment of contract obligations or even the need for evaluation of contract obligations at a given time. It is arguable that the relational characterisation of the psychological contract, and its underlying schema, will better promote positive attitudes and behaviours, including commitment.

The volunteer-centric psychological contract is proposed to reflect specific relationally-oriented values and motivations, and this schema will inform the character of the psychological contract held, the nature of the promissory expectations, and ultimately the connection to desirable workplace attitudes (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stirling et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2006). While the relational character of the psychological contract being tested as a transmission factor between commitment antecedents and outcomes is important, the question of ‘how’ this relationship is
intensified is critical to developing an understanding of volunteer reactions to the organisational experience, and whether perceived fulfillment is an actual condition on commitment. As such, this research question seeks to operationalise the interaction of perceived fulfillment on the relationships between obligation type and commitment outcomes.

Aside from an enhanced understanding of the dynamics between dimensions of the psychological contract and commitment constructs more generally, this research is of particular relevance to the NFP and volunteer management domains. While the formalisation of management frameworks in NFP organisations and the recognition of volunteers as a critical organisational resource have undoubtedly had their benefits, some researchers have suggested this transformation has undermined organisational capacity to meet the associated relational obligations of the volunteer-centric contract (Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Taylor et al., 2006; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010). This claim has significant implications for the formulation and balancing of contract obligations, as well as the role of fulfillment of these revised obligations and the psychological contract more generally. It further highlights a consistent theme in this study, that is, the value of examining the broadened application of the psychological contract to organisational volunteers.

Therefore, the fourth and final research question seeks to determine whether psychological contract fulfillment, when designated as a moderator, will influence the intensity of the relationships between a relational psychological contract, and affective and normative commitment.

The Conceptual Model

The conceptual model for this study, as shown in Figure 4.3, represents the integrated examination of three types of relationship: the direct, indirect, and conditional paths hypothesised to exist between commitment antecedents and outcomes.

The study also includes demographic elements of age, gender, education level, and tenure, as control variables. These variables are discussed in detail later in this chapter. Based on the conceptual distinction and independent formative capacity of affective and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002), each commitment component is treated as an individual dependent variable. As such, the first set of relationships under consideration are the direct associations between antecedents and outcomes of affective and normative commitment. The mediation effect of a relational psychological
contract on the relationships between the commitment antecedents and outcomes is subsequently assessed. The final element considered is whether evaluations of psychological contract fulfillment - informed by belief and value-based schemas - moderate the intensity of the relational psychological contract-commitment paths.
Figure 4.3: Conceptual model of study

ANTECEDENTS OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (INDEPENDENT VARIABLES 1a-i)
BY GROUP
• ROLE CHARACTERISTICS / WORK EXPERIENCES (SITUATIONAL)
• STRUCTURAL (ORGANISATIONAL) CHARACTERISTICS
• PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS (DISPOSITIONAL)

ANTECEDENTS OF NORMATIVE COMMITMENT (INDEPENDENT VARIABLES 2a-b)
• SOCIALISATION
• CONGRUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL MISSION AND VALUES WITH PERSONAL VALUES

RELATIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT (MEDIATOR)

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT FULFILLMENT (MODERATOR)

CONTROL VARIABLES
• AGE
• GENDER
• EDUCATION
• TENURE

AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT (DEPENDENT VARIABLE 1)
NORMATIVE COMMITMENT (DEPENDENT VARIABLE 2)
Exploration of the Direct Relationships: Antecedents of Affective and Normative Commitment

The antecedents of affective commitment and normative commitment (to a lesser extent), have been well established in the literature, and are predominately researched in line with Meyer and Allen’s (1990) tripartite model. Over time, however, a number of affective commitment antecedents have been sidelined from research consideration. Notable examples include perceived personal importance, structural characteristics such as procedural formalisation or interdependence, or dispositional characteristics of need satisfaction. To take personal importance as a case in point, it is arguable that while this antecedent may have become less relevant in a paid staff context, it still seems particularly suited to volunteers - working as they are without explicit reward mechanisms or financial compensation.

Alternatively, the new research opportunities for normative commitment draw on the recent reconceptualisation of normative commitment and its potential antecedents, as introduced in the previous chapter. Theoretical development has encompassed the transition from reciprocity to the dual obligations created through the formation of normative commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010); the identification of new antecedents, particularly applicable to volunteers, such as congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004); and the notion of commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The transforming NFP landscape and the desirability of commitment on the part of organisational volunteers, has created a timely opportunity to reassess the validity of traditional and emergent commitment antecedents. Research Questions One and Two thus seek to test the antecedent relationships of affective and normative commitment relative to volunteers. The individual relationships are detailed below, commencing with affective commitment.

The Antecedents of Affective Commitment

According to Benson, Dehority, Garman, Hanson, Hochschwender, and Lebold (1980) and Van Vuuren et al. (2008), strong affective commitment on the part of volunteers will be contingent on the level of alignment of an individual’s priorities, personal capabilities, and interests, with organisational objectives. In alignment with Allen and Meyer’s (1990) model, the antecedents of affective commitment are grouped
as role\textsuperscript{8} characteristics and work experiences; structural characteristics; and personal characteristics. Each group contains a number of variables found to have a differential association with affective commitment. This classification is adhered to in this study as a logical means of navigating the affective commitment antecedents. As such, Figure 4.4 summarises the proposed variables (and directionality of relationships) associated with Research Question One – the antecedents of affective commitment for volunteers - and provides a guiding structure for the more detailed discussion to follow.

\textsuperscript{8} The term ‘role’, defined as the “set of behaviours that people are expected to perform because they hold certain positions in a team and organisation” (McShane & Travaglione, 2003, p.663) is substituted as much as possible for ‘job’, given the unpaid nature of volunteer work.
GROUP 1: ROLE CHARACTERISTICS / WORK EXPERIENCES

- ROLE SCOPE
- PERSONAL IMPORTANCE TO ORGANISATION
- ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT
- ROLE AMBIGUITY

GROUP 2: STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

- FORMALISATION OF PROCEDURES
- INTERDEPENDENCE
- AUTONOMY

GROUP 3: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

**DISPOSITIONAL**

- NEED SATISFACTION (ESTEEM)
- NEED SATISFACTION (VALUE)

Figure 4.4: Proposed antecedents of affective commitment of volunteers
(Adapted from Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982)
**Group 1: Role Characteristics and Work Experiences**

*Role characteristics* refer to job design elements including task allocation, role scope, and significance. *Work experiences* refer to the experiences that occur during an employee’s tenure with the organisation, and are considered to significantly influence the “extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation” (Mowday et al., 1982, p.34). In practice, the variables relevant to characteristics and experiences are often combined, prior to reallocation as sub-elements of *competence* and *comfort* (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Both subgroups are theorised to contribute independently and positively to employee commitment. Role scope and personal importance inform a sense of competence, while comfort is attributable to the perceived level of organisational support and role clarity. These antecedents have been examined in the context of paid staff (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghhe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002), and to a more limited extent, volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finklestein, 1998; Stephens et al., 2004; Tidwell, 2005; Van Vuuren et al., 2008).

The proposed antecedents of affective commitment to be tested in this study, under the characteristics and experiences umbrella, include role scope, role ambiguity, perceived personal importance to the organisation, and perceived organisational support. These variables are discussed below.

**Role scope.**

Role scope, as modelled by Hackman and Oldham (1976), is comprised of five characteristics. *Skill variety* is the extent to which individuals must use different skills and talents to complete assigned tasks; *task identity* is the degree to which completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work is required; and *task significance* is the extent to which the task undertaken has a substantial impact on the organisation or society more generally. *Autonomy* is the degree of flexibility by which individuals can schedule their own work and determine the procedures used to complete it, while *feedback* provides an indication of effectiveness of the work undertaken (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). The extent to which these elements are present is believed to generate a sense of challenge and further motivate aspects of an individual’s performance (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999; Goris, Vaught, & Petit, 2003; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), through development of a sense of competence (Meyer et al., 1997), and understanding of work outcomes (Tremblay & Roger, 2004).
The positive relationship between role scope and commitment in a paid staff context has been identified in multiple research studies (see Buchanan, 1974; Eby et al., 1999; Meyer et al., 1997; Steers, 1977). For example, Meyer et al. (1997) found that role scope was strongly related to affective commitment \( (r = .66, p = < .01) \). Eby et al. (1999) identified a positive relationship between role scope and affective commitment \( (r = .48, p < .01) \), as well as for individual subcomponents of skill variety and feedback, and affective commitment \( (\text{skill variety, } r = .21; \text{feedback, } r = .17, \text{where } p = < .05) \). More recently, a study by Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster, and Kepes (2007) identified a moderate-sized correlation between role scope and organisational commitment \( (\delta = .39, p < .05) \).

Further confidence in the validity of the relationship between role scope and affective commitment is provided by commitment meta-analyses (see Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Riketta, 2002). Specific to work design research, a meta-analysis by Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Mogeson (2007) found that task significance was “an important predictor of the experienced meaningfulness of work and that meaningfulness was associated with a range of attitudinal outcomes…including…commitment” (Pajo & Lee, 2011, p.471).

For volunteers, a sense of competence and wider impact, gained through adequate role scope is likely to be important, given they derive “a sense of personal satisfaction and accomplishment from seeing their efforts make a difference in another person’s life” (Wymer & Starnes, 2001, p.279). In terms of empirical research, Pajo and Lee (2011) identified that enhanced perceptions of task significance and meaningfulness contributed to sustained involvement on the part of corporate volunteers. However, the application of the job characteristic model to volunteer contexts is relatively new. For example, Millette and Gagne` (2008) have claimed to be the first to use the model to assess the motivational potential of role scope on satisfaction and performance outcomes on the part of volunteers. Millette and Gagne` (2008) identified positive relationships between role scope and the outcomes of satisfaction \( (r = .28, p < .01) \) and performance \( (r = .25, p < .01) \). These associations were further supported by the results of a study by Schroer and Hertel (2009) which found task characteristics “were highly influential in determining volunteer …engagement and satisfaction” (Pajo & Lee, 2010, p.470).

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9 Used the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1982) rather than the ACS (Allen & Meyer, 1993) measure.
While to date, role scope has only been examined relevant to the development of volunteer satisfaction and intent to remain, the importance of commitment, over and above, satisfaction as the preeminent volunteer attitude has already been identified (Testa, 2001; Vecina et al., 2012). Based on the link established between role scope and affective commitment for paid staff, the volunteer focused research cited above, and the theorised casual ordering of commitment, a strong case is provided for a direct relationship between role scope and the affective commitment of volunteers. As such, it is hypothesised that:

H1a) Role scope will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.

Personal importance to the organisation.

Mowday et al. (1982) suggested a positive relationship between an individual’s perception of his or her “personal importance to the organisation” (p.34), and organisational commitment. The association between personal importance and affective commitment, subsequently modelled by Allen and Meyer (1990), has not been subject to extensive examination, with most researchers concentrating on perceived organisational support. Nonetheless, as a distinguishable variable (Meyer & Allen, 1990), personal importance is purported to be a relevant means of sustaining volunteer contribution, commitment, and retention (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Garner & Garner, 2011; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). “Volunteers expect recognition from the organisation, a feeling of belonging to it, to be given attention and an opportunity to influence its affairs” (Yanay & Yanay, 2008, p.71). Indeed, Yanay and Yanay (2008) and Haski-Leventhal and Bargal (2005) emphasised the importance of the volunteer perception that the organisation should need them. While this claim of overt dependence is perhaps over-dramatic, the attribution of personal importance as a form of non-monetary reward, integral to volunteer management, partly addresses the lack of empirical research on the effect of this type of reward on organisational commitment (Tremblay et al., 2010).

Theoretically, personal importance may be judged by an individual based on his or her participation level in formal communication and decision-making processes, feedback received, and level of autonomy. These aspects arguably contribute to a sense of ‘value’ on the part of the contributing volunteer and promote commitment (Cuskelly, 1995; Garner & Garner, 2011; Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Yanay & Yanay, 2008).
suggested practical means of encouraging this situation is to provide training, which not only develops competence, but also promotes positive morale and indicates that volunteer input is important and appreciated (Shin & Kleiner, 2003).

As noted, the relationship between personal importance and affective commitment does not appear to have been extensively examined. However, a number of studies based on paid staff have focused on contributory aspects. For example, the importance of supervisor feedback to work effort and commitment has been identified (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen, Ledford, & Spreitzer, 1996; Tremblay et al., 2010). Cohen and Kirchmeyer (1995) asserted that support by an organisation of the active participation of their employees is vital to the enhancement of affective commitment for those same individuals. In substantiation of this proposition, a study by Luthy and Schrader (2007) of hospice volunteers found a direct positive relationship between higher participation levels and organisational attachment. Similarly, a study by Jan, Marwat, and Arif (2009), identified a moderate to large positive correlation ($\delta = .40, p < .01$) between participation and affective commitment for Pakistani workers.

The level of access to information and resources, supervisor, and co-worker connections, and influence of the decision-making process has been identified as contributing to an individual’s sense of inclusion (Farndale, Van Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hope-Hailey, 2011; Ferdman, Barrera, Allen, & Vuong, 2009, cited in Chen, 2011; Findler, Wind, & Mor Barak, 2007). Exploiting the link between decision-making participation and the development of inclusion perceptions, Findler et al. (2007) found that employees included in decision-making processes were more committed to the organisation.

Farndale et al. (2011) and Ferdman et al. (2009, cited in Chen, 2011) have further suggested that when individuals perceive their opinions as substantive and contributing to group and organisational decisions, this builds a sense of value, “fundamental in creating a sense of belonging and contribution for individuals” (Chen, 2011, p.56). On the basis that participation in decision-making can be ‘consultative’ or ‘delegative’\(^\text{10}\) in nature, Bhatti et al. (2011), found that delegative or direct participation

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\(^{10}\) *Consultative* participation refers to practices, such as regular meetings with direct reports, attitude surveys, and employee suggestion schemes, “where management encourages employees to share their opinions regarding work-related concerns, yet retains the right to make all final decisions” (Bhatti et al., 2011, p.19). *Delegative* participation provides employees with “increased responsibility and autonomy to organise and perform their jobs as they see fit. Employees participate directly in work decisions” (Bhatti et al., 2011, p.19)
contributed more to respondents’ affective commitment than its consultative alternative.

In a seminal study of the relationship between personal importance and organisational commitment for volunteers, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) operationalised personal importance using variables of respect and pride; and found that perceived respect was positively related to affective commitment. It was suggested that volunteers continue participating when the organisation clearly indicates the importance of volunteer activities to the organisation’s end-users - through tangible mechanisms such as celebratory newsletters or informal meetings with organisational beneficiaries. The “feel-good” factor generated by such mechanisms should not be underestimated. For example Yanay and Yanay (2008) identified that volunteer exit reflected decreasing perceptions of organisational importance or dependence. Likewise, the adequacy of communication loops and volunteer voice has been associated with ongoing satisfaction and an improved ability on a volunteer’s part to deal with organisationally-generated frustrations (Garner & Garner, 2011).

In summary, despite the initial inclusion of personal importance as a modelled antecedent of affective commitment, little empirical research has since been conducted. However, relationships between contributing elements of personal importance – such as decision-making participation – and commitment in paid staff contexts are apparent. In combination with the conceptual argument for a relationship between personal importance and volunteer commitment, and the recent study finding in this regard by Boezeman and Ellemers (2007), it is hypothesised that:

**H1b) Personal importance to the organisation will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.**

**Organisational support.**

Perceived organisational support is the belief of employees “concerning the degree to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008, p.55). It has become an omnipresent construct in organisational research, being predictive of commitment, role satisfaction, intent to remain (Eisenberger et al. 2002), and performance (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). A meta-analysis by Riggle, Edmondson, and Hansen (2009) found a strong relationship between organisational support and organisational commitment ($r = .71, p = <.001$), although did not specify commitment components. In terms of affective commitment,
Quenneville, Bentein, and Simard (2010) demonstrated “that when employees perceive their organisation as valuing the individual well-being of its members, their perceived organisational support is enhanced” (p.132), positively affecting affective commitment. This finding aligns with the positive associations identified in previous research by Tremblay et al. (2010) and Eisenberger et al. (2002).

Perceptions of organisational support are theorised to be positively associated with the affective commitment of volunteers (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Netting et al., 2004). This is a logical connection given organisational support has become increasingly important as a relational inducement to continue involvement by an individual in an organisation, alongside role satisfaction and more tangible elements such as financial remuneration (Maertz et al., 2007). It also aligns with the contention of Allen and Vandenberghe (2003) that human resource management practices, which recognise the contribution made by individuals and are perceived as reciprocated, indicate an organisation’s intent to “establish a fairly long term exchange relationship” (Tremblay et al. 2010, p.407) with its members. As such, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) have suggested that organisations wishing to heighten the commitment of their volunteers should target organisational experiences that “foster the perception that support is provided by the organisation” (p.783). According to Farmer and Fedor (1999), organisations should take an interest in the wellbeing of a volunteer, and provide volunteer-based, supportive social networks.

The role of organisational values is also worth noting. These values act as “implicit guides for action shared by organisational members, and serve as a framework upon which perceptions are built” (Quenneville et al., 2010, p.125). Social-oriented values are particularly important for NFP organisations, and often support the recruitment and motivation strategies applicable to employees and volunteers (Ban et al., 2003; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Drucker, 1989; Kim & Lee, 2007). Perceived organisational support is conceptualised by Eisenberger et al. (2001) as an “attribution by employees regarding the benevolent versus malevolent intent of the organisation toward them” (p.42). Thus, when organisational values reflect concern for an individual’s wellbeing, an individual is more likely to have a positive sense of organisational support (Quenneville et al., 2010). Alternatively, when the organisational emphasis is on explicit elements such as formal rules and procedures, the perception of organisational support is likely to decline, with associated detrimental implications for affective commitment (Quenneville et al., 2010).
Individual research studies and a meta-analysis (see Riggle et al., 2009) have identified a strong relationship between organisational support and affective commitment. Moreover, the volunteer literature reveals an affinity between the attributes of an NFP organisation, and the value of perceived organisational support as a positive inducement to volunteer commitment. It is thus hypothesised that:

\[ \text{H1c) Organisational support will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.} \]

**Role ambiguity.**

Role ambiguity refers to a “lack of clear understanding about the actions required to perform one’s role” (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Sakires et al., 2009, p.616). The situation may arise when there is a lack of clarity regarding what to do; how to perform a role; extent of personal authority; prioritisation of external expectations, performance assessment, and consequences of task non-completion (Kahn et al. 1964; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Sakires et al., 2009). Perceived ambiguity may be due to inadequate training, poor communication, or deliberate misinformation from a colleague or supervisor (Luthans, 1989). Individuals experiencing role ambiguity may be afraid to act, take responsibility, or make decisions on insufficient information (Onyemah, 2008).

Salanick (1977) and Mowday et al. (1982) theorised that role ambiguity might reduce levels of commitment to the employing organisation. Early meta-analyses (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985) identified role ambiguity as a negative correlate of commitment, a trend continued in subsequent meta-analyses (Meyer et al., 2002; Ortqvist & Vincent, 2006). More recently, individual studies have continued to identify the negative effect of role ambiguity on commitment in public, private (Addae, Parboteeah, & Velinor, 2008; Karadal, Ay, & Cuhadar, 2008), and NFP organisations (Wright & Millesen, 2008).

It appears to be a collective, and long held, assumption that role ambiguity is common in voluntary organisations, and is particularly prevalent for volunteer roles (Carver, 1997; Harris, 1989; Kikulis, 2000; Pearce, 1993; Widmer, 1993). Due to the duality of roles many volunteers play (as perhaps both consumers and providers of a service), the scope of responsibilities, and priority of activities, may be unclear. In terms of the wider organisation, imprecise objectives hinder performance monitoring,
while multiple stakeholders ensure the presence of competing agendas (Kaplan, 2001; Pearce, 1993; Sakires et al., 2009; Sawhill & Williamson, 2001; Widmer, 1993).

The volunteer management literature has attempted to address the complex environment described above through the adoption of basic human resource management principles. Organisational strategies have included the provision of role clarity through definition of role tasks, responsibilities, and boundaries; observance of person-organisational fit requirements; and promotion of personal interaction with the organisation (Judeh, 2011; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). The tactics appear to have merit, with research studies on the role ambiguity of volunteer sports administrators (Sakires et al., 2009) and Board members (Stephens et al., 2004) finding that levels of role ambiguity were lower than expected. The explanation that role ambiguity is avoided through careful attention to selection, orientation, and ongoing support processes such as training and feedback (Sakires et al., 2009) resonates with the transformative changes that the NFP sector has undertaken in recent years.

However, the discrepant research findings (Sakires et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2004) - in terms of the prevailing themes in the role ambiguity-commitment literature - indicate the value of further research regarding role ambiguity and volunteer commitment. The systematic reduction of role ambiguity for certain volunteer role types is an encouraging sign of improved volunteer management techniques. Nonetheless, the NFP environment remains vulnerable to the embedded characteristics of imprecise objectives, multiple stakeholder interests, and volunteer dependence. In line with the four meta-analyses cited above, and recent studies involving the paid workforce, it is arguable that the negative relationship between role ambiguity and affective commitment remains relevant. Even at low levels, it is proposed that role ambiguity will negatively impact an individual’s sense of ‘comfort’, and therefore lead to decreased commitment. As such, the degree to which role ambiguity is negatively associated with the affective commitment of volunteers merits continued consideration. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H1d) Role ambiguity will be negatively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.*

**Group 2: Structural Characteristics**

Structural characteristics, as derived from the work of Mowday et al. (1982), and incorporated into the Allen and Meyer (1990) model, includes three elements
considered relevant to affective commitment (see Figure 4.4). The first, formal procedures, refers to the extent to which an organisation has clearly defined procedures in support of performance objectives and service delivery outcomes. The second is the level of functional dependence between individual staff members or areas of the business as part of end-to-end processes, now commonly referred to as interdependence. The third aspect refers to the level of decentralisation; conceptualised as autonomy.

Structural characteristics have received far less research attention in comparison to work experiences. This is partly attributable to the Mathieu and Zajac (1990) finding of structural characteristics as non-significant in predicting commitment. However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggested that the variables remained relevant to future research. This is in line with the seminal statement by Mowday et al. (1982) that:

*Employees experiencing greater decentralisation, greater dependence on the work of others, and greater formality of written rules and procedures felt more committed to the organisation than, employees experiencing these factors to a lesser extent* (p.32).

**Formal procedures.**

While research on the direct relationship between formal procedures and affective commitment has largely been sidelined, the influential role of formal procedures in the formation of perceptions of ‘procedural justice’ – sometimes referred to a procedural ‘fairness’ - and subsequent development of affective commitment as a favourable outcome has generated considerable research interest. A number of studies have identified a positive relationship between formal procedures and procedural justice (Chi & Han, 2008; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Lind, Tyler, & Huo, 1997), as well as procedural justice and affective commitment (see Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Lemons & Jones, 2000; Lin, Hung, & Chiu, 2008; Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998; Schappe & Doran, 1997). Procedural justice is defined as the perceived ‘fairness’ of

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11 Lind, Tyler, Huo (1997) found that perceptions of benevolence and neutrality (respectively) on the part of those involved in procedures was positively correlated with procedural justice judgements ($r = .31$ and $r = .57$). Chi and Han (2008) identified a positive relationship between formal procedures and procedural justice - enacted through participation in decision-making ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$) and access to business information ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$), while Colquitt and Rodell (2011) identified a positive relationship between perceptions of process integrity and procedural justice ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$). Focused on staff who had survived downsizing, researchers identified a positive relationship between procedural justice and affective commitment ($r = .53$, $p < .01$)
organisational processes (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006), including the decision-making processes regarding the allocation of resources, rewards, or promotions (Folger & Greenberg, 1986).

It has been suggested that perceptions of ‘fairness’ are based on a number of elements being present. Such components may include: the opportunity to participate; the provision of information; the neutrality of organisational authorities and the degree to which such neutrality can be trusted; and the extent to which people are treated with dignity and respect, when decisions regarding resource or reward allocation are undertaken (Gilliland, 1993; Greenberg, 1990; Tyler, 2000). Building on this, Blader and Tyler (2003) developed a theoretical framework in support of procedural justice evaluations. This model distinguished justice type (decision making, quality of treatment) from justice source (formal, informal). The formal justice source is comprised of the formal policies and procedures of an organisation. Informal sources include the experiences an individual has with organisational authorities (e.g. a manager, CEO, or Board representative). Formal frameworks are characterised as structural, relatively constant, and applicable throughout the organisation, whereas informal bases are more dynamic, idiosyncratic and will vary dependent on the nature of the interpersonal relationship (e.g. between a staff member and line manager) (Blader & Tyler, 2003). According to Blader and Tyler (2003), formal and informal justice sources will separately influence the overall assessment of the fairness of organisational procedures.

To recall, formal procedures in relation to affective commitment, reflect the extent to which clear guidelines to inform behaviour and achieve strategic objectives exist. As such, formal procedures theoretically provide a framework by which to govern the behaviour of managers, the processes by which decisions are undertaken, the allocation of organisational resources, and the performance criteria linked to

(Hopkins & Weathington, 2006), as well as procedural fairness and affective commitment ($\beta = .31, p < .01$) (Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998), on the part of staff who believed the causal attribution provided by the organisation (Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998). Schappe and Doran (1997) found that perceptions of procedural justice significantly predicted affective commitment ($\beta = .42, p < .01$) in a small sample of financial services staff. Lemons and Jones (2000) found a positive relationship between the perceived fairness of promotional decisions and affective commitment. Lin et al. (2008) identified a relationship between procedural justice and commitment ($\beta = 0.43, p < .01$). Despite a hypothesis consistent with the research results noted above, Pare and Tremblay (2007) failed to confirm a positive relation between procedural justice and affective commitment.
rewards and promotions. These actions can be classified as both formal and informal sources in the perception of individuals. This positive perception of procedural justice is seen to contribute to the affective commitment of the individual.

Liao-Troth (2001) undertook a study which tested whether paid staff and volunteer attitudes would be similar when both groups were undertaking similar roles. Specific to procedural justice, Liao-Troth (2001) hypothesised that there would be no difference in the perception of paid staff or volunteers that inconsistent procedures were unfair, and this would negatively impact procedural justice. A significant relationship between procedural justice and commitment was not identified. However, the study highlighted an important question relevant to volunteer management, that is, the degree to which a volunteer’s work environment should be formalised in comparison to that of paid staff.

In practice, organisations utilising volunteers vary in the formality of engagement arrangements and workplace practices ranging from highly structured settings (such as a medical care facility), to very fluid arrangements, where the volunteer may have extensive autonomy in how the responsibilities are undertaken. Where a volunteer role is characterised by significant complexity, responsibility, or is undertaken in a complex, or potentially hazardous environment, the level of formal policy and procedure is likely to be high. In such circumstances, perceptions of procedural fairness and justice as a result of interaction with formal frameworks and engagement with managers will be formed. As these more formal environments can be likened to paid staff environments, it is likely that examination of the linkage between procedural justice and affective commitment for volunteers will replicate the paid staff findings cited above.

However, Chapter Two of this study noted the comparative ‘newness’ of application of management theory to the issues of NFP and volunteer management. This is not to suggest that concepts of justice and fairness are not important to volunteers. Rather, formal policy frameworks and procedures in a volunteer context are relatively new, and have not been specifically tested for their relationship with affective commitment, as modelled by Allen and Meyer (1990). Moreover, specific to volunteers, researchers have proposed that access to policy and procedural documentation provides boundaries, clarity around rules, and assists in maintaining compliance and accountability (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Shin & Kleiner, 2003). On the basis of the arguments outlined above it is hypothesised that:
**H1e) Formal procedures and policies will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.**

**Interdependence.**

Interdependent work processes has become a commonplace characteristic of the contemporary work environment. Interdependence of work processes is particularly important for many NFP organisations where skeletal staff structures and broad service offerings heighten the need for resource sharing and collective effort in order to achieve service-based or strategic objectives. In the literature, interdependence is categorised as ‘task’ and ‘outcome’ interdependence. These aspects are defined below, along with the theoretical association of interdependence with commitment.

Task interdependence is the degree to which individuals perceive their assigned tasks to be interconnected; whereby the completion of a definitive piece of work is reliant on the completion of other distinct pieces of work – often by other people (Bishop & Scott, 2000; Kiggundu, 1983; Van der Vegt, Emans, & Van de Vliert, 1998). Task ‘initiated’ interdependence is when the work is generated before being passed on, while task ‘received’ interdependence reflects the dependency on work received prior to completion of a further piece of work (Kiggundu, 1983). Such interdependent processes often require interaction with others (Bishop & Scott, 2000). “Even team members who work independently at their jobs sometimes require others to provide information and supplies to complete their work” (Van der Vegt et al., 1998, p.137). The more complex the process, the greater the extent to which members must exchange information and resources, or work together, to achieve the end goal (Van der Vegt, Emans, & Van de Vliert, 1999, 2000).

Outcome interdependence reflects the extent to which individuals perceive their personal goals, process outcomes, and rewards as related (Van der Vegt et al. 1999). In theory, a positive interpretation of outcome interdependence is due to the alignment between the successful performance of other process or workgroup members and an individual’s own objectives. A negative view interprets the success of other members as detrimental to an individual’s own goals (Deutsch, 1973, 1980; Kelly & Thibaut, 1978; Van der Vegt et al., 1998).

Research (see Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993, Campion, Papper, & Medsker, 1996; Kiggundu, 1983; Van der Vegt et al., 2000) suggests that medium-to-high task interdependence can encourage satisfaction and commitment on the part of
the individual – albeit directed at the job, team, or organisational level. Moreover, the greater the interaction through shared work processes and outcomes, the more likely that camaraderie and social network will develop, promoting feelings of belonging and attachment (Lin et al., 2008; Van der Vegt et al., 2000).

Specific to the development of organisational commitment, when high task interdependence is perceived, an individual is theoretically more conscious of his or her contribution to the process, enhancing his or her ego and positive affect towards the organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morris & Steers, 1980). Morris and Steers (1980) established empirical support for this proposed association between task interdependence and organisational commitment. This relationship has attracted more recent empirical research support. For example, Bishop and Scott (2000) found a positive relationship between task interdependence and organisational commitment. Van der Vegt et al. (2000) identified a positive relationship between task interdependence and affective commitment (albeit team rather than organisationally directed). Geyskens, Jan-Benedict, Steenkamp, Scheer, and Kumar (1996) found that interdependence (in a marketing relationship context) was positively related to affective commitment.

According to Brooks (2002), the relationship between interdependence and organisational commitment is further enhanced through the combination of task interdependence and a positive view of outcome interdependence. However, while these combinative relationships have been empirically examined, findings to date have been mixed (see Lin et al. 2008; Van der Vegt et al. 2000). Lin et al. (2008) identified that outcome interdependence contributed more strongly to the development of positive social networks, than did task interdependence.

When interdependence is interpreted positively, “employees learn to back up each other in order to accomplish shared organisational tasks together during a specific project” and “experience shared output and rewards at the end” (Lin et al., 2008, p.572-573). As such, Lin et al. (2008) suggested, based on their study findings, that organisational commitment might be further reinforced through the acknowledgement of task and outcome interdependence and the development of strong social ties.

The referenced studies strongly suggest the existence of a positive relationship between independence and affective commitment. It is therefore hypothesised that the:

**H1f) Interdependence of work processes will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.**
Autonomy.

Decentralisation is the dispersion of power from a central core to a more peripheral arrangement. This may translate as semi-autonomous, regionally dispersed units of operation, with accountability for local results. Within an individual organisation, decentralisation involves the delegation of decision-making or other forms of authority to an operational level. Autonomy is defined as the “freedom to exercise skill and expertise without the control of an external agent” (Wells, 1990, p.2). The resultant autonomous capacity is dependent on participative management strategies, whereby regional, local, or individuals lower in the organisational hierarchy, are able to access greater levels of knowledge and information in order to make decisions (Lawler, 1992). It has been suggested that a reasonable level of operational autonomy is conducive to the development of affective commitment through the creation of a positive organisational climate characterised by trust and a sense of personal responsibility (Hawkins, 1998), such that individuals possess a sense of control over what and how they pursue work responsibilities and tasks. Halaby and Weakliem (1989) have argued that job autonomy is an essential factor of organisational commitment, and deserves further research consideration.

A limited number of studies have assessed the autonomy-organisational commitment relationship. In a study of Canadian nurse managers, Acorn, Ratner, and Crawford (1997) found positive relationships between increased levels of decentralisation and autonomy, and increased autonomy and organisational commitment (generic). Gagne and Deci (2005) found in a longitudinal study that the motivation inherent in autonomy facilitates the development of organisational commitment. More recent research has continued to identify a positive relationship between autonomy and organisational commitment (generic) (Dude, 2012; Siew, Chitpakdee, & Chontawan, 2011).

Autonomy is a basic characteristic of many NFP organisations. Volunteers often operate on a satellite basis, for example, regional branches, and can see themselves or their activities as quite distinct from ‘Head Office’. Even where operations are more centralised, not every activity can be supervised (Schneider & Bowen, 1995), necessitating the autonomous function of individuals. Commitment has been noted as a specific outcome of the operational autonomy characteristic of the NFP sector (Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Cunningham, 2000). It is evident in the literature, that as quasi-employees, volunteers regard themselves as even further detached from the
organisation than paid colleagues, and as such, may perceive themselves to be even more autonomous. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H1g) Operational autonomy will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.*

**Group 3: Personal Characteristics**

**Need satisfaction.**

Need satisfaction belongs to the final group of antecedents attributed to affective commitment. The ongoing importance of need satisfaction has been periodically emphasised in the commitment literature. To this end, the meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) highlighted the relevance of need satisfaction (albeit affiliation and achievement forms) as a predictor of commitment; and noted that such questions remained overlooked. Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that the dispositional elements allocated as personal characteristics have received little attention, despite the identification by Mowday et al. (1982) of need satisfaction (alongside work ethic and general interest) as a contributing factor to commitment. The subsequent theorisation that employees perceiving their basic needs to be satisfied “develop stronger affective attachment to the organisation” (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539), and that these committed individuals will willingly contribute to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997) in exchange for continuing need satisfaction, accords with Mowday (1989).

More recently, Marta, Guglielmetti, and Pozzi (2006) have proposed that volunteering motivation is the reflection of psychological needs; that these needs will vary within an individual, between people, and environment; and may lead to desired organisational outcomes, including intent to commit. Moreover, Steinmetz et al. (2011) have proposed that employees develop increased levels of commitment in positive reciprocation of need satisfaction in an organisational environment. For the purposes of this study, need satisfaction is thus, deemed the most relevant of Mowday et al.’s (1982; Mowday, 1989) dispositional factors, and will be the only dispositional antecedent assessed for a direct relationship with affective commitment.

On the principle that individuals will volunteer on the basis of one or more cognitively-evaluated needs (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991), and that these needs may differ in comparison to paid employees, a considerable amount of work has been undertaken to conceptualise and operationalise volunteer needs (see Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992, Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Snyder & Omoto, 1992),
through a motivational lens. For example, Clary et al. (1992) developed a six dimensional categorisation of volunteer motivation, finding that assessment of motivational categorisation and job match led to enhanced role success on the part of an individual. The subsequent development of the Volunteer Functional Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al., 1998) operationalised the six functions thought to underpin volunteer motivation. These functions reflected underlying needs of work experience or skills practice, ego protection, the actualisation of personal values, social interaction, and esteem enhancement (Clary et al., 1998).

Two of the above need dimensions defined by Clary et al. (1998) have been selected for examination in this study: values and esteem. This decision is based on the positive correlations, reported in volunteer studies, between these dimensions and desirable volunteer attitudes and behaviour (see Snyder & Omoto, 1992; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). It is apparent in the volunteer-centric literature that volunteer involvement is strongly motivated by a desire to help people (addressing the value-need dimension), and recognition that such efforts make a difference (fulfilling esteem-based need dimension). In addition, it has been identified that the satisfaction of esteem-based needs contribute to affective commitment (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009; Snyder & Omoto, 1992).

Recent studies have marked the end of the research hiatus. While employee-volunteering programs were, excluded from this study, findings by Madison, Ward, and Royalty (2012) reported a positive correlation between respondents’ enjoyment of the volunteering experience, and their organisational commitment. This finding reflects the assertion that volunteering contributes to positive self-image (Yanay & Yanay, 2008), and therefore contributes to the esteem dimension of need satisfaction. Conversely, a study by Pajo and Lee (2010) examining the motivations of corporate volunteers in New Zealand, “reaffirmed the importance of altruistic concerns as a key driver for employee involvement” (p.467) in volunteering activities.

A number of points are evident in the reviewed literature. First, the opportunities provided by the organisational environment to satisfy individual needs of volunteers. The second point is the reiterated proposition of need satisfaction as a relevant antecedent of affective commitment, and its neglect in empirical research. Finally, given the conceptual distinction between the character of paid employee and volunteer needs, this study notes the identification of volunteer-specific needs (as
modelled by Clary et al., 1998) and the connection of value and esteem dimensions to volunteer commitment. As such, it is hypothesised that:

\( H1h \) Need satisfaction (values-based) will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers, and

\( H1i \) Need satisfaction (esteem-based) will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.

Summary of Hypothesised Antecedents of Affective Commitment of Volunteers

Figure 4.5 summarises the variables associated with Research Question One – the antecedents of affective commitment for volunteers. The direction of the hypothesised relationship between each antecedent and affective commitment is shown, as well as the hypothesis number.
GROUP 1: ROLE CHARACTERISTICS / WORK EXPERIENCES

- ROLE SCOPE (H1a)
- PERSONAL IMPORTANCE TO ORGANISATION (H1b)
- ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT (H1c)
- ROLE AMBIGUITY (H1d)

GROUP 2: STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

- FORMALISATION OF PROCEDURES (H1e)
- INTERDEPENDENCE (H1f)
- AUTONOMY (H1g)

GROUP 3: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

**DISPOSITIONAL**
- NEED SATISFACTION (ESTEEM) (H1h)
- NEED SATISFACTION (VALUE) (H1i)

Figure 4.5: Summary of hypothesised antecedents of affective commitment of volunteers for this study
The Antecedents of Normative Commitment

Research Question Two is focused on the identification, and empirical testing, of the antecedents of normative commitment within a volunteer context. Normative commitment is evident when a volunteer remains with the organisation because it is the right thing to do (Allen & Meyer, 1990), based on aspects of indebted obligation and moral duty (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Extant research supports a positive relationship between socialisation experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Weiner, 1982), psychological contract (Meyer et al. 2002), reciprocity (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Meyer et al. 1993; Scholl, 1981); and normative commitment.

The recent attempt by theorists (Meyer & Parfyonova 2010; Wayne et al., 2009) to reconceptualise normative commitment and its antecedents underscores the transition occurring within normative commitment research. To recall, the obligation to reciprocate considered integral to normative commitment is being more broadly interpreted, with a number of potential obligations being identified (Assor et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Sideridis, 2008; Wayne et al., 2009). Meyer and Parfyonova (2011) have categorised these obligations as dual perceptions of “indebtedness” and “moral duty” (p. 283). As such, it is suggested by these theorists that activities and antecedents traditionally associated with one commitment mindset, may also have implications for an alternate commitment component. To take the example of workplace training, it is the conventional understanding that training may be interpreted as an expression of organisational support (traditionally associated with affective commitment), but might also be seen as a benefit requiring reciprocation (via normative commitment). According to a dual perception of normative commitment obligations, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) have suggested, that POS would contribute to more than basic reciprocation, through a sense of indebtedness, to the development of a “moral duty to a mutually caring relationship” (p. 291).

For the purposes of this study, the reconceptualisation of normative commitment obligations beyond reciprocity, has led to the nomination of only socialisation, and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values as antecedents of the normative commitment of volunteers (the subject of Research Question Two). These variables, and the hypothesised relationships with normative commitment, are depicted in Figure 4.6. Socialisation experiences have been identified in a number of studies as an antecedent of normative commitment for volunteers.
Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values is included, based on the premise that this antecedent is particularly relevant to volunteers. Further support for the inclusion of this variable is evident in the reviewed literature (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2011; Stephens et al., 2004), but will be more fully articulated in the next section.
Figure 4.6: Proposed antecedents of normative commitment of volunteers

(Adapted from Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004)
Socialisation experiences.

Organisational socialisation is the process by which an individual identifies the values, behaviours, and social knowledge required to participate as an organisational member (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogen, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Chen & Chui, 2009; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). According to Filstad (2011), the socialisation literature reflects several domains including socialisation tactics (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002), information acquisition and active sense-making (Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Finkelstein, Kulas, & Dages, 2003), and the role of social networks (Morrison, 2002), which collectively contribute to the socialisation experience and outcomes. There is consensus, however, on essential characteristics of the socialisation experience, including “task mastery, role clarification, acculturation, and social integration” (Filstad, 2011, p.377).

Historically, socialisation has been understood as a unidirectional flow of information, regarding technical aspects of the job and cultural norms, from the organisation to the individual (see Miller & Jablin, 1991). This position is rapidly becoming redundant, with individuals perceived as increasingly interactive in the socialisation process (Judeh, 2011). According to Judeh (2011), organisations are transitioning from an ‘institutionalised’ to ‘individualised’ role orientation. While the former approach emphasised conformance and obedience to the prevailing organisational rules and norms, the latter promotes individual creativity and a willingness to “experiment with changing norms and values” (Judeh, 2011, p.172). Integral to this interactive approach, is the role of social networks, which according to Filstad (2011) and Morrison (2002) facilitate knowledge transfer, role clarity, and expectation management, through participation and practice. Moreover, a meta-analysis by Saks et al. (2007) and a recent study by Filstad (2011) indicated that social tactics strongly predict socialisation outcomes.

Effective socialisation can have lasting and positive effects, enhancing organisational fit, role fit, and organisational commitment (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010). In terms of empirical investigation, Allen and Meyer (1990a) found that socialisation experiences positively predicted commitment, while Ashforth and Saks (1996) identified a positive relationship between institutional socialisation tactics and organisational commitment. Mitus (2006) determined that socialisation program content, emphasising organisational goals and values as a knowledge-based objective, invoked rising commitment levels on the part of paid staff.
Socialisation remains crucial to the orientation of new organisational members (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010; Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2012). However, it is now acknowledged that socialisation processes are iterative in nature, applicable to any adjustments to an individual’s role or workplace (Judeh, 2011; Reio & Callahan, 2004; Schein, 1988). According to this logic, socialisation experiences theoretically continue to inform attitudes and guide behaviours, for the entirety of an individual’s organisational tenure. Despite this, Cohen and Veled-Hecht (2010) noted that research on socialisation, as a correlate of commitment, remains scarce. “Such studies are so thin on the ground that several meta-analyses (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002), which examined correlates of organisational commitment, did not even consider socialisation as a determinant, probably because of lack of data” (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010, p.539).

While the commitment literature is perhaps deficient, socialisation meta-analyses (see Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) have affirmed the positive relationship between socialisation and commitment. Study findings since have remained consistent with the meta-analytic conclusions (see Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010; Klein, Fan, & Preacher, 2006). Cohen and Veled-Hecht (2010) recently found that socialisation was a positive predictor of organisational commitment (generic), explaining 21 per cent of its variance. On this basis, according to Cohen (2011, p.539) “organisations, scholars, and practitioners should therefore be very interested in understanding this relationship”.

In the current study, the examination of the socialisation experience as an antecedent of normative commitment is further justified by research conducted in the volunteer environment. Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) found, similar to Filstad (2011) and Morrison (2002), that the social experience is highly valued, and that volunteer commitment is reinforced by the existence of appropriate group norms (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008) established as part of the socialisation experience. For volunteers seeking socio-emotional need fulfillment, such norms, combined with social interaction, provide a powerful incentive to remain involved with the organisation (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Wymer, 2012; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). As such, the current research attempts to leverage the broadened interpretation of the obligations associated with normative commitment, in particular the dual perceptions of indebtedness and moral duty (Meyer & Parfynova, 2010). This proposition is further bolstered by research indicating that
volunteers variously replicate parental example, join friends, or build social relationships with their team on organisational entry (see Smith & Baldwin, 1974; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H2a) \text{ Socialisation experiences will be positively related to the normative commitment of volunteers.} \]

**Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values.**

Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values refers to the degree of alignment between an organisation’s mission and values, and the personal values of an individual (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004). A positive relationship between values and organisational commitment has been well established in the literature (see Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Boxx, Odum, & Dunn, 1991; Meglino, Ravlin, & Atkins, 1991; Rosete, 2006; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). In line with the proposition of Meyer and Allen (1997), a positive relationship between values and affective commitment has also been identified (see Abbott et al., 2005; Finegan, 2000). More specifically, increased value congruence has been found to be related to affective commitment (see Amos & Weathington, 2008; Cohen, 2011; Howell et al., 2012).

The above research has resulted in a widespread perception that value congruence is a natural fit with affective commitment, potentially categorising it as a dispositional antecedent (refer Figure 4.4). The existing research notwithstanding, some researchers have maintained that the predictive relationship between individual values and commitment remains under-researched (Cohen, 2011; Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009). Specific to normative commitment, only two studies appear to have been conducted (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Finegan, 2000). Both Amos and Weathington (2008) and Finegan (2000), however, established a positive association between values and normative commitment. These findings support the theoretical observations that normative commitment is partially dependent on individual predispositions, including personal-organisational value congruence (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Weiner, 1982).

As such, congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values is included as an antecedent of normative commitment in this study. In addition to the lack of research consideration referenced above, the proposition reflects the alignment that individual volunteers seek between their own sense of ethics or social contribution,
and the mission and values of an organisation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Tidwell, 2005; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). While relatively emergent in terms of empirical examination, this proposition strikes a natural resonance with the volunteer literature. Volunteers assess organisations, based on the compatibility between their personal beliefs and organisational mission and values\(^\text{12}\) (Catano et al., 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Van Vuuren et al., 2008) - the resultant alignment of which may manifest as normative commitment (Iles, Forster, & Tinline, 1996; Meyer et al., 1997; Stephens et al., 2004).

Values (interpersonal, well-being, and relationship-oriented), and the associated implicit beliefs, are deemed as fundamental to the determination of workplace attitudes and behaviours, providing standards, and justification for specific decisions and related behaviour (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Quenneville et al., 2010). Cohen (2011) has theorised that individuals will be “happier and more motivated, satisfied, and committed when their values are congruent with those emphasised in the organisation or vocational group” (p.647). For example, Sheridan (1992) identified that organisations, which emphasised interpersonal relations over productivity, enjoyed longevity of employee tenure. Vandenberghe and Peiro (1999) reported a positive relationship between organisational values (interpersonal support and procedural justice), and levels of both affective and normative commitment.

According to Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) “value congruence is commonly considered an integral part of person-organisational (P-O) fit”, and as such makes an “important contribution to the development of commitment” (p.287). P-O fit is the compatibility generated through similar characteristics or need supply, on the part of individual and/or organisation (Giuseppe, Kristof-Brown, Brown, & Locke, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). P-O fit is a contextually based variant of person-environment fit theory, which assumes that individuals will seek an environment with characteristics, such as values and beliefs, similar to their own (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Cohen, 2011; Kroeger, 1995). The construct is foundational to human resource management practices, enabling potential employers to gauge their future employee (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and for more

\(^{12}\) Values reflect both espoused and enacted values on the part of the organisation and its actors (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009).
formalised NFP organisations to recruit and evaluate their volunteers (Liao-Troth, 2005).

P-O fit has been found to be positively associated with desirable attitudes and behaviours on the part of the individual (for an extensive list see Amos & Weathington, 2008), and organisational commitment in particular (Finegan, 2000; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Rosete, 2006). Amos and Weathington (2008) examined the values component of P-O fit (specifically the level of congruence between individual and organisation values) and its relationship with the outcomes of job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, and turnover. Value congruence was found to be a positive and significant predictor of both affective ($r = .36, p < .05$) and normative ($r = .34, p < .05$) commitment forms.

Finegan (2000) built on the conclusion of O’Reilly et al. (1991) that “normative value-based commitment was predicted by person-organisation fit” (Finegan, 2000, p.151). It was proposed that discrete values (or clusters thereof) might differentially influence commitment outcomes, and that “situations that produce affective commitment are also likely to increase the employee’s sense of obligation to the company (that is, normative commitment)” (Finegan 2000, p.163). Finegan (2000) tested whether P-O fit and value congruence were significant predictors of both affective and normative commitment. P-O fit was found to be related to affective commitment only. By contrast, when an individual’s values were deemed to be congruent with certain organisational values, it was predictive of normative commitment only. Most recently, Somers (2010) “found that perceptions of personal and organisational value congruence were significantly higher among employees with an affective / normative commitment dominant profile that they were in any other profile group” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.287).

At the start of this section, it was noted that volunteers engage with organisations, based on perceived compatibility of beliefs, values, and activities. Empirical research has shown a positive relationship with moral identity on the part of an individual’s behavioural outcomes, including volunteerism (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Moreover, the visible contribution of volunteers to “the overall mission and goals of the organisation” (Farmer & Fedor, 1999, p.364) has been found to be positively associated with retention. Identification by an individual with the values of an organisation remains traditionally allocated as an antecedent of affective commitment. The empirical studies testing this relationship have however, generally focused on paid staff.
In theory, allegiance to meaningful objectives can promote satisfaction and an intrinsic sense of reward, even in the absence of economic or other benefits (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007; Shamir, 1990; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). The social mission and ethos characteristic of an NFP organisation may provide motivation for employees, despite other aspects of their work or operating environment being deficient. Such “employees may be willing to make some sacrifices, and continue to cooperate with the organisation because it is the ‘right’ thing to do for ‘the cause’” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.289).

While considered an emergent proposition, and a relationship which may only be applicable to volunteers, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H2b) \ Congruence\ of\ personal\ values\ with\ organisational\ mission\ and\ values\ will\ be\ positively\ related\ to\ the\ normative\ commitment\ of\ volunteers. \]

**Summary of Hypothesised Antecedents of Normative Commitment of Volunteers**

Figure 4.7 summarises the variables associated with Research Question Two – the antecedents of affective commitment for volunteers. The direction of the hypothesised relationship between the antecedent and affective commitment is shown, as well as the hypothesis number.
Figure 4.7: Summary of hypothesised antecedents of normative commitment of volunteers for this study
Control Variables

In correlational studies – such as this one - it is the unique relationship between each independent variable, and the dependent variable, that is of specific interest. Other variables that may theoretically influence the dependent variable, but that are not actually the focus of the hypothesised relationship, should be identified, measured, “and their effects removed from the relationship, so that the unique impact added by the independent variable can be determined” (Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007, p.50). From a methodological perspective, control of these spurious or extraneous variables is achieved by including them in regression analyses alongside the explanatory or independent variables. Failure to include extraneous variables can bias the regression through omission.

In this study, the extraneous variables theorised to influence the formation of affective and normative commitment are the personal characteristics of the respondents that might impact attitudinal development. Accordingly, four demographic variables have been selected for use in this study as control variables, at the individual level, in an attempt to “eliminate alternative explanations for significant relationships” (Cohen, 2011, p.649; Suazo, 2009). These variables include age, gender, education, and length of organisational tenure.

Meta-analyses (see Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002) have concluded that despite the observed correlations, “demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organisational commitment, regardless of its form” (Meyer et al., 2002, p.38), justifying the widespread use of these personal variables as background demographic, rather than explanatory, variables by researchers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, the inclusion of these demographic variables in the regression model is consistent with their inclusion as antecedents in Allen and Meyer’s (1990) model of organisational commitment, as well as more recent literature (Madison et al., 2012; Salami, 2008).

Madison et al. (2012) has provided a more recent synopsis of research findings in relation to demographic variables and organisational commitment. Their review noted that Brimeyer, Perrucci, and Wadsworth (2010) appear to be the sole source “reporting a significant, positive relationship between age and organisational commitment” (Madison et al., 2012, p.7). Glisson and Durick (1988) found a negative relationship between education levels and organisational commitment, conditional on greater alternate employment opportunities afforded by higher education, while the
negative relationship between education and commitment found by Brimeyer et al. (2010) was moderated by tenure.

No significant relationship has been found between gender and organisational commitment (refer Bruning & Snyder, 1983; Gaan, 2008; Kacmar, Carlson & Bryner, 1999). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported that women have slightly higher levels of organisational commitment than do men (O’Reilly et al., 1991). While the volunteer gender ratio of many NFP organisations is skewed in favour of females, the effect of gender on volunteering is unclear (Madison et al., 2012). Researchers have speculated that women are predisposed to volunteer based on a greater sense of altruism, empathy, and the value of helping others (Wilson & Musick, 1997), but may encounter significant time constraints which limit volunteering capacity (Wilson, 2000; MacPhail & Bowles, 2009).

In summary, individual studies have identified relationships between the nominated control variables for this study and either affective or normative commitment. However, the conclusions of commitment meta-analyses (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002) remain valid, such that these demographic elements play a relatively minor role, once other antecedents – such as role scope, organisational support, or socialisation - are accounted for.

**Exploration of the Mediated Relationships**

Mediation involves the introduction of a variable (M) between the directly related input (X) and output variables (Y), in order to examine the intervening effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), assessment of a mediation effect is appropriate when strong relationships exist firstly, between the independent and dependent variable (X→Y), and secondly, between the independent variable and proposed mediating variable (X→M). The implication of these two relationships is that there will be a further quantifiable relationship between the proposed mediating variable and the dependent variable (M→Y), thereby creating an indirect effect through the X→M→Y path.

The reviewed research literature provides support for the direct relationships between the predictors (X) and the dependent variables of affective and normative commitment (Y), and has informed the first two research questions (and entailed hypotheses) of this study. In terms of the X→M and M→Y relationships comprising the proposed mediated path, there is a combination of theoretical and empirical support.
Starting with the X→M relationship, the underlying rationale reflects the integral role of the strategic human resource framework in determining the type of psychological contract formed and its associated obligations (Mowday, 1989; Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). To recall, the formative psychological contract draws on dispositional aspects of an individual, as well as organisational factors, as experienced through human resource practices and other elements of the organisational environment (Grant, 1999). A positive experience of these human resource management practices theoretically promotes development of a more relational contract on the part of the individual (Guchait, 2007; Guzzo et al., 1994), thereby shaping contract content, expectations, and subsequent interpretive capacity within relational parameters (Grant, 1999; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994; Vantilborgh et al., 2011).

From this very broad perspective of the link between human resource management strategy and the characterisation of the psychological contract, it is necessary to identify discrete relationships that can be tested. Among the antecedents of affective and normative commitment are a number of variables that may theoretically be transmitted by the relational aspects of an individual’s psychological contract. For example, the pivotal role of work experiences in relation to affective commitment (represented by role scope, personal importance, and organisational support in this study), is also held to be an important influence on the relational characterisation of the psychological contract (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Uen et al., 2009).

Progressing to the M→Y relationship - the association between a relational psychological contract and both normative and affective commitment - Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have contended that an individual’s perception of the psychological contract is a potentially important determinant of his or her organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Moreover, Meyer and his colleagues have consistently proposed the psychological contract as an antecedent of normative commitment (see Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; McInnes et al., 2009), and promoted the value of further research into the relationship (Klein et al., 2009; McInnes et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The relationalism of the psychological contract is also thought to be positively associated with normative commitment (Meyer et al., 1997; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). Research studies have also identified relationships
between psychological contract and affective commitment (see Bunderson, 2001; Lester et al., 2002; Philip & Lopez, 2013; Sels et al., 2004), as well as a relational psychological contract and affective commitment (Cohen, 2011). The above discussion provides theoretical and empirical support for the X→Y and X→M paths (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It is thus reasonable to propose that the relational psychological contract may act as a transmission factor of the effects of the commitment antecedents on the commitment relationships. To recall, this mediated relationship is the subject of the third research question for this study: does a relational psychological contract mediate the direct relationships between the antecedents and dependent variables of affective and normative commitment?

This avenue of investigation is valuable for several reasons. It partly addresses the concern, as noted by Liao-Troth (2005), that there has been little empirical consideration of the antecedents of specific forms of psychological contract – by testing proposed antecedents (albeit commitment derived) of the X→M path. Furthermore, in line with contemporary research interest in the ‘black box’ of commitment relationships (Takeuchi et al., 2009; Vantilborgh et al., 2013), the current study builds on the limited empirical research that has tested a relational psychological contract as a mediator of antecedent-commitment relationships (see Richard et al., 2009: Uen et al., 2009). Richard et al. (2009) identified that a relational psychological contract positively mediated the organisational culture – affective commitment relationship. Uen et al. (2009), found that a relational psychological contract, positively mediated the relationship between commitment-based human resource management systems and extra-role behaviour (specifically organisational citizenship).

Uen et al. (2009) designed their study to leverage the current research interest in identifying organisational behavioural constructs that mediate the relationship between strategic human resource management and organisational performance. They also argued that commitment-based human resource management systems - which encourage the development of socio-emotional and implicit obligations - were naturally and positively associated with the relational characterisation of the psychological contract (Uen et al., 2009). This position is consistent with the reviewed literature. It recognises the underlying contention that human resource management strategy – particularly when focused on socio-emotional rewards or intrinsic values alongside extrinsic principles - can assist in the development of positive perceptions of personal
importance (through opportunities for organisational participation) or organisational support (training opportunities). Moreover, these perceptions are held as important predictors of both a relational psychological contract and organisational commitment (Guchait, 2007; Guzzo et al., 1994).

Wright and Boswell (2002) have conceptualised the psychological contract as the linking mechanism between human resource management frameworks and employee behaviour. It is suggested in this study that the relational psychological contract can be similarly conceived as the transmitting factor in the relationships between selected commitment antecedents and organisational commitment components. Given the cited empirical research, and theoretical development, it is no longer appropriate that psychological contract be attributed as a simple antecedent of normative commitment. Accordingly, the examination of the relational psychological contract, as a mediating variable on the antecedent-commitment relationships, contributes to the research knowledge of how contract character impacts on “organisationally relevant outcomes” (Uen et al., 2009, p. 220) such as affective and normative commitment. To further draw from the literature, this examination also generates further insight into the nature of the psychological contract (Hui et al., 2004; Uen et al., 2009).

Specifically, it is suggested that selected antecedents of commitment also contribute to the development of a more relational contract. In turn, the relational psychological contract - as a means of quantifying the organisational relationship - promotes commitment as an appropriate response to relationally oriented exchange obligations. The examination of these propositions is well-timed given the emergent application of SNHRM theory, and dimensions of the psychological contract, to volunteer management. Many of the processes associated with human resource management practices, held to predict commitment, and / or the development of relational psychological contract obligations, are arguably just as suitable for volunteers as traditional paid employees (Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010, 2013).

Drawing from the integrated commitment and psychological contract literature, the antecedents theoretically associated with the formation and relational characterisation of the psychological contract include role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction (esteem and value dimensions), socialisation, and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values. It is important to note that the mediating effect of a relational psychological
contract on the relationship between affective commitment and its identified predictors, such as role scope, personal importance, perceived organisational support, or need satisfaction do not appear to have been specifically examined. The same conclusion is apparent for the mediating role of a relational psychological contract in the relationships between normative commitment and its antecedents (socialisation, and congruence of mission and values).

Accordingly, it is timely to investigate the relational psychological contract as a transmission factor for each of these antecedents in relation to commitment outcomes. These proposed relationships are displayed in Figure 4.8. The discussion of each antecedent in conjunction with the relevant mediation hypothesis follows.
Figure 4.8: Theorised mediation pathway by individual antecedent, for affective and normative commitment
Mediation Hypotheses

This section presents the relevant hypotheses required to test the indirect effect of a relational psychological contract on the direct relationships of commitment antecedents and outputs of affective and normative commitment. The specific antecedents for each commitment component are displayed in Figure 4.8. For each dependent variable, it can be seen that while individual paths connect each of the proposed antecedents to a relational psychological contract, there is only one path representing the relationship between the mediator and dependent variable. This is not to suggest that each antecedent does not have its own distinct relationship (through the $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ path), but that from a navigational perspective the primary focus of this section will be the delineation of the theoretical arguments supporting the relationships between $X$ and $M$: the path between individual antecedent and a relational psychological contract. Arguments have already been presented regarding the direct relationships between antecedents and the dependent variables of affective and normative commitment ($X \rightarrow Y$), so will only be briefly referred to. Likewise, the theorised relationship between a relational psychological contract and respective dependent variables of affective and normative commitment ($M \rightarrow Y$) has also been presented, and will only be referred to as required. To recall, a relational psychological contract has been theorised as a predictor of normative commitment (McInnes et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer et al., 1997; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994), while empirical research has established a positive relationship between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment (Bunderson, 2001). Given the conceptualisation of commitment antecedents in relation to a relational psychological contract has not been the subject of empirical investigation, it is important that a logical argument be presented for each, gleaned from the available literature.

The mediated affective commitment hypotheses will be presented first. Independent variables include role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction dimensions of esteem and values. The antecedents for normative commitment: socialisation and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values will follow.

**Role scope.**

As outlined earlier, role scope is comprised of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Collectively, these
aspects create a sense of challenge and performance motivation (Eby et al., 1999; Goris et al., 2003; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The contention that role scope is positively and directly related to affective commitment is based on the extent to which these elements are present, informing a sense of competence (Meyer et al., 1997), and understanding of work outcomes (Tremblay & Roger, 2004). The conceptualisation of role scope as a predictor of affective commitment has empirical support through individual studies (see Eby et al., 1999; Rush et al., 1999; Meyer et al., 1997) as well as meta-analyses (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Humphrey et al., 2007; Riketta, 2002).

The designation of a psychological contract as relational enables the relationship between an individual and organisation to be characterised and defined, beyond the scope of a simple employment contract. As such, a relational psychological contract, addresses non-monetiseable aspects of the employment relationship, and can positively influence motivation, commitment, and retention (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). Bloom and Milkovich (1996) refer to this expanded scope as a ‘compensation bundle’, whereby the non-monetiseable elements provide an informal means by which organisations can compensate workers (Rousseau et al., 2006). Role scope is regarded by Graen and Scandura (1987) as a particularly influential element in the formation of a psychological contract, yet to date appears to have not been examined. Arguably, the more significant the outcomes of the work undertaken, or enrichment of role scope, will positively influence the relational characterisation of the psychological contract.

The potential of a relational psychological contract in transmitting the effects of role scope to affective commitment becomes apparent, such that, as components of role scope reinforce a sense of relationalism of contract terms, the resultant relational contract promotes a sense of affective commitment. On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H3a) \text{a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between role scope and the affective commitment of volunteers.} \]

**Personal importance.**

Perceived level of personal importance to the organisation, assessed through involvement in organisational decision-making and receipt of feedback, is a modelled antecedent of affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982) that has received little research attention. Nonetheless, it is thought to be particularly
relevant to the affective commitment of volunteers (Garner & Garner, 2011; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Yanay & Yanay, 2008); a proposition supported by empirical research (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2007). Personal importance has been included as an antecedent of affective commitment, under examination in this study.

Similar to the direct relationship, while personal importance has not previously been examined in relation to the psychological contract, there has been a study on a contributory element of personal importance and the psychological contract. Bellou (2007) identified a positive relationship between decision-making involvement and the psychological contract. Findler et al. (2007) found that employees included in decision-making processes were more committed to the organisation, based on the sense of value derived by an individual when his or her views are regarded as substantive (Chen, 2011). This sense of value promotes sentiments of belonging and contribution on the part of an individual (Chen, 2011) - attributes which are arguably aligned with the relational elements of the psychological contract, particularly for volunteers (Cuskelly, 1995; Garner & Garner, 2011; Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Yanay & Yanay, 2008).

Given a relational psychological contract is understood to be highly idiosyncratic, long term, and based on the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs, it is reasonable to suggest that an enhanced perception of personal importance is likely to positively influence the assessment of relational contract obligations. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

\[ H3b) \text{a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between perceptions of personal importance and the affective commitment of volunteers.} \]

**Organisational support.**

According to the reviewed literature, a positive perception of the support provided by an organisation remains a substantive antecedent of affective commitment on the part of paid staff (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Quenneville et al., 2010; Tremblay et al., 2010), and – by theoretical extension - organisational volunteers (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Netting et al., 2004). While Klein et al. (2009) has suggested that the perception of organisational support generates a sense of obligation through principles of reciprocal exchange, other researchers have emphasised the particularly relational dimension of this exchange (see Guerrero & Herrbach, 2008; O’Neill & Adya, 2007). Given the psychological contract acts to define the nature of these obligations, it is a potentially feasible proposition that a relational psychological
contact will transmit the effects of organisational support on affective commitment. This line of reasoning requires the establishment of a theoretical relationship between organisational support and a relational psychological contract, as well as one between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment.

To deal with the first of these relationships, the argument is relatively straightforward. Relational psychological contracts reflect longer term, evolutionary relationships, underpinned by the consideration of employee well-being and the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs, including trust and affiliation on the part of the individual. Human resource management mechanisms associated with perceived organisational support, such as training, approval, promotional opportunities, or simply flexible work arrangements (Allen & Vandenberghe, 2003); encourage a sense of employee wellbeing and the perception of engagement in an extended organisational relationship (Tremblay et al., 2010).

The relationship between organisational support and a relational psychological contract is supported by empirical findings (see Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; O’Donohue, Donohue, & Grimmer, 2007a). Gakovic and Tetrick (2003) proposed that a psychological contract, comprised of relational obligations would provide a link between organisational support and affective commitment, such that “employees who perceive their organisations as caring may be more likely to engage in a social exchange relationship with their employer and invest in their employment relationship through emotional attachment” (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003, p.652). Findings of this study were supportive of this proposition. O’Donohue et al. (2007a) likewise identified a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and a relational psychological contract for a sample of Australian MBA students. Given both variables are based on social exchange “as the level of perceived support from the organisation increases, the relational contract (i.e. loyalty, trust, etc.) should concomitantly increase” (O’Donohue et al., 2007a, p.17).

While the direct relationship between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment has been previously established, there appear to be no studies that have specifically examined how a relational psychological contract transmits the effects of POS to affective commitment. The operationalisation of how organisational support is perceived by volunteers through the lens of the relational psychological contract, and how the derived position promotes affective commitment is, however, worth further specific consideration. It potentially provides a clearer understanding of
the affinity between organisational attributes and POS in relation to organisational volunteers, and notes the value of organisational support as a positive inducement to volunteer commitment.

On the basis of the strong relationships established between organisational support and affective commitment; organisational support and a relational psychological contract; and the value of examining how a positive perception of organisational is linked through the relational characterisation of the psychological contract, thereby promoting volunteer commitment, it is hypothesised that:

H3c) a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between perceived organisational support and the affective commitment of volunteers.

**Need satisfaction.**

Need satisfaction has been consistently attributed as a dispositional antecedent of affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday, 1989; Mowday et al., 1982; Steinmetz et al., 2011). Specific to volunteers, Marta et al. (2006) have suggested that volunteering motivation is partly attributable to the underlying psychological needs relevant to volunteering (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Marescaux, De Winne, & Sels, 2013); the satisfaction of which should lead to commitment. This is similar to research within a paid staff environment, in which satisfaction of needs has been found to predict affective commitment.

Returning to the volunteer context, a theorised association has been developed between value-based (i.e. the altruistic desire to help people), and esteem-based (i.e. recognition that such efforts make a difference, thereby contributing to positive self-image) need satisfaction and commitment (Clary et al., 1992, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Pajo & Lee, 2010; Snyder & Omoto, 1992; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). Moreover, an empirical relationship has been identified between esteem-based need satisfaction and affective commitment (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009; Snyder & Omoto, 1992). On this basis, it has been hypothesised that a direct relationship between the two dimensions of need satisfaction and the affective commitment of volunteers will exist.

However, it is further proposed, that need satisfaction, premised in deeply personal values and beliefs, is integral to the promissory component of the psychological contract construct, and on this basis, a relational psychological contract may mediate the direct relationship between need satisfaction and affective commitment. In a paid staff context, Bellou (2007) discussed the importance of
identification of employee needs to enable development of an appropriate psychological contract. Such needs likely include employment continuance, resources, and a friendly and safe working environment. In addition to these workplace requirements, Schneider and Bowen (1995) have focused on the subconscious needs that will influence organisational engagement. These needs include security (to feel unthreatened by physical, psychological, or economic harm); maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem; and just treatment.

The value and esteem-based needs attributed to volunteer commitment are summarised above. Moreover, O’Donohue and Nelson (2009) have ascribed the collective need to help others, and to contribute, as primary motivations of sampled volunteers, and as critical elements of a relational psychological contract (albeit ideologically-infused). It would appear that these needs (value and esteem) are sympathetic to the socio-emotional characterisation of a relational psychological contract, and can therefore be classified as obligations rather than expectations. Needs and expectations can be differentiated just as promissory elements and expectations can be, according to the logic of psychological contracting theory. “People are driven to satisfy their needs at a more fundamental level” in comparison to the satisfaction of expectations (Schneider & Bowen, 1995, p.56).

On the basis that value and esteem need dimensions theoretically contribute to affective commitment, and at least some of the socio-emotional obligations embedded in a relational psychological contract, two linked propositions have been formulated. It is thus hypothesised that:

H3d) a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between the value dimension of need satisfaction and the affective commitment of volunteers; and

H3e) a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between the esteem dimension of need satisfaction and the affective commitment of volunteers.

Socialisation.

Socialisation experiences prior to, and upon, entry to the work environment will influence the nature and direction of the psychological contract. It is generally supposed that a psychological contract will contain a mixture of formally stated, explicit obligations; as well as perceived obligations generated through implicit means
(Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Robinson, 1996; Rosen et al., 2009; Rousseau, 1989; Zhao et al., 2007). Accordingly, a perceived psychological contract obligation must be accompanied by a belief that the promise has been conveyed by the organisation, or an agent thereof (Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Shore & Tetrick, 1994).

Such developed beliefs on the part of an individual, through interaction with an organisation, form the basis of the exchange agreement between the individual and organisation (Rousseau, 1995). Employees form beliefs about the resources the organisation is obliged to provide, and the resources that the individual must supply in return (Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1989, 1995). Exchange items typically include time, effort, and loyalty on the part of the employee, in return for material and/or socio-emotional benefits from the organisation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Blau, 1964; Porter et al., 1974; Rosen et al., 2009). The obligations associated with a relational psychological contract attributed to the organisation might include the provision of development opportunities, personal support, and flexible working conditions. Obligations on the part of the individual will reflect extra-role and/or prosocial behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). In practical terms, the organisation has the capability to ensure the socialisation experience promotes relational terms (Hornung & Glaser, 2010).

Tomprou and Nikolaou (2012) found socialisation programs and interaction with line managers contributed to the perception of promises made. Organisational promises will be corroborated through observations and experience of other staff or volunteers attitudes and behaviours. Given that “social expectations and organisational values are less certain and more fluid for the volunteer than they would be for the paid employee” (Stephens et al., 2004, p.484); managers should ensure that during the initial employment stages, the correct “assumptions about job duties, extra-role behaviours and relational expectations” (Del Campo, 2007, p.434) are formed.

On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H3f) a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between socialisation and the normative commitment of volunteers.
Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values.

The relationship between the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values, and normative commitment has been framed as an emergent theme in the research literature. Not to discount the significant research scope remaining (Cohen, 2011; Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009), it is important to acknowledge the theoretical and empirical evidence supporting a direct relationship between these variables when constructing a mediation argument. To recall, the partial dependence of normative commitment on dispositional attributes such as personal-organisational value congruence was first advanced by Weiner (1982), and Mathieu and Zajac (1990). A number of researchers (see Amos & Weathington, 2008; Finegan, 2000; Somers, 2010) have since provided empirical support of this positive relationship between values congruence and normative commitment. Congruence of organisational mission and value with personal values is particularly apt, given the alignment that individual volunteers seek between their own values, sense of ethics or social contribution, and an organisation’s mission and values (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Catano et al., 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Tidwell, 2005; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Wymer & Starnes, 2001).

Progressing to the delineation of the relationship between such congruence and a relational psychological contract, much of the argument marshalled in support of normative commitment, appears applicable to a relational psychological contract. This is due to the common emphasis on values and beliefs. Interpersonal and relationship oriented values are characteristic of a relational psychological contract. By informing the contract schema, values held by an individual provide standards on which to base decision-making, and or determine appropriate behaviour or attitudes (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Quenneville et al., 2010).

Likewise, it is important that the beliefs of volunteers - which may reflect the importance of helping people, making a societal contribution, or simply not letting their mates down – resonate with the organisational mission. In theory, allegiance to meaningful objectives can promote satisfaction and an intrinsic sense of reward, even in the absence of economic or other benefits (Aguilera et al., 2007; Shamir, 1990; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). The social mission and ethos characteristic of an NFP organisation may provide motivation for employees, despite other aspects of their work or operating environment being deficient (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). Such individuals may be willing to contribute in adverse circumstances, because it is appropriate to the
cause being supported (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Shamir, 1990; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). This capacity to forgive or overlook organisational shortcomings, would potentially also be derived from the key characteristics of the held psychological contract.

Of course, the above scenario, while perhaps producing a dogged participation on the part of such dedicated individuals, is not ideal. On a more positive note, it has been theorised that individuals will be “happier and more motivated, satisfied, and committed when their values are congruent with those emphasised in the organisation or vocational group” (Cohen, 2011, p.647). Indeed, stronger value congruence has been linked to individuals working harder and contributing more to the organisation (Censullo, 2008; Stephens et al., 2004). This is consistent with research that has identified a positive connection between interpersonal support (rather than productivity) and either commitment (Vandenbarghe & Peiro, 1999) and retention (Sheridan, 1992).

Cohen (2011) theorised that “employees with more P-O congruence of values” (p.649) may enjoy improved organisational fit. In one of the few studies that has attempted to operationalise values congruence, commitment, and the psychological contract, Cohen (2011) sought to identify relationships between an individual’s values and the type of psychological contract, and how subsequent perceptions of breach of this contract impacted affective commitment. Cohen (2011) identified that a relational psychological contract type was strongly and positively related to commitment (albeit affective), explaining 38 per cent of its variance (Cohen, 2011). This finding indicates that a relationship between the relational psychological contract and normative commitment is feasible, satisfying the M→Y path.

It is understood that an individual’s values and beliefs influence the relational obligations of the psychological contract. In turn, the psychological contract provides an interpretative framework by which to express the conversion of individual values and beliefs into positive attitudes such as organisational commitment. Volunteers may be initially attracted to an organisation because of the perception that organisational mission or objectives appeals to their own personal values and beliefs. However, given the lack of financial compensation, it would seem particularly important that this initial sense of alignment is consolidated into a deepening sense of congruence. The means of ensuring this on the part of the organisation is drawn from the literature on P-O fit. Moreover, a heightened sense of responsibility associated with such congruence may serve to buffer negative organisational events or less desirable work aspects; further
supporting volunteer retention. This felt obligation, underpinned by a relational psychological contract, may well develop into normative commitment.

The challenge for an organisation is to understand how its stated and espoused mission and values will appeal to the value orientation of potential and commencing volunteers. By understanding the primary values important to such individuals, a sense of congruence can be encouraged between these values and those of the organisation. More altruistic values characteristic of volunteers fit naturally with the relational nature of the psychological contract and its obligations. As such, an organisation has the opportunity to establish from the outset a collective view between individual values, the development of promissory expectations, and align these perceptions with organisational obligations. On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H3g) a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct path between mission and value congruence with personal values and the normative commitment of volunteers.

Exploration of the Moderated Relationships

This section outlines the theoretical rationale for the nomination and testing of contract fulfillment as a conditional variable on the paths between a relational psychological contract and outcomes of affective and normative commitment for volunteers. Generally, moderation refers to a quantitative third variable (Z) that influences the “strength of the relation between an independent” (X) and dependent variable (Y) (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p.1174). According to this principle, the relationship under investigation can be envisioned as the extent to which psychological contract fulfillment (Z) moderates the direct relationships between a relational psychological contract (X) and affective / normative commitment (Y). However, in this study, the relational psychological contract has already been conceptualised as a mediating variable (M) in the antecedent-commitment (X→Y) relationship. As such, the moderator (Z) is designated as the fourth variable in this study, and interacts with the right hand-side of the mediated path (M→Y); an effect referred to as moderated-mediation (Preacher et al., 2007). This relationship is represented in Figure 4.9, and will be discussed in greater detail in the Methodology chapter.
Figure 4.9: Theorised moderation effect of the relational psychological contract-commitment path

Note. The direct effect is represented by the path between X and Y. The mediated effect is the product of $ab$, i.e. the pathway from X to Y, via M. The moderation effect is the change in the strength of the relationship from M to Y, at varying conditions of the moderating variable, Z.
The consideration of psychological contract fulfillment as a moderator of the relational psychological contract-commitment relationship entails the recognition of the following logic.

Firstly, that a) contract character, and b) evaluated status of the contract are considered separate dimensions of the contract (Bal & Vink, 2011; De Lange et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2013), and as such, can be conceptualised as different forms of influence. To elaborate, the holistic characterisation of the psychological contract as relational or transactional reflects the underlying promissory expectations and perceived obligations attributed to the organisation, by the individual party to the psychological contract. For example, a relational psychological contract is likely to have more obligations that are implicit, socio-emotional, or value-centric in orientation; in comparison to a transactional contract.

Psychological contract evaluation status refers to the extent to which those promissory expectations are perceived to have been met, or contract obligations have been fulfilled by the organisation. This study takes the position, as stated in the extant literature, that the status of contract evaluation falls across a spectrum anchored by breach and fulfillment (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Zhao et al., 2007). Intermediate positions along this spectrum may include less fulfilled, somewhat or partially fulfilled, and highly fulfilled (Arnold, 1996; Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Klein et al., 2009). Theoretically, the fulfillment perception determines the subsequent strength of the reciprocal response or obligation on the part of the individual. Indeed, Meyer and Allen (1984) have suggested that perceptions of the degree of contract fulfillment might differentially influence commitment; satisfying the ‘when’ or conditional nature of moderation.

As separate dimensions, not only can contract character and evaluation status be tested individually, but the effects of each dimension can conceptualised in various ways (albeit as a mediator or moderator). This is not to suggest that the character of the contract, and the obligations arising from the associated promissory expectations, will not inform the evaluation process. However, the distinction between the ownership of the obligations associated with each dimension of the psychological contract (i.e. characterisation and evaluation status) is not always observed in the literature. Rather the obligations attributed to the organisation at the point of contract formation, and the individual-based obligations arising from contract evaluation, are sometimes used.
interchangeably. Empirical validation of the distinction between individual and organisational obligations, as well as differential obligations associated with contract formation and post-evaluation, was recently established by Bal and Vink (2011). In the current study, it is thus argued that the evaluation of the relational obligations of the psychological contract obligations as fulfilled must necessarily follow psychological contract formation (inclusive of the development of the contract character and promissory expectations). Therefore, in this study, the moderator (psychological contract fulfillment) is hypothesised to operate only on the relational psychological contract – commitment path (refer Figure 4.9).

This brings the discussion to the second logical element: the representation of volunteers as a distinctive ‘employee’ group within the contemporary NFP organisational environment. Similar to the argument whereby volunteers are substituted for employees as a party to the individual-organisational psychological contract; it is suggested that volunteers form a discrete sample group relevant to the broadened consideration of contract evaluation (Hui et al., 2004).

To recall, the volunteer workforce is characterised by implicit, but specific values and motivations, which inform the character of the psychological contract held, and its relationship to workplace attitudes and behaviours. As such, the contention that elements of the psychological contract construct inform the perceived quality of a volunteer experience (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stirling et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2006) is acknowledged. According to the volunteer and psychological contract literature, these expectations, while diverse, can be broadly categorised as relationally oriented, and promissory in nature.

Evaluation of the inducements and obligations embedded in the psychological contract is at the heart of the reciprocal exchange principle (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Rousseau, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Some researchers have suggested, however, that the formalisation of management frameworks in NFP organisations has undermined organisational capacity to meet the associated relational obligations of the volunteer-centric contract (Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Taylor et al., 2006; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010), potentially throwing the contract terms out of balance. This position has significant implications for the role of fulfillment of the psychological contract, particularly given the construct’s interpretation in the literature as analogous to both a glass ‘half-empty’ and ‘half-full’ scenario.
Accordingly, when evaluative status of the held psychological contract is, perceived as ‘less than’ or only ‘partially’ fulfilled, it is thought to negatively influence volunteer attitudes and performance (Bal et al., 2008; Cassar & Briner, 2011; Conway & Briner, 2005; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley et al., 2003). Individuals will seek to rebalance the contract through the reduction of their perceived obligations or contribution. Actions may include the revision of the degree of relationalism or transactionalism of the contract terms (Chen & Chiu, 2009), or modifying the strength of discretionary outcomes such as commitment (Bal, Chiaburu, & Diaz, 2011; Chen & Indartono, 2011; Schalk & Freese, 1997).

Alternatively, positive perceptions of fulfillment (even if still not overly high), may act to stabilise or counter incongruent elements of the organisational experience (Brown & Roloff, 2011; Kim et al., 2009) - facilitating or stabilising commitment (Vecina et al., 2012). Organisational commitment has been traditionally posited as a suitably positive attitudinal attribute, offered in reciprocation of perceived contract fulfillment (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Parzefall, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007). However, Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2012) make the point that “reciprocity is more complicated than a balanced, ongoing, tit-for-tat exchange”, and it is timely for researchers to “explore moderators of the exchange” (p.278), citing Hekman, Bigley, Steensma, and Hereford (2009) as an example.

It is theorised that individual schema (Rousseau, 2003) and individual behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro, 2012) play critical roles in the adjustment of contract terms and attitudinal or other discretionary outcomes. As such, it is the schema (whether it be informed by professional, socio-emotional, voluntary, or other beliefs) which will inform the reaction to the contract evaluation trigger, and thereby shape the assessment outcome, in terms of level of fulfillment, contract revision, and attitudinal or behavioural adjustment. On this rationale, it is arguable that the relational characterisation of the psychological contract will better promote positive attitudes and behaviours, including commitment. If a volunteer’s schema is comprised of more relational elements, the interpretive capacity when determining fulfillment levels, or even whether there is a need to consciously evaluate the contractual status in the first instance will be, theoretically, subject to positive influences based on the relational attributes.

The potential deficit between volunteer expectations and their organisational experiences, and the alternative actions likely to follow contract evaluation events,
reinforces the value of closer examination of the interactive potential of fulfillment (and the underlying beliefs associated with volunteerism, and volunteer management) to the psychological contract – commitment relationship. From a practical management perspective, encouraging a relational psychological contract on the part of an organisation’s volunteers will be redundant if the organisation cannot encourage fulfillment of the same, and ensure it is associated with the enhancement of commitment, rather than the negative revision of contract terms and attitudes.

While testing of fulfillment on the psychological contract-organisational commitment relationship does not appear to have been previously conducted, the use of moderators in psychological contract research, and more specifically the examination of contract fulfillment as a moderator is limited. Moderation research, to date, has focused on the interaction of variables in the relationship between psychological contract breach or violation, and varying workplace attitudes and behaviours (for examples, see Bao, Olson, Parayitam, & Zhao, 2011; Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011; Raja et al., 2011). Webster and Adams (2010) tested psychological contract fulfillment as a moderator of the relationship between preferred work status (part-time or full-time) and job performance; and found that conditions of low fulfillment reduced extra-role performance.

Kim et al. (2009) tested psychological contract fulfillment as a moderator of the relationship between P-O fit and empowerment with volunteers associated with sporting associations. Kim et al. (2009), drawing on existing literature and their own study findings, posited that fulfillment positively moderated shortfalls in organisational performance and value incongruence. This conclusion was based on an organisational strategy that emphasised the importance of certain obligations over others, in order to generate a more positive perception of fulfillment relevant to obligations more directly within the organisation’s ability to control. In practical terms, the implication is that organisations can ensure the development of appropriate expectations (i.e. ones that can be met) on the part of the incoming volunteers through socialisation programs and other mechanisms, and the development of a normative environment. It was theorised that subsequent contract evaluations on the part of individuals will look to satisfaction of these expectations, prior to other aspects, such as P-O fit (Kim et al., 2009).
Moderation Hypotheses

Contract fulfillment is a favourable *interpretation* of the status of the held psychological contract (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Robinson & Morrison, 1997), and its content is comprised of the promissory expectations and the reciprocal obligations created through an individual’s workplace experience. Yet fulfillment of relational contracts – compared to transactional contracts - is considered complicated, due to the less tangible, and socio-emotional or value-laden characteristics. While fulfillment perception varies across a continuum, the associated actions on the part of the individual arising from the evaluation - in adherence with the need to maintain an exchange balance - may be very different. As such, it is of value to test the varying levels of contract fulfillment for the degree to which they moderate the intensity of the relationships between a relational psychological contract and commitment outcomes for a volunteer contract-holder. Relevant to each of the antecedents identified as part of the third research question on mediation, psychological contract fulfillment is proposed to moderate the relationships between a relational psychological contract and affective or normative commitment mindset, such that these relationships are strengthened at higher levels of psychological contract fulfillment. While a relational psychological contract and psychological contract fulfillment are included in each relationship, hypotheses are categorised by individual antecedent and commitment outcome such that:

- **H4a)** the indirect effect of role scope on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment;
- **H4b)** the indirect effect of personal importance on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment;
- **H4c)** the indirect effect of organisational support on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment;
- **H4d)** the indirect effect of the value dimension of need satisfaction on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived
psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment;

*H4e*) the indirect effect of the esteem dimension of need satisfaction on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment;

*H4f*) the indirect effect of socialisation on normative commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment; and

*H4g*) the indirect effect of organisational mission and values congruence with personal values on normative commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment.

**Summary of Hypothesised Relationships**

The previous sections have detailed the individual relationships contained within the conceptual model for this study. Relevant to affective and normative commitment, the hypothesised direct, indirect, and conditional effects have been presented. Figure 4.10 provides a summary of these relationships, including individual hypothesis reference.
Figure 4.10: Summary of hypothesised relationships for this study
Study Value and Contribution

Volunteer contribution is critical to the pursuit of the service delivery objectives of many NFP organisations. Volunteer management, however is complicated by the lack of explicit reward mechanisms. This generates an ongoing need for greater understanding of available tools with the capacity to create and leverage volunteer commitment specifically. Derived from social exchange theory, commitment is arguably a critical theoretical construct given its positive correlation with organisational requirements of worker satisfaction and retention. The psychological contract construct, also drawn from social exchange theory, is of potential value in the conceptualisation of more sophisticated volunteer management strategies. While research has commenced with regard to unpacking the many potential relationships between aspects of the psychological contract and organisational commitment, the nature of the connection remains unclear. The examination of explicit relationships between a relational psychological contract and affective and normative commitment, as well as the conditional effect on the relational psychological contract – commitment paths, makes a valuable contribution. The contained research in this contributes to the literature, and understanding of volunteer relationships with an organisation, in a numerous ways.

To deal with organisational commitment first, this research prompts the potential reconsideration of normative commitment antecedents in line with Meyer et al.’s (2002) recommendation, specific to a volunteer context. This study tests the theoretical assertion that congruence of mission and values on the part of an organisation and an individual, while still associated with affective commitment, is also a valid antecedent of normative commitment. It is important to reiterate that ‘reciprocity’ is not considered as an antecedent of normative commitment as per common practice. Rather, in line with extant literature, the type and strength of commitment held by the volunteer is reflective of the reciprocal obligation created through perceived fulfillment of the held psychological contract.

In terms of the psychological contract, the research design also takes advantage of the broadened application of the psychological contract, applying a relational psychological contract to organisational volunteers rather than the traditional employee. While the characterisation of the volunteer’s psychological contract as relational is a common thread in the literature, it has been the subject of only limited examination
Specifically, this study tests a relational psychological contract and its indirect effect on affective and normative commitment outcomes relevant to volunteers, in conjunction with the assessment of contract fulfillment on the paths between a relational psychological contract, and affective and normative commitment. By way of contribution, this study provides further insight into the nature of the potential relationships between aspects of the psychological contract and organisational commitment constructs; addressing an identified gap in the research literature. From a methodological perspective, this study is one of only a handful of studies to date, to take advantage of the new statistical modelling capacity (Preacher et al., 2007) which enables the simultaneous examination of such a moderated-mediation relationship. Moreover, it takes advantage of the broadened interpretation of the parties to the psychological contract, applying the construct to a distinct, but largely unconsidered sample type of volunteers.

A favourable finding enhances the usefulness of the contract construct as a human resource management tool, through recognition of its value in interpreting the exchange relationship between organisations and volunteers. Acknowledging the existing research on contract breach and negative outcomes for individual commitment and retention, this research contributes more generally to the ‘positive’ side of psychological contracting and management theory (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Brown & Roloff, 2011). It also acknowledges calls for greater research on volunteers, given their pivotal role in contemporary NFP organisations.

**Conclusion**

The conceptual model and research questions for this study, as presented in this chapter, are clearly embedded in the existing literature, while seeking to explore identified gaps and emergent research themes. The selected antecedents of affective and normative commitment have been detailed; alongside the hypotheses intended to test the direct relationships between these predictor variables and commitment outcomes. The relational form of the psychological contract is extended and tested for its applicability to a volunteer context. While the association between commitment and psychological contract constructs is well established, the nature of this relationship remains far less clear. Examination of the role of the relational contract as an
intervening variable in the relationships between antecedents and outcomes of affective and normative commitment is followed by testing the conditional effects of perceived contract fulfillment on the relational psychological contract-commitment relationships.

The nomination of a relational psychological contract as a mediating variable is grounded in existing research and is applicable to the consideration of volunteer commitment. Given the common basis of organisational experience and human resource practices, relationships theoretically exist between a number of commitment antecedents and both commitment and a relational psychological contract, providing for a potential transmission effect.

To summarise, it is evident in the literature that psychological contracts provide a reference framework for the understanding and prediction of various organisational attitudes and behaviours, including commitment (Bal et al., 2011; Conway & Briner, 2005; Rousseau, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007). Likewise, studies have shown that individual perceptions of contract breach or fulfillment substantively contribute to these same outcomes (De Lange et al., 2011; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2008; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Zhao et al., 2007), both as a direct and indirect effect. However, the literature also indicates that contract fulfillment, premised on concepts of exchange balance and a fulfillment spectrum, may act as a moderator. As a result, as well as examining the direct relationships between commitment antecedents and outcomes, and the nature of the relationships between a relational psychological contract and commitment, the objective of this study is to identify and test conditions under which contract fulfillment might amplify the intensity of the relational psychological contract-commitment paths.

It is anticipated that greater understanding of the constructs and their connective mechanisms can assist NFP organisations to better manage the commitment objectives associated with volunteer management. Through improved understanding of the linkage of human resource management strategy and the psychological contracting cycle, it is possible for managers to positively shape an individual’s organisational experience and encourage commitment. To this end, the phases of psychological contract formation, maintenance, evaluation and adjustment can be ‘optimised’ through well planned and coherent socialisation, training, communication and recognition strategies, enabling participation in organisational decision making, and fostering value congruence. Discussion now moves to the specifics of the research design, including survey design and instrument selection, data collection, and overview of data analysis methods.
CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the research process used in this study. As a correlational study, the research undertaken drew on established principles governing quantitative analysis, and hypotheses testing through use of multiple regression techniques. As a means of elucidating this approach, the chapter is organised as follows. It commences by specifying the research method, and rationale thereof, used in this study. Procedures used to access the organisation and subsequent volunteer respondents for data collection purposes are detailed, including the observance of ethical considerations and power requirements, and note of response rate. This is followed by a description of the sample. In the next major section of the chapter, the measures relevant to each variable are presented. The final section of the chapter provides an overview of the analytical techniques used. While discussion of assumptions, prerequisite to the conduct of multiple regression analysis, is deferred to the Chapter Six, this chapter contains an overview of moderated mediation, due to its status as a relatively new integrated analytic technique.

Research Type

As stated, the research framework for this study was quantitative, in recognition of the extensive empirical work already undertaken into the theoretical constructs being examined - albeit largely in a paid staff context. Theoretical relationships between aspects of commitment and psychological contract constructs have been well established by previous research, as detailed in Chapters Three and Four. A quantitative – and specifically correlational - approach was therefore the most suitable, being concerned with the generation and analysis of numerical data, for the further examination of complex relationships. From a technical perspective this study tested the antecedent-commitment relationships, the indirect effect of a relational psychological contract on such direct associations, and the extent to which psychological contract fulfillment might moderate the \( b \) path of these mediated relationships. By comparison, a qualitative approach is more concerned with the interpretation of individuals or specific contexts, and is better suited to less well-developed constructs (Tharenou et al., 2007).

In correlational research - in contrast to experimental or causative models - data are collected though questionnaires administered within a non-contrived field setting.
(Hoyt, Imel, & Chan, 2008) of which a NFP organisation, and its individual volunteers, is an example. This means, that while a specific independent variable is selected by the researcher, the level or magnitude of the variable is subject to the perception of the questionnaire respondent, and cannot be otherwise manipulated by the researcher (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) as it might be in an experimental context. Correlational studies may show a direct relationship between factors, but cannot prove causation (Hoyt et al., 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is the degree of relationship or magnitude of correlation between the predictor and criterion variable that is of interest, rather than whether the presence of the independent variable causes the dependent variable to occur (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In such research, a dataset is obtained (via use of a questionnaire) so that the relationships between one (or more) dependent variables and one (or more) independent variables can be examined through use of multivariate statistical analysis, to determine the extent of the relationship (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007).

Questionnaires provide a “cost-effective and efficient way to gather verbal data from a large sample” (Tharenou et al., 2007, p.22) for the assessment of opinions, perceptions and attitudes. The format also provides a structured data collection mechanism when quantitative data is required for the subsequent testing of research hypotheses, as was required for this study. Respondent-completed contemporaneous questionnaires were used. While it is acknowledged that collecting data in this fashion limits the ability to address issues relating to causality and temporal positioning of the variables (Tharenou et al., 2007); a longitudinal approach was not considered feasible in this instance. While correlational research endeavours are often supported on a ‘voluntary’ opt-in basis, the bulk of organisational research is conducted using paid employees. In such circumstances, questionnaire completion is often presented as a valuable attribute of organisational participation, thereby promoting higher completion rates. By contrast, this study required data from organisational volunteers. Access to volunteers for survey response purposes was entirely dependent on the participant organisation’s internal contact lists and communication mechanisms, and privacy requirements, all of which needed to be respected as a condition of access. Furthermore, volunteers were essentially being requested to further volunteer, to complete and return the questionnaire. Given that participation was facilitated by request - with no monetary compensation available for time contributed - it was considered that testing the same respondent group twice would not be well received.
Research Procedure

This section sets out the elements of the research process: incorporating the stages of questionnaire design; conduct of power analysis to ensure the organisation accessed had a sufficient pool of volunteers to ensure an adequate response rate; sample selection (via organisational characteristics) in line with predetermined criteria; and data collection.

Questionnaire Design

Having determined the variables to be examined, a questionnaire was constructed. Given the intention of using quantitative survey data to test the related hypotheses, established scales with pre-validated psychometric properties were selected for questionnaire inclusion, to support better outcomes for data content and quality. These measures are detailed further in this chapter (see Survey Measures). Most instruments used were easily identifiable in the literature as pre-eminent, but where choices existed between more contemporary measures, or measures specifically designed for use by volunteers rather than paid staff, these were selected in preference; subject to having appropriate levels of validity and reliability.

For example, while a large number of studies have been conducted examining affective and normative commitment, and respective antecedents within the context of paid employees, the same scales have been used in empirical research regarding volunteer commitment and adapted as required (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Stephens et al., 2004). Established measures also existed for psychological contract type and fulfillment. The questionnaire also included a number of questions in support of the control variables and other information about an individual’s involvement with the organisation, as reported in the discussion of the study sample.

Attention was paid to the questionnaire structure, and clarity of the survey items and completion instructions. Instructions were provided for each response type required. Key concepts were defined in the introductory section, as well as the guarantee of respondent anonymity. This was partly to facilitate response accuracy and completion rates through the reduction of respondent apprehension, but also as a means of mitigating the level of common method variance in the data collected, in line with recommendations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003). The online version was created and made available through a Survey Monkey account (a
subscription-based online survey research tool). The paper version was formatted in compliance with the specific style guide requirements of the organisation being accessed. The final questionnaire was piloted to ensure that all questions and response mechanisms were clear and that the paper-based and online formats were user-friendly. Based on the pilot results, average questionnaire completion time was 15 minutes.

**Power Analysis**

In order to ensure the data collection process would be effective in producing an adequate data set, it was necessary to determine the minimum required sample size required. This minimum was set through the conduct of a *power analysis* (refer Cohen, 1988). While this form of analysis might be conducted on an obtained dataset to ensure sufficient power prior to conducting regression analysis, the activity was undertaken prior to gaining organisational access for data collection purposes.

In statistical terms, ‘power’ is the “probability that effects that actually exist have a chance of producing statistical significance in data analysis” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.11). When conducting regression analysis, the ratio of cases to the number of independent variables needs to be sufficiently substantial in order to generate a meaningful result (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Required case numbers further increase when the dependent variable is “skewed, a small effect size is anticipated, or substantial measurement is expected from less reliable variables” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.123). Sample size is determined by the four factors as part of a power analysis, namely the estimated “size of the anticipated effect (e.g. an expected mean difference), the variability expected in assessment of the effect, the desired alpha level (ordinarily 0.05) and the desired power (often 0.80)” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, pp.11-12). Use of the derived equation will assist in gaining a sample large enough to detect an effect for the independent variables and relationships being examined, yet avoiding overt magnification of multiple factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For statistical and ethical reasons, it is good practice to measure the smallest number of cases necessary, to reveal a relationship. The result of the conducted power analysis was a minimum of 234 cases to support analysis of the direct relationship between predictor variables and outcomes of affective and normative commitment.

**Sample Selection**

In correlational research, relationships between variables are examined using a predetermined population or sample, in “order to make generalisations about a larger
population” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.7). In this study, the nominated relationships were examined in the context of volunteers contributing to service delivery outcomes of a sizeable and high-profile Australian NFP organisation. As the individual volunteer formed the unit of analysis for this study, access was sought to the volunteers of an organisation, in adherence with pre-defined criteria.

Chief among these was the recognition that operations cannot be completed without substantive volunteer input. For example, organisations running ‘opportunity shops’ as a means of generating organisational revenue and supporting charitable endeavour, might employ salaried store managers. However, these same shops may be reliant on volunteer labour for the bulk of operations; the associated cost savings enabling continued operations. Acknowledgement of this dependence is often evident in published corporate and strategic plans; facilitating a positive view on the part of many organisations of the value of complementary research.

An organisation with a disproportionate contingent of active volunteers was desirable. According to the literature, ‘active’ and ‘occasional’ volunteers are distinguishable by their level of interest, and effort invested in organisational activities (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Pearce, 1993; Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). While the threshold between time contributed and emotional involvement has been noted as contentious, active volunteers by default are likely to be in more frequent contact with the organisation and therefore more likely to become aware of the questionnaire completion request in a more timely manner, and potentially be more interested in providing responses relevant to their volunteering activities.

Given the minimum case numbers required for analysis had been determined ($n = 234$), and that response rates to this form of questionnaire typically range between 30 and 50 per cent (Baruch, 1999; Baruch & Holtom, 2008; McBurney & White, 2004); the need for an organisation with a large volunteer base was also important and excluded many organisations with only a few hundred volunteers. Also eliminated from consideration were the NFP organisations with a religious affiliation, such as charities St Vincent de Paul or the Salvation Army, to avoid introducing a potential extra variable or dimension$^{13}$. Likewise volunteers engaged through corporate programs

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$^{13}$ Kutcher, Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, and Masco (2010), in their study on religion and organisational commitment, found a positive relationship between religion and organisational commitment, as well as decreased levels of burnout among participants professing to a religious belief. O’Donohue and Nelson (2009) found differential levels of satisfaction between church affiliated volunteers, and those involved in secular organisations.
(where individuals volunteer time at the request of their employing organisation) were not considered. While Madison et al. (2012) found that organisational commitment increased on part of involved individuals, it was determined that the that intrinsic motivating and reward factors that are evident in volunteers participating on the basis of their own motivations, rather than through sponsored programs, were more relevant.

On the basis of the above, the research sample was drawn from a large organisation in the Australian NFP sector, characterised by a mix of paid staff and volunteers (at a ratio of 1:16). The organisation openly acknowledges its dependence on its 4,000 plus volunteers for much of the frontline delivery of organisational services in published communications material.

In terms of background, the organisation is considered to be a high-profile national provider of specialised disability support services, with a client base of over 33,000 individuals. The entity reported annual revenue in excess of 80 million dollars for the 2012-2013 financial year (Annual Report 2012-2013). The organisation supports positive lifestyle and career progression for people with the specified impairment, providing employment services, outreach services, alternative communication formats, fundraising and awareness, and advocacy. Operative mechanisms include 60 physical sites and support of 66 local client groups.

The organisation has brought together a fragmented service provision situation; incorporating six organisations since its 2004 inception. The organisation is continuing to deal with the challenges posed by harnessing the resources and potential of the absorbed organisations into a cohesive whole, while experiencing the pressures of professionalisation and volunteer workforce management and realigned customer focus (including the advent of DisabilityCare Australia) that was discussed at length in Chapter Two.

Ethics approval from Monash University was obtained in advance of collaboration with this organisation and its volunteers for the purposes of doctoral research (refer Appendices A and B). An invitation to participate, notification of participation requirements (Appendix C), and questionnaire access was provided to all volunteers listed with the organisation (see Appendix D for the full version of the questionnaire). More detail on this process is contained in the next section on data collection.
Data Collection

This section sets out the elements of the data collection process. It is arranged in two parts: questionnaire distribution and response rate.

Questionnaire distribution.

Questionnaire distribution, completion, and return, occurred through April and May, 2011. The questionnaire was made available through both online and paper-based formats, the combination of which was distributed at the organisation’s discretion in line with its standard communication structure. In practice this meant two possible mechanisms (post and email), dependent on which option the volunteers themselves had previously nominated as a communication preference. In the first instance, 2,600 printed questionnaires and reply-paid envelopes were distributed by batch to designated Volunteer Co-ordinators (approximately three dozen within the organisation) and were then sent on by these staff members as part of a monthly hardcopy newsletter postal pack to individual volunteers. In the latter scenario, online questionnaires were made available through the inclusion of a secure online link, published in the softcopy newsletter pack emailed to volunteers. When potential participants opened the online link (which was hosted by Survey Monkey), an initial explanatory statement was displayed regarding the purpose of the research and how data management and anonymity requirements would be met. This explanatory statement was replicated in the printed surveys. At this point, respondents could make the decision whether to proceed to questionnaire completion and submission at their convenience.

Volunteers were not identified to the researcher, the organisation protecting the privacy of its volunteers, the confidentiality of its contact databases, and ensuring anonymity of respondents and data. All questionnaires were completed, at the respondent’s convenience, and returned to the researcher by post or online link. Where envelopes and questionnaires were returned with respondent details included, these details were carefully segregated from the data entry process, and have in no way been reflected in the aggregated data set or communicated back to the parent organisation.

While the questionnaire was officially available for completion for four weeks, surveys continued to be received (and were accepted) for a couple of weeks after the published closing date. The organisation undertook a comprehensive communication campaign in support of survey distribution through this period. Reminders were placed in the organisation’s newsletter; and reinforced verbally and through email
correspondence by Volunteer Coordinators. An in-house radio interview between the researcher and a senior volunteer was also broadcast as part of promotional efforts.

The management of returned surveys was dependent on whether receipt was by post or online. Hardcopy questionnaires were assigned a sequential case number (unique identifier) as they were received. Input of the contained information was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) datafile. Online submissions were exported from Survey Monkey directly into SPSS, and then assigned a case number.

**Response rate.**

Survey-based organisational research amongst paid staff has been found to generate an average response rate of fifty to fifty-five per cent for directly administered (face-to-face) paper-based questionnaires (Baruch, 1999; Baruch & Holtom, 2008), and thirty to forty per cent for online questionnaires (McBurney & White, 2004). On this basis, if the research was being undertaken with the assistance of paid employees, and given the requirements of the power analysis \((n = 234)\), a minimum contact pool of 800 people may have been appropriate. Given the potential respondents were not conventional paid employees, a number of factors thought to influence response rates were considered including: the distribution strategy; the composition of the questionnaire and completion requirements; and the more disconnected nature of volunteer activities in comparison to paid staff.

To deal firstly with the use of both online and paper-based questionnaires, while online use is increasingly common - favoured due to reduced administrative costs - research has suggested that online survey use may lower the anticipated response rate by approximately twenty per cent (Nulty, 2008). However, this percentage, assumed that paper-based questionnaires were administered in a direct contact setting (i.e. face-to-face). The difference in response rate is negligible when remote access, or postal distribution of paper-based questionnaires, are utilised (Nulty, 2008; Watt, Simpson, McKillop, & Nunn, 2002). Work by Kelley, Clark, Brown, and Sitzia (2003), noted that paper-based response rates can drop by approximately twenty per cent.

Additionally, Holbrook, Krosnick, and Pfent (2008) have observed that questionnaire response rates may be highly variable; dependent on perceived relevance to the individual, length, time available to participate, lack of an incentive, and perception of how the data will be used. Reduced response rates lead to the risk that the
respondent group is not representative of the sample population, as well as jeopardising the capacity for meaningful data analysis (Kelley et al., 2003). It was also suspected that, due to communication mechanisms and informal structures typical of volunteer management, volunteer respondent rates might be lower than those of paid staff; further expanding the total contact requirement. Volunteers in this instance might be likened to university students, spending little time on campus, and with far less attachment to the organisation seeking cooperation (Nulty, 2008) with regard to questionnaire completion and return.

The above elements underscored the need to designate a substantially larger sample than might generally be accessed for survey-based organisational research using a paid staff cohort. The organisation providing access was well placed to support these constraints. While senior support staff within the organisation were hopeful of a higher response rate than that achieved, the full support in the distribution and promotional process across the 4,000 volunteers listed in the database, was essential to the response 26 per cent response rate actually recorded. A synopsis of actual response rates in contained in the description of the sample below.

**Sample Description**

As previously stated, a 26 per cent response rate was achieved with 1,040 surveys returned by post or submitted online. Online submission accounted for 36 per cent of the returned questionnaires, and 64 per cent for paper. Each returned questionnaire was assigned a case number. After data input, cleaning, and screening processes were completed, a working sample of 921 cases was obtained. This figure was well above the initial requirements of power \( n = 234 \). While Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) caution that too large a sample can distort the results, the 234 requirement was calculated on the basis of assessment of direct relationships. As contained in the discussion on mediation and moderation analysis, due to the decreased effect sizes, the sample size required is larger (approximately 500 plus).

The statistics relevant to demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 5.1. More than two thirds of the respondent group were female (70 per cent). A third (34 per cent) of respondents indicated that secondary school was their highest level of education attained, while a further 28 per cent nominated university degree. Regarding tenure, twenty per cent of volunteers had been involved with the organisation for four to six years, and seven to ten years, respectively. A further 18 per
cent of respondents indicated they had been involved with the organisation for less than three years.

Table 5.1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total sample (N=921)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Masters or above</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>540</td>
<td></td>
<td>906</td>
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<tr>
<td>&lt; 12 months</td>
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<td>1-2 years</td>
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<td>5 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 years</td>
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<td>15 years</td>
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<td>20 years</td>
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<td>&gt; 20 years</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>4.6</td>
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<td>50-59</td>
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<td>14.9</td>
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<td>60-69</td>
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<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;70 years</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ninety per cent of the respondents were aged 50 years or more – with 38 per cent of the total sample nominating 60-69 years, and 37 per cent as 70 years or older – including a handful of volunteers in their late 80s. As an indication of representativeness, respondent age was compared to data extracted from the volunteer database maintained by the organisation (noting that age was the only indicator available). A chi-square for goodness of fit test (the output of which is in Table 5.2) was performed in support of this comparison, as the technique provides the “proportion of cases that fall into the various categories of a single variable [in this case, age], and compares these with hypothesised values” (Pallant, 2007, p.212).

Table 5.2

Comparison between Respondent Sample and Volunteer Database by Age Band Using Chi-square Analysis (Goodness of Fit)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Category (years)</th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
<th>Discrepancy (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>-35</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>-41</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>-31</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;70</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[\chi^2(6, n=913) = 80.8, p < .001\]

Results indicate that for the 913 cases, the age band nominated by respondents was consistent with the frequencies expected from the broader organisational data. As such, the respondent group provided a good representation of the overall volunteer age demographic within the organisation.

Weekly time contributed has been advanced in the literature as a means of classifying a ‘dedicated’ volunteer, based on the proposition that increased input level (nominally three hours or more) is positively related to commitment levels. However, this distinction neglects the reality of increasing rates of ‘occasional’ or ‘episodic’ volunteering, and does not align with the survey responses received in this study. Several questionnaires were returned; with respondents citing that they did not consider themselves as sufficiently dedicated, only contributing or day or two on a weekly basis.
(although this pattern may have continued for several years). Indeed, while 41 per cent indicated a contribution of less than two hours per week, a further 42 per cent specified three to ten hours, and 11 per cent reported in excess of ten hours. In terms of other information provided by respondents, 76 per cent of respondents indicated that service delivery was the primary purpose of the organisation for which they were volunteering, and that volunteer effort was critical to this objective (92 per cent of respondents).

**Survey Measures**

The section below details the measure used for each continuous variable, starting with affective and normative commitment, relational psychological contract, and psychological contract fulfillment (as the dependent, mediating and moderating variables). This is followed by the measures for the independent variables of role scope, role ambiguity, personal importance to the organisation, organisational support, formal policy and procedures, interdependence, autonomy, need satisfaction (value and esteem dimensions), socialisation, and the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values. The parameters for obtaining data relating to control variables of age, tenure, education, and gender will also be set out.

For all continuous measures used, items and response formats are detailed. It is noted where items have had terms substituted (e.g. ‘staff’ has been changed to ‘volunteer’), or were excluded because they could not be applied to a volunteer context (e.g. salary considerations). Cronbach’s alpha (α) as an indicator of internal validity and reliability has been included where available from previous empirical studies. Cronbach (1984) advocated that the alpha coefficients should be as close to 1.00 as possible to indicate generalisability, while a minimum threshold of .70 was recommended by Hinkin (1995) and Nunnally (1978). The section will conclude with a table summarising the measures used, response range, number of items, and alpha coefficients for each. For navigational reference, the level of scale reliability as a function of this study’s sample is contained as part of the analysis output in Chapter Six.

**Organisational Commitment**

Affective and normative commitment constructs were individually operationalised by Meyer and Allen (1990) as the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS); developed to assess commitment components as part of the tripartite model of organisational commitment. A review by
Allen and Meyer (1996) of 40 studies using these scales, found the scale to have sufficient estimates of internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .74 to .90. The same review concluded that the “model is validated”, and “factors are stable over time” (Clugston, 2000, p.481). Both scales have a seven point response range (where strongly disagree =1 and strongly agree =7). The ACS and NCS measures were selected for this study, due to the applicability to domains other than an employing organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1993). Additionally, these scales have been used in a small number of published studies specifically examining volunteer commitment (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Stephens et al., 2004; Van Vuuren et al., 2008).
Affective commitment.

For data collection purposes the full eight items of the ACS were used, but on further consideration the variable – and in line with the Meyer et al. (1993) revision - was analysed based on the data pertinent to only six items (through the removal of the second and third items). A review of studies using the ACS noted that the six and eight item versions are used interchangeably. Meyer and Allen (2004) recommended that the decision be based more on intended survey length rather than validity considerations (that, incidentally, are acceptable for both formats). Volunteer-centric studies (Boezeman & Ellemers 2007; Tidwell, 2005; Van Vuuren et al., 2008) used between three and seven items of the ACS with a equalling .84 (3-item), .87 (7-item), and .82 (5-item) respectively. ACS items used in the questionnaire are contained in Table 5.3. The first item of the ACS was adjusted to reflect the volunteer rather than ‘career’ context.

Table 5.3

Affective Commitment Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my time as a volunteer with this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I think I could be easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one [R]+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organisation [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes substituted text
[R] Denotes reversed coded item
+ Included in the survey, but data not included in the analysis
Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Normative commitment.

The six-item version of the NCS was used to operationalise normative commitment in this study, in line with the revision by Meyer et al. (1993), and based on its wide use (Meyer & Allen, 2004). In using the NCS for the purposes of volunteer-
based research, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) calculated Cronbach’s alpha as .78, while Van Vuuren et al. (2008) recorded .70. NCS items are contained in Table 5.4. ‘Company’ has been replaced by ‘organisation’ in the fourth item of the NCS to reflect the volunteer context.

Table 5.4
Normative Commitment Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current organisation [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>This organisation deserves my loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I owe a great deal to this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes substituted text. [R] Denotes reversed coded item. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Psychological Contract

To identify the existence of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract in this study, a 17 item version of Millward and Hopkins (1998) Psychological Contract Scale (PCS) was used. The PCS is a standardised measure describing the content (Rousseau, 1990, 2001) or character of the employment relationship, as perceived by an individual, without reference to other aspects such as contract breach (Millward & Brewerton, 1999). Items are rated on a seven-point response range (anchored by strongly disagree [1] and strongly agree [7]). The PCS has substantial construct validity (Millward & Brewerton, 1999; Millward & Herriott, 2000). The 17-item version of the PCS used in this study followed the example of Grimmer and Oddy (2007) who used it to assess the psychological contract’s characterisation for a sample of Australian MBA students. All seven relational items and six of the ten transactional items were included in the questionnaire. The detail of relational and transactional items is below.
Relational psychological contract.

The relational dimension of the psychological contract has been identified as positively correlated with organisational commitment, particularly the willingness to contribute over and above basic role requirements (Millward & Hopkins, 1998). Millward and Brewerton (1999) found a Cronbach’s alpha of .84 in their study, while Grimmer and Oddy (2007) reported a value of .65. It is the operationalisation of the relational psychological contract that was of primary interest in this study. Items are contained in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Relational Psychological Contract Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I expect to gain promotion in this organisation with length of service and effort to achieve goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I expect to grow in this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel part of a team in this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel this organisation reciprocates the effort put in by its volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I have a reasonable chance of promotion if I work hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I will work for this organisation indefinitely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I am heavily involved in my volunteer ‘workplace’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes substituted text

Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Transactional psychological contract.

While the study design has been aligned with the theoretically and empirically supported position that volunteers will possess a psychological contract that can be characterised as relational; the transactional component of the 17-item version of the PCS scale (Millward & Hopkins, 1998) was used as a means of cross checking the psychological contract’s characterisation prior to analysis. In terms of reliability, previous studies have reported alpha coefficients of .84 (Millward & Brewerton, 1999), and .62 (Grimmer & Oddy, 2007). Table 5.6 contains the transactional items used. Four items (# 1, 6, 9, and 12) were omitted on the basis that items regarding “pay” or “doing the job just for the money” and similar elements are not relevant to volunteers (Liao-Troth, 2005).
Table 5.6

Transactional Psychological Contract Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It is important not to get too involved in your role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I come to work purely to get the job done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I only do what is necessary to get the job done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>My career path in the organisation is clearly mapped out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes substituted text
Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Contract fulfillment was measured through use of the Perceived Fulfillment Scale (PCF) developed by Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2008). An adaptation of the single item measure of the Psychological Contract Inventory (PSI) (Robinson et al., 1994), Henderson et al. (2008) have developed a four-item scale using a seven-point response format (where strongly disagree = 1 and strongly agree = 7). Scale reliability has been found to be acceptable, with Cronbach’s alpha equivalent to .80 obtained by Henderson et al. (2008). In terms of construct validity, the “results of a principal-axis factor analysis indicated that all four items loaded on a single factor; accounted for 63 per cent of the variance and had an eigenvalue of 2.52” (Henderson et al., 2008, p.1211). To date there is a lack of published research using the scale, in preference to Robinson et al. (1994), but with the inclusion of multiple items (contained in Table 5.7), the PCF scale better reflected the evaluative measurement of fulfillment for the purposes of this study.

Table 5.7

Psychological Contract Fulfillment Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My organisation has often broken promises made to me [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Considering the promises my organisation has made to me, the organisation hasn’t always lived up to its end of the bargain [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My organisation has kept its promises to me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My organisation fulfills its obligations to me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Role Scope

Role scope, as perceived by survey participants, was measured using a subset of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), as formulated by Hackman and Oldham (1976). This study used the twelve items version of the JDS role scope measure which included feedback alongside the primary components of task identity, skill variety, and task significance, with a seven-point graduated response format from ‘low’ to ‘high’ for the first item of each component, while the remaining items of each subsection were rated using the more standard ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ 7-point format.

Hackman and Oldham’s (1976, 1980) instrument is widely accepted and used (Goris, 2007; Van de Vegt et al., 1998). Acceptable reliability has been established in previous studies, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .86 obtained by Schaubroeck et al. (2007), and .70 in a study by Van de Vegt et al. (1998). The measure has been used in a number of recent studies (see Evans, Schlacter, Schultz, Gremler, Pass, & Wolfe, 2002; Goris, 2007; Goris et al., 2003; Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Newton & Jimmieson, 2008; Schaubroeck et al., 2007). In this study, scale questions (see Table 5.8) were adapted slightly to fit a volunteer context.

Table 5.8
Role Scope Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>To what extent …</th>
<th>Very little</th>
<th>…</th>
<th>Moderately</th>
<th>…</th>
<th>Very much</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Does your volunteer job require you to do many different things, using a variety of your skills and talents?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Does your volunteer work doing a whole or identifiable piece of work, rather than a small portion of the overall work process?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Are the results of your work as a volunteer likely to significantly affect the lives and well-being of other people?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Does doing the job itself, that is your volunteer work, provide you with information about your work performance?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continued)
Table 5.8 (continued)

Role Scope Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My role requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My tasks are quite simple and repetitive [R]</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>My role provides me with the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>My tasks are arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end [R]</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>My role is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My work is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things [R]</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>My supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>My supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any feedback about how well I am doing in my work [R]</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes inserted text

[R] Denotes reverse coded item

Response range for items 1 to 4 (1 = very little, 7 = very much)

Response range for items 5 to 12 (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity was operationalised using the Job-Related Strain Index (Rizzo et al., 1970), a scale “employed to evaluate role ambiguity in all types of organisations” (Yoshie et al., 2008, p.114). The measure consists of six items (refer Table 5.9), with a seven-point response range (where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree).
Table 5.9

*Role Ambiguity Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I know exactly what is expected of me [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I know that I have divided my time properly [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Explanation is clear regarding what has to be done [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel certain about how much authority I have [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I know what my responsibilities are [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my role [R]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.  [R] Denotes reversed coded item
Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

The instrument has “well established discriminant validity and reliability” (see Rizzo et al., 1970; Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006, p.455). Initial estimates of reliability ranged from .78 to .81 (Rizzo et al., 1970) and .85 (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006).

**Personal Importance to the Organisation**

The perception of personal importance to the organisation was measured following the example of Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) in their examination of volunteer commitment, who grouped the Autonomous Respect Scale (devised by Tyler & Blader, 2002), the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001); and the modified (by Teas, Wacker, & Hughes, 1979) participative decision-making scale (Vroom, 1964). Of the six item Autonomous Respect Scale and Volunteer Satisfaction Index, only three items were used from each scale by Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) as was the practice in this study. The final scale, on participative decision-making contains three items, all of which were used. All items were rated on a seven point response range (from *strongly disagree* [1] to *strongly agree* [7]), and are contained in Table 5.10. While linking volunteer perceptions of respect, satisfaction, and participation on organisational decision-making to outcomes of commitment and retention, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) did not cite validity evidence specific to the measures used.

For the Autonomous Respect Scale, which was designed to assess the self-perceived status of individuals within a group (Tyler & Blader, 2002) reliability has been established with a Cronbach’s alpha of .80 obtained by Boezeman and Ellemers (2007), and a very respectable .93 by Tyler and Blader (2000). The Volunteer
Satisfaction Index items were initially designed to assess the perceived level of relevance of volunteer work, that is, the degree to which volunteer efforts are positively impacting on an outcome or third party (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). In their study which discussed the development and application of the Volunteer Satisfaction Index, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001, p.65) concluded that the scale was “reliable and constructually [sic] valid” based on results of the factor analysis. Boezeman and Ellemers (2007), also determined the scale had good reliability, citing a Cronbach’s alpha of .87.

According to the literature (Cuskelly, 1995; Shin & Kleiner, 2003), volunteers will attribute the level of participation in decision-making to their overall perception of personal importance to the organisation. The associated scale of participative decision-making has demonstrated good reliability and validity in various studies (see Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006; Teas, Wacker, & Hughes, 1979; Teas, 1981; Vroom, 1964), where the reported Cronbach’s alpha has ranged from .76 (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006) to 0.87 (Pearson & Chong, 1997). In these examples, the instrument has been used to measure the degree to which employees are able to influence decisions about their job (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Teas, 1983).

Table 5.10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I feel respected as a volunteer by the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The organisation listens to what I have to say about volunteering work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The organisation cares about my opinion as a volunteer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I perceive that my volunteer work benefits the organisation’s customers / members / or service recipients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My voluntary effort really benefits the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My volunteer work is of importance for fulfillment of the organisational mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I can greatly influence the decisions of my immediate superior regarding things in my job over which I am concerned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>My superior often asks my opinion when a problem comes up that involves my work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel that it is easy to get my job improvement ideas across to my superior</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Items 1-3 are from the Autonomous Respect Scale; items 4-6 are from the Volunteer Satisfaction Index; and items 7-9 are from the participative decision-making scale.
Organisational Support

The six-item measure of organisational support used in this study was created by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) as a more concise version of the highly regarded (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2006) Scale of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS) originally published by Eisenberger et al. (1986). Items used are contained in Table 5.11. The instrument employs a seven-point response range (where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) and measures the perception of employer support. Discriminant validity has been established (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2006), and in terms of reliability, an alpha co-efficient was found to be comparatively high at .90 by Eisenberger et al. (1997).

Table 5.11
Organisational Support Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The organisation really cares about my well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The organisation values my contribution to its well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The organisation strongly considers my goals and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The organisation shows little concern for me [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. [R] Denotes reversed coded item
Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Formal Policy and Procedures

The formal procedures measure is a subscale of Moorman’s (1991) procedural justice scale, further developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The formal procedures component consists of six items with a seven-point response range (where 1 = strongly disagree through to 7 = strongly agree). The scale measures the degree to which role or activity related decisions are based on complete and unbiased information and that respondents had opportunities to ask questions and challenge decisions (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Reliability has been determined by two studies, with respective alpha coefficients of .94 (Moorman, 1991) and .85 (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) being obtained. In this study, small changes were made to accommodate the
volunteer context, namely replacing the term ‘staff’ with ‘volunteers’ in individual items (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12

*Formal Procedure Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My supervisor clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by <em>volunteers</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected <em>volunteers</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Job decisions are made by my supervisor in an unbiased manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>To make formal job decisions, my supervisor collects accurate and complete information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My supervisor makes sure that all <em>volunteer</em> concerns are heard before job decisions are made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td><em>Volunteers</em> are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by my supervisor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Underlined font denotes inserted text

Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

**Interdependence**

To measure interdependence of work processes, an instrument formulated by Van der Vegt et al. (1998) was used. The scale contains fourteen items which are split by task (initiated and received) and outcome-related aspects (see Table 5.13). Initiated and received task interdependence (items 1 to 8) employs a five-point response range (where 1 is equivalent to *not at all dependent* and 5 is equivalent to *highly dependent*) which was retained in the questionnaire. Outcome interdependence (items 9 to 14) consisted of a number of statements in which respondents choose the corresponding opposing term (e.g. ‘*benefits*’ versus ‘*hinders*’). The measure has been used in previous studies (see Koster & Sanders, 2006; Van der Vegt et al., 1999; Van der Vegt, Emans, & Van der Vliert, 2001). Validity has been established as moderate to high (see Van der Vegt et al., 1999), and, in terms of reliability Van de Vegt et al. (1999) have obtained an acceptable alpha coefficient of .81.
Table 5.13

*Interdependence Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for information and advice?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for materials, means and other things they need?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Your colleagues depend on your presence, help, and support?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for doing their work well?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>You depend on your colleagues for information and advice?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>You depend on your colleagues for materials, means, and other things you need?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>You depend on the presence, help, and support, of your colleagues?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>You depend on your colleagues to do your work well?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9  It _____________ me when colleagues attain their goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Hinders</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 The things my colleagues want to accomplish and the things I want to accomplish are

________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compatible</td>
<td>Incompatible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 It is _______________ for me when my colleagues succeed in their jobs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advantageous</td>
<td>Disadvantageous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12 When my colleagues succeed in their jobs, it is at my

___________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expense</td>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13 My concerns and those of my colleagues are

___________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Harmonious</td>
<td>Clashing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14 When my colleagues succeed in their jobs, it works out

___________ for me

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positively</td>
<td>Negatively</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Response range for items 1 to 8 (1 = not at all dependent rising to 5 = highly dependent)
The three-item autonomy scale of the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) was used in the current study. Designed to measure “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006, p.448), the scale is commonly used when assessing autonomy (see Chen & Chen, 2008; Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Newton & Jimmieson, 2008; Pearson & Chong, 1997). High alpha coefficients have been consistently obtained by these studies, indicating good reliability. For example, Chen and Chen (2008) obtained a Cronbach’s alpha of .88, Newton and Jimmieson (2008) reported .90, while Pearson and Chong (1997) estimated .98. The response format for the measure is split, with the first item rated on a seven-point response range (where 1 = very little, and 7 = very much), and items two and three rated from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Items are contained in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14

Autonomy Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The role allows me to use my personal initiative in carrying out the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The role gives me considerable opportunity for freedom in how I do the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I have enough freedom to do what I want on my job to satisfy service recipients</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

The need satisfaction variable was operationalised using two distinct dimensions of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), formulated by Clary et al. (1998), and used to test volunteer motivation (Clary et al., 1998). According to Handy and Hustinx (2009), the VFI is the most prominent perceptual scale available to assess the why of volunteering. The selected items assess the degree to which the volunteering contribution is value-based (needs being underpinned by value orientation, and linked to motivation and continuance), and esteem-based (linked to need satisfaction and continuance). To this end, the two scales used were the five-item Values scale and the five-item Enhancement / Esteem scale (see Tables 5.15 and 5.16). Items on both scales are rated on a seven-point response range (where 1 = highly inaccurate and 7 = highly accurate).
accurate). Measure validity has been previously established and reliability in terms of Cronbach’s alpha for the value scale has been reported at .80, and at .84 for the esteem scale (Clary et al., 1998).

Table 5.15
Need Satisfaction Items (Value)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about those less fortunate than myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel compassion towards people in need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel it is important to help others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I can do something for a cause that is important for me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Table 5.16
Need Satisfaction Items (Esteem)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Volunteering increases my self-esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel better about myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Volunteering is a way to make new friends</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Socialisation

The Organisational Socialisation Inventory (OSI) was developed by Taormina (1994, 2004) as a concise, but general measure of organisational socialisation. Revised in 2004 to improve clarity of phrasing, the measure has been used a number of times, albeit only by Taormina (see Taormina, 1997, 1999, 2004, 2008) in studies examining organisational commitment. Good convergent and predictive validity has been established (see Taormina, 2004), and reliability using Cronbach’s alpha has been reported at .89 (Taormina, 2004). In terms of scale characteristics, there are 15 items across facets referred to as ‘orientation’, ‘co-worker support’, and ‘future prospects’; anchored by a seven-point response range (where 1 = strongly disagree, and 7 =
strongly agree). While other socialisation instruments exist, most notably the 34-item Socialisation Content Scale (Chao et al., 1994), the OSI developmental study reported satisfactory to good psychometric properties in terms of reliability and consistency, was more parsimonious in construction, and was therefore selected as the most suitable scale. Items are presented in Table 5.17. Item 9 was adjusted to include volunteers as well as paid staff.

Table 5.17
Socialisation Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>This organisation has provided excellent job training for me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>This organisation offers thorough training to improve my job skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The training in this organisation has enabled me to do my job very well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Instructions given by my supervisor have been valuable in helping me do better work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I know how to get things done in this organisation very well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I have a full understanding of my duties in this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The goals of this organisation have been made very explicit and clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I have a good knowledge of the way this organisation operates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Other volunteers / workers have helped me on the job in various ways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My co-workers are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>My co-workers have done a great deal to help me adjust to this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>There are many chances for a good career with this organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Reciprocity

Due to insufficient scale reliability against the obtained sample, reciprocity as a variable was excluded from analysis (further discussed in Chapter Six). However items were included in the distributed questionnaire and are therefore presented at this point. The instrument used was the Employee Exchange Ideology Questionnaire (Eisenberger et al., 1997) as a measure of an individual’s “beliefs concerning the appropriateness of helping the organisation achieve its goals in exchange for favourable treatment” (Eisenberger et al., 2001, p.44). It was further developed by Eisenberger et al. (2001), with the addition of three items. The resultant eight-item scale (see Table 5.18) has a seven-point response format (where 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Scale
validity has been established (Eisenberger et al., 2001), but reliability was not noted. *Volunteer* was substituted for *employee* in all items, which are contained in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18

*Reciprocity Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Volunteers should not care about the organisation that employs them unless that organisation shows that it cares about its volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Volunteers should only go out of their way to help their organisation if it goes out of its way to help them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>An <strong>volunteer</strong> should work as hard as possible no matter what the organisation thinks of his or her efforts [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>If an organisation does not appreciate a <strong>volunteer’s</strong> efforts, the volunteer should still work as hard as he or she can [R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A <strong>volunteer</strong> who is treated badly by an organisation should work less hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>A <strong>volunteer’s</strong> work effort should depend partly on how well the organisation deals with his or her desires and concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A <strong>volunteer</strong> should only work hard if his or her efforts will lead to a promotion, or other benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A <strong>volunteer’s</strong> work effort should not depend on the fairness of his or her rewards [R]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Items denoted by [R] are reverse scored. Underlined font denotes substituted text. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

**Congruence of Organisational Mission and Values with Personal Values**

This variable refers to the level of agreement between the organisation’s stated mission or espoused values, and the value-orientation of the volunteer. The more congruent, the stronger (theoretically) the level of volunteer commitment is. The variable was operationalised using Cable and DeRue’s (2002) Person-Organisation Fit instrument, as derived from the work of Lauver and Kristoff-Brown (2001), which seeks to assess the level of alignment of personal and organisational values. The scale consists of three items, with a seven-point response range (where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*). Evidence supporting its validity has not been stated, but its reliability was reported as $\alpha = .91$ (single-firm sample) and $\alpha = .92$ (multiple-firm sample).
sample) by Cable & DeRue (2002). The measure has also been used specific to volunteers by Van Vuuren et al. (2008). Scale items are presented in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19

*Congruence of Organisational Mission and Values with Personal Values Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organisation values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My personal values match my organisation's values and culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My organisation's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Response range (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

**Summary of Measures for Continuous Variables**

The measures used in this study for the purposes of data collection and analysis are summarised in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20

*Summary of Measures Used in this Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study variable</th>
<th>Instrument (Author)</th>
<th># of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>Affective Commitment Scale (Allen &amp; Meyer, 1993)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
<td>Normative Commitment Scale (Allen &amp; Meyer, 1993)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational psychological contract</td>
<td>Psychological Contract Inventory (relational) (Millward &amp; Hopkins, 1998)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological contract fulfillment</td>
<td>Psychological Contract Inventory (relational) (Henderson et al., 2008)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role scope</td>
<td>Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman &amp; Oldham, 1976)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role ambiguity</td>
<td>Job Strain Index (Rizzo et al., 1970)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>SPOS-6 (Eisenberger et al., 1997)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal importance</td>
<td>(Galindo-Kuhn &amp; Guzley, 2001; Tyler &amp; Blader, 2002; Vroom, 1964)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal procedures</td>
<td>(Niehoff &amp; Moorman, 1993)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
<td>(Niehoff &amp; Moorman, 1993)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Subset of JDS (Hackman &amp; Oldham, 1976)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (esteem)</td>
<td>Volunteer Functions Inventory -Enhancement/Esteem (Clary et al., 1998)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continued)
Table 5.20 (continued)

Summary of Measures Used in this Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study variable</th>
<th>Instrument (Author)</th>
<th># of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (value)</td>
<td>Volunteer Functions Inventory – Value (Clary et al., 1998)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission and value congruence</td>
<td>Person-organisation fit (Cable &amp; DeRue, 2002)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation</td>
<td>Organisational Socialisation Inventory (Taormina, 1994)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measurement of Control Variables

As detailed in Chapter Four, a number of demographic characteristics were included as control variables in this study: gender, age, education, and length of tenure with the organisation as volunteer. Data relating these four items was collected as follows from individual questionnaire respondents. Gender was ascertained by asking individuals to nominate themselves as ‘male’ or ‘female’. Age was obtained in years, with ranges of 10 years provided for selection, up to ‘70 plus’ (e.g. less than 20, or 30 to 39). This approach was taken to encourage response rates and was informed by discussion with the organisation regarding the perceived sensitivity of nominating a specific number. Education was assessed by asking for the highest level of formal education to be nominated with options including ‘secondary school’, ‘certificate’, ‘diploma’, ‘apprenticeship’, ‘degree’, and ‘postgraduate degree’. In terms of tenure, the respondent was asked to nominate how long they had been involved as a volunteer with the current organisation, in ‘years’ and ‘months’. This element was converted to a total of months as part of the comparative analysis.

Method of Data Analysis

Regression analysis, a multivariate technique integral to inferential statistics, was used in this study to enable the simultaneous analysis of the distinct relationships of multiple independent variables in relation to the dependent variable. In addition, the use of regression techniques to test statistical interactions, including mediation and moderation, allowed for the examination of more complicated research questions, unsuitable for a contrived or experimental setting (Hoyt et al., 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The derived “statistics provide insights into relationships among variables that more closely resemble the complexity of the ‘real’ world” (Tabachnick &
Given the proposed research hypotheses have been well-defined, and are clearly derived from the research literature, the outcomes of the analysis are unambiguous, making the interpretation of findings a straightforward process (Hoyt et al., 2008).

While alternative regression techniques exist (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), for the purposes of this study, standard *multiple regression* was used; commonly utilised for the assessment of how individuals form attitudes (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Analysis steps for this study have included the examination of the direct effect, relevant to the two dependent variables – affective and normative commitment, followed by the examination of the indirect and conditional effects on this primary relationship. These individual effects are elaborated on in the following subsections.

**Testing of the Direct Relationships**

In the first group of analyses, the direct relationships were tested. This involved the assessment of the direct relationships between the (grouped) independent and control variables, and the dependent variable of affective commitment. The procedure was then repeated for the second dependent variable of normative commitment; substituting the independent variables. A direct relationship path is reflected in Figure 5.1 along with the individual antecedents (grouped as $X_a$, $X_b$, and $X_c$) for this study and hypothesised relationship to the outcome variables ($Y_1$, $Y_2$).
Figure 5.1: Direct path between X and Y, by individual variable
Testing of the Mediated Relationships

The conceptual model for this study proposed a relational psychological contract be assessed as a mediating variable on the direct relationships between commitment antecedents and outcomes. If testing a variable as a mediator, it is the indirect effect that is of interest. As such, an independent variable (X) is hypothesised to have an effect on a dependent variable (Y), through one or more intervening variables, referred to as mediators (and commonly represented as M) (Hayes, 2009; Hoyt et al., 2008). This relationship is displayed in Figure 5.2 as a simple mediated regression path, with a single mediating variable, as used in this study.

Complete mediation is evident when the regression coefficient associated with the path from X to Y (i.e. $c$) is reduced to zero when the mediator is introduced (Hair et al., 2006). Partial mediation occurs when the path coefficient from X to Y is reduced in absolute size (represented by $c'$), but is still greater than zero (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hoyt et al., 2008). The literature has indicated that, with regard to social science research, partial mediation is more generally found rather than complete mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007). As such, partial mediation, rather than full mediation, is the expected outcome of hypothesis testing, undertaken in this study.
Simple mediated regression

![Diagram of simple mediated regression]

\[ c' = c + ab \]

**Note.** \( a, b, c, \) and \( c' \) are path coefficients. \([s_a] \) and \([s_b] \) are standard errors of \( a \) and \( b \) path coefficients.

**Example of mediation path, using a single antecedent**

![Diagram of mediation path, using a single antecedent]

**Figure 5.2 Simple mediated regression**
MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffmann, West, and Sheets (2002) have categorised mediation tests into three main types: causal steps tests (see Baron & Kenny, 1986); difference in coefficients tests\textsuperscript{14} (e.g. joint significance test, see MacKinnon et al., 2002, 2007); and product of coefficients tests (e.g. Sobel 1982, 1986). It is apparent from the methodological literature that a vigorous debate continues over the merits of Baron and Kenny’s (1986) technique, and even the Sobel test (1982, 1986), versus newer tests of joint significance (MacKinnon et al., 2002, 2007) or bootstrapping (Preacher & Hayes, 2004); the detail of which can be found in Fairchild and McKinnon (2009), Hayes (2009), Hoyt et al. (2008), and Preacher and Kelley (2011). However, this study has taken the perspective, as stated by Hayes (2009), that “new analytical opportunities arise if we quantify indirect effects rather than infer their existence from a set of tests on their constituent paths” (p.211). Bootstrapping, in particular, has higher power, while providing reasonable control of Type I error\textsuperscript{15} (MacKinnon et al., 2002; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

In this study, bootstrapping, facilitated by Hayes’ (2012) PROCESS computational tool, has been used to conduct analysis in support of the mediated hypotheses. In brief, MacKinnon et al. (2004), Williams and MacKinnon (2008), Hayes (2009), Preacher (2011), and Wu and Zumbo (2008) concur in the opinion that bootstrapping is “one of the more valid and powerful methods for testing intervening variable effects” (Hayes, 2009, p.412) with Hayes an enthusiastic advocate of the technique. Hayes (2009) suggested that while the inference is still based on an estimate of the indirect effect itself, bootstrapping “makes no assumptions about the shape of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect” (p.412), thus addressing a key weakness of the Sobel test. There is also no requirement for the standard errors to be used, “rendering the controversy about how to best estimate the standard error of the indirect effect moot” (Hayes, 2009, p.413).

**Testing of the Moderated Relationships**

The perceived level of fulfillment of the psychological contract has been proposed as a positive moderator on the relationship between the mediator (a relational psychological contract) and dependent variables of affective and normative

\textsuperscript{14} “Evaluate the significance of the change in the XY path with and without the mediator included in the regression model (i.e. c-c’)” (Hoyt et al., 2008, p.328).

\textsuperscript{15} False positive
commitment. As such, it was hypothesised that under higher levels of fulfillment, the relationship between a relational psychological contract and commitment will intensify. Given, a psychological contract must be formed, prior to the evaluation of outcomes such as fulfillment; the tested relationship is on the $b$ side of the mediation model shown in Figure 5.2.

There is little controversy regarding moderation techniques. Often referred to as interaction effects, a moderator variable(s) - also referred to as $Z$ - may “affect the strength and/or direction of the relation between a predictor and an outcome: enhancing, reducing, or changing the influence of the predictor” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.89; Hoyt et al., 2008). In short, moderation analysis tests the extent of which a “dependent variable (Y), from an independent variable (X), differs across levels of a third variable (Z)” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90). According to Hoyt et al. (2008), “if the moderator hypothesis is correct, the two variables [X and Z] have a multiplicative, rather than a simple additive relation to the DV” (p.329). As such, a new variable must be created (XZ) using the product of the IV and moderator variables (X*Z). These paths are shown in Figure 5.3.
Moderated path effects

Where:
- $XZ$ = the product of $X$ and $Z$
- $\beta_1$ = the effect of $X$ on $Y$
- $\beta_2$ = the effect of $Z$ on $Y$
- $\beta_3$ = the effect of $XZ$ on $Y$

Figure 5.3: Moderation path diagram (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90)
The basic moderation model displayed in the lower section of Figure 4.4 is represented by the equation:

\[ Y = i_5 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 XZ + e_5 \]

“where \( \beta_1 \) is the coefficient relating the independent variable, \( X \), to the outcome, \( Y \), when \( Z = 0 \), \( \beta_2 \) is the coefficient relating the moderator variable, \( Z \), to the outcome when \( X = 0 \), \( i_5 \) is the intercept in the equation, and \( e_5 \) is the residual in the equation” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90). According to Hoyt et al. (2008) the “product term contributes significantly to explaining variance in \( Y \)” (p.330). As such, “the regression coefficient for the interaction term, \( \beta_3 \), provides an estimate of the moderation effect. If \( \beta_3 \) is statistically different from zero, there is significant moderation of the \( X-Y \) relation in the data” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90).

**Moderated Mediation**

In summary, mediation is a form of indirect effect, and is a “sequence of causal relations by which \( X \) exerts its effect on \( Y \) by influencing intervening variables” (Hayes, 2009, p.415), referred to as M. Moderation is regarded as an interaction effect, and refers to a scenario in “which \( X \)’s effect on \( Y \) varies as a function of some third variable” (Hayes, 2009, p.415), known as the moderator or \( Z \).

Traditionally where a mediating and moderating relationship is hypothesised, analysis of each form of relationship has been undertaken separately. While mediation has still been run as a stand-alone process, the moderated analysis used a new combinative technique, referred to as moderated mediation. The use of this technique is noteworthy, if only, because to date, a limited number of studies have used it as an analytical tool (see Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013; Andreeva, Yaroch, Unger, Cockburn, Rueda, & Reynolds, 2010; Dickert, Kleber, Peters, & Slovic, 2011; Lippke, Wiedemann, Ziegelmann, Reuter, & Schwarzer, 2009; Shih & Chuang, 2013; Soane, Shantz, Alfes, Truss, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013). Use of moderated mediation computation techniques allowed for the simultaneous testing of the conditional and interactive effects for all hypothesised antecedents. Specifically, the technique (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009; Preacher et al., 2007) assesses whether the indirect effect (a relational psychological contract) is moderated via differing levels of a fourth variable (level of contract fulfillment), with the moderation effect tested against the \( b \) path of the mediation model (see Figure 5.4).
Moderation can assist in understanding potential constraints on a how or when a “process can function” (Hayes, 2009, p. 415), and can be applied singularly or simultaneously to the $a$ and $b$ paths of the mediation model (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009). For example, “an investigator might propose that $X$ exerts its effect on $Y$ indirectly through some variable $M$, but that this indirect effect might be larger among men than women, or increase linearly as a function of age …or some other continuum” (Hayes, 2009, p.416). Such moderation effects have been referred to, sometimes interchangeably, in the literature as both mediated moderation and moderated mediation, which can cause confusion (see Hayes, 2009; Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005). Fairchild and MacKinnon (2009) and Hayes (2009) have clearly distinguished the two terms. To this end:

In mediated moderation, the focus is on the estimation of the indirect effect of the product of $X$ and $Z$ on $Y$ through $M$, whereas in moderated mediation, the interpretation is directed at estimates of the conditional indirect effect of $X$ on $Y$ through $M$ at values of $Z$ (Hayes, 2009, p.416).
Figure 5.4 Moderated-mediation: examination of a conditional indirect effect on the 

$b$ path

Where:
X = individual IVs (antecedents of AC and NC)
M = mediator (relational PC)
Z = moderator (PC fulfillment level)
Y = individual DVs (AC and NC)
Thus, it is not the “mediation of the moderator effect”, but the “moderation of an indirect effect” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.991) that is of interest to this study. According to Fairchild and MacKinnon (2009), “by simultaneously investigating mediation and moderation, the effects may not only be disentangled and analysed separately but can also be evaluated together” (p.91). Evaluation of complex research propositions, such as “whether a “moderator effect in the data can be explained by a mediating mechanism, or whether a mediating mechanism depends on the level of another variable” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.97) can thus occur.

Fairchild and MacKinnon (2009) provided some cautionary notes for when mediation and moderation are assessed simultaneously. Careful selection of the mediator and moderator variables is critical, and should be guided by relevant literature or previous research, to assist with subsequent interpretation of results. If, as is the case for this study, the primary relationship of interest is mediation; “the researcher may examine all possible interaction effects in the model or a subset of theoretically-relevant interactions and discuss which moderated effects exist” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.96). Modelling the XM interaction will avoid bias in the XZ product term (Muller et al., 2005).

According to Hayes (2009), use of moderated-mediation models focuses “on the estimation of interactions between the moderator and the paths that define the indirect effect” (p.416). In this vein, Preacher et al. (2007) devised five ‘models’, based on bootstrapping, allowing the estimation both continuous and/or categorical “conditional indirect effects moderator(s)” (Hayes, 2009, p.416). These five models conceptualise the “ways in which the magnitude of an indirect effect may be dependent upon a moderator” (Preacher et al., 2007, p.193) as follows (and in reference to Figure 5.4):

- **Model 1**: the independent variable (X) acts as a moderator of the $b$ path;
- **Model 2**: the $a$ path is moderated by a fourth variable ($Z$);
- **Model 3**: the $b$ path is moderated by a fourth variable ($Z$);
- **Model 4**: the $a$ and $b$ paths are moderated by separate variables ($Z$, $W$); and
- **Model 5**: the $a$ and $b$ paths are moderated by the same fourth variable ($Z$).

In this study, **Model 3** of moderated mediation (Preacher et al. 2007) is being used, and is represented schematically in Figure 5.5.

Hair et al. (2010) noted that moderators are unrelated to other constructs. Moderation of a mediated relationship in this instance, requires only that there must be an effect of the mediator, $M$, on the outcome variable, $Y$, which does not depend on the
moderator, Z (Muller et al., 2005; Preacher et al., 2007). Application allows for the testing of whether a relational psychological contract held by volunteers is able to mediate the level of effect (outcomes) or affective and normative commitment, based on differential levels (or moderated by) levels of contract fulfillment.

In line with the moderated-mediation model shown in Figure 5.5, a series of individual tests were conducted involving each individual antecedent for affective and normative commitment respectively; incorporating a relational psychological contract (M) and fulfillment level (Z) in each equation. All values were converted to z-values prior to the analysis being undertaken. Analysis was run in SPSS using a custom moderated-mediation bootstrapping macro (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Results were then graphed as simple slopes to show the indirect conditional relationship for each independent variable.\(^{16}\)

\(^{16}\)“Exploring the moderation of either the total or direct effect in the mediation model is simply a means of examining the significance of the individual regression coefficients corresponding to those effects (i.e., \(c_3\) and \(c'_3\), respectively), and any significant interaction effect in the model will be interpreted with reference to mediation. Interactions may be further probed with simple slopes analyses to examine variable relations across levels of the moderator variable (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007)” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.97).
Figure 5.5 Moderated mediation: examination of a conditional indirect effect using Model 3 (Preacher et al., 2007, p.194)
Moderated-Mediation: Power and Effect Size

Issues of power and effect size, relevant to the sample size required for examination of a direct effect, have been previously discussed in this chapter. However, moderated and moderated mediation analysis, have their own intrinsic complications in terms of effect size and power. According to Fairchild and MacKinnon (2009) effect sizes for moderated-mediation models are yet to be fully researched, while Hayes (2009) describes the “quantification of effect size in intervening variable models remains a cutting edge area of thinking and research” (p.417).

The small effect sizes typical of social science research means that the power to detect interaction effects is often low (Aiken & West, 1991). As such, Cohen’s (1988) regression effect sizes of small, medium and large (where $f^2 = .02$, .15, and .35 respectively) are not suitable for the assessment of moderator effect strength (Hoyt et al., 2008, p.332). Rather, Aiken and West (1991) recommended that a small moderation effect is better estimated at $f^2 = .02$ and a medium moderation effect at $f^2 = .075$. These are the effect sizes recommended for researchers if conducting a power analysis for the sample size where an interaction relationship is of interest. Hoyt et al. (2008) suggested that a minimum sample size of 150-200 would generally be required to “reliably detect moderator effects in most research areas” (p.333).

Regarding mediation analysis, a requirement of a larger sample size, in comparison to the examination of direct effects, as well as the changing requirements of the various mediation techniques, is well recognised. To use the example of a mediation technique comparison undertaken by Fritz and MacKinnon (2007), where .80 power was required, the traditional Baron and Kenny (1986) model required a sample of over 20,000 for complete mediation and 562 for partial mediation. The joint significance test required a sample size of approximately 400 to 550 for full and partial mediation, and was more powerful than the Baron and Kenny (1986) model. For bootstrapping, percentile bootstrapping for full mediation required a slightly larger sample than did the test of joint significance; while the bias corrected bootstrap was found to be consistently the most powerful test (MacKinnon et al., 2002; MacKinnon et al., 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). While it is problematic that research samples are often too small (i.e. less than 400 cases) to detect mediation effects; this study had a sample of 674 (reduced from 921 due to use listwise case deletion) which was regarded as sufficient for mediation analysis.
The use of the moderated-mediation technique further complicates these issues, given the involvement one or more interaction terms, in addition to the estimation of the indirect effect(s) (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009). Previous studies (see Champoux & Peters, 1987; Evans, 1985; McClelland & Judd, 1993) have found that interaction effects account for only one to three per cent of the variance in the dependent variable. In short, for attribution of one per cent of the variance of the dependent variable at .80 power, using the test of joint significance; an initial minimum sample of 1000 would be required (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009).

In practice, large samples are not always available and potentially limit the applicability of mediation or moderated-mediation analysis. Beck (1994) and Fairchild and MacKinnon (2009) have suggested alternate strategies to increase power when data access is constrained, including adjusting the significance threshold from the nominal 0.05 to a more generous .10. While this approach will increase Type I error, it may be “appropriate when an effect of interest is especially important and avoiding Type II errors is critical” (Abelson, 1985; Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.96). Again, this approach was not seriously considered given the ample respondent numbers obtained in this study.

**Conclusion**

The content of this chapter was intended to meet several objectives. The research process undertaken has been outlined, including specification of the research procedures and respondent sample. The measures used to operationalise each variable have been presented, including a discussion of reliability and other validation as available. Methods of data analysis have been summarised. Rather than detail established procedures of multiple regression, the focus has been on the newer techniques available to support the testing of mediated and moderating effects, which were subsequently used in this study. The next chapter will present the results of the data analysis. Support, or otherwise, for all research hypotheses will also be provided.
CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter details the examination and analysis of the dataset and presents relevant results, based on the principles and strategies identified in Chapter Five. As such, the steps undertaken to clean and screen the data, as well as test key assumptions of regression analysis are detailed. The findings of the regression analyses will be presented, as relevant to the hypothesised relationships.

Preliminary Analyses

A number of steps were taken prior to the conduct of multiple regression analysis. These elements are described below and include data screening, analysis of missing data, and testing of prerequisite assumptions of regression. Scale reliability was determined for the study sample. The risk of common method variance was also assessed in line with the recommendation of Podsakoff et al. (2003), given the contemporaneous nature of data collection.

Cleaning and Screening Data

To clean and screen data is an essential step in optimising the quality of the dataset for subsequent analysis. Questionnaires were provided in paper and online formats. When entering the responses from the paper-based questionnaires, quality was maintained through a periodic audit of data entry accuracy against original response by multiple cases. The use of an online survey tool allowed for the electronic export of respondent data, partially mitigating the inherent risk of keystroke error associated with manual transcription of paper-based responses (Watt et al., 2002). Scores on negatively worded items were also reversed as part of this process, using appropriate recoding functions within SPSS. Given the larger sample size, data accuracy was assessed using descriptive statistics, with particular reference to acceptable means, ranges, standard deviations, and the identification of univariate and multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Missing Data

Missing data can have a detrimental impact on statistical power, as well as the validity able to be inferred from the produced statistics (Allison, 2002). However, the pattern of missing data is more relevant than the amount, particularly when missing data exceeds five per cent of the data set (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In the first
instance, any cases missing data on the dependent variables of affective and normative commitment, as well as the mediating and moderating variables of a relational psychological contract and psychological contract fulfillment, were removed from the data matrix (this numbered 82 cases). This action was deemed appropriate, on the basis that the number of respondents was significantly larger than the required sample determined in the power analysis, and that, cases with missing data on these variables, also often showed minimal response across the other independent variables, making further analysis problematic.

The level of missing data on the control and independent variables was then assessed. For the control (demographic) variables, missing data ranged from 0.9 to 2.1 per cent. For the continuous independent variables, missing data accounted for between 1.2 and 3.8 per cent for role scope, personal importance, and organisational support - below the five per cent recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The percentage of missing data for autonomy, interdependence, and need satisfaction (both value and esteem dimensions) was less than ten per cent, in line with the recommendation of Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson (2010). The level of missing data for the variables of organisational mission and value congruence with personal values at 11 per cent, and role ambiguity at 13 per cent, were somewhat high. Given non-response increased towards the end of the survey instrument, the placement of the value congruence items at the end of the questionnaire, may have contributed to the level of missing data. There was no immediately obvious explanation for the role ambiguity items. However, scatterplots of these variables with larger missing percentages indicated appropriate response spread.

It was concluded that missing data were randomly and evenly distributed through the cases and across variables, and further case removal might detrimentally impact the overall number of cases and bias the results (Pallant, 2007). Likewise techniques, including the use of person-mean substitution, or software-aided value substitutions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) that would alter the dataset, were not considered in order to reduce the risk of introducing unnecessary bias. The risk generated by missing data was further mitigated by using pairwise (rather than listwise) deletion when running the regression analyses. Listwise deletion requires the entire record to be deleted – negatively affecting the sample size, and removing data that can be used in other analyses, whereas pairwise only excludes the case in analysis where the required item(s) response is missing. Pairwise deletion is the recommended means
of dealing with missing values because of improved statistical power and accuracy (Switzer, Roth, & Switzer, 1998).

Tests of Assumptions of Regression Analysis

A number of pre-requisite assumptions for robust multiple regression analysis were checked against the dataset, in line with theoretical recommendations (see Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007). These recommendations specify acceptable levels of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity, as well as an absence of outliers and multicollinearity. The following section details the evaluation of data as compliant with parameters of normality, kurtosis, and skewness. A small number of univariate and multivariate outliers were identified, and the level of multicollinearity was assessed. The execution of these steps –further elaborated below - satisfied quality requirements of data content relevant to regression analysis.

Outliers.

Outliers are cases with an extreme value on a single variable (univariate) or an unusual combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate) (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which may affect estimates of the regression coefficients, associated standard errors, as well as the estimate of the overall prediction ($R^2$) (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Leaving reasons of incorrect data entry or non-membership of sample aside; if the outlier has values outside the normal distribution, it is suggested the case be retained with values adjusted to mitigate the impact (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

A small number of univariate outliers were identified using $z$-scores, where 14 cases had a value in excess of $\pm 3.29$ (indicative threshold) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Given the size of the sample exceeded requirements of power, these cases were deemed extraneous, and were removed outright rather than amended. To assess the presence of multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis distance was used to further identify cases that existed outside the mean cluster of data points for an individual variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), assessed using the number of variables associated with affective and normative commitment (including the DVs). For affective commitment, Mahalanobis distance was determined to be 34.53 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A check for values above this criteria identified only 17 cases, up to a value of 51.70; which were retained (rather than removing the cases) in the context of the large sample size, and to mitigate
the risk of sample distortion. This decision was in line with the observation that multivariate outliers are typically problematic only in regard to smaller samples (Pallant, 2007), and therefore not an issue for this study. Regarding normative commitment, Mahalanobis distance was 22.46, with 11 cases above this value. Aside from these cases, it was determined that there was no evidence of other multivariate outliers in the dataset. Cook’s Distance was also generated and assessed as to whether multivariate outliers were having an undue influence on the model results. In line with Pallant (2007), this would be shown by values of one or above, however there were no cases with values exceeding .06. With this analysis completed, a data set of 921 cases was retained for further analysis.

**Normality: mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis.**

Descriptive statistics and graphical techniques were used to establish the level of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity, following the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Following the conversion of all continuous variables to mean values, normality was assessed through the inspection of the mean and standard deviation; the values for which are contained in Table 6.1. Skewness (symmetry of the distribution curve) and kurtosis (peakedness of the distribution curve) statistics were generated for all variables, rather than a zero value, which would reflect a perfectly normal distribution. According to the recommendation by Kline (2011), the magnitude of skewness and kurtosis can be problematic when levels are greater than +/-3, and +/-7, respectively. Inspection of the skewness and kurtosis values by each continuous variable demonstrated that no values exceeded these parameters. Role ambiguity, accounted for the largest values for both skewness (-1.3), and kurtosis (3.6).

Bivariate scatterplots (graphs where the independent variable was on one axis, and the dependent variable on the other) were also generated and inspected for linearity and homoscedasticity. Plots were generally oval-shaped, indicating no violation of the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. The use of Q-Q plots for each variable, where “the observed value for each score is plotted against the expected value from the normal distribution” (Pallant, 2007, p. 62), also demonstrated linearity. Regarding standard deviation, none of the variables was above 1.5 standard deviations from the mean, providing evidence of acceptable normality.
**Multicollinearity.**

Correlation analysis was conducted to establish an initial level of association between independent and dependent variables, but also to check and potentially exclude independent variables based on multicollinearity. Collinearity refers to the linear relationship between two explanatory variables. Multicollinearity occurs when two or more independent variables in a regression are highly correlated, and is identified by very large standard errors for regression coefficients. An underlying principle of regression is to have the fewest independent variables necessary, such that each “predicts a substantial and independent segment of the variability in the dependent variable” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.122). Regression will not work if independent variables are singular, and coefficient estimates become unstable when multicollinear (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In extreme cases, multicollinearity has resulted in inverted signs and implausible magnitudes of regression coefficient values (Berry, 1993; Greene, 2003). To assess the extent of multicollinearity, a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted, which included all study variables. The resultant correlation matrix is presented below in Table 6.1, along with means and standard variation values.
Table 6.1

Correlations between the Study Variables, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Coefficients

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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<td>.55*</td>
<td>.49*</td>
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<td>.44*</td>
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<td>12. Socialisation</td>
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<td>13. Mission-value congruence</td>
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<td>14. Relational PC</td>
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<td>15. PC Fulfillment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed); **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); n = 801 – 921
Table 6.1 (continued)

Correlations between the Study Variables, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
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<th>18</th>
<th>19</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Affective commitment</td>
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<td>.45*</td>
<td>.59*</td>
<td>.42*</td>
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<td>- .16*</td>
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<td>.31*</td>
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<td>.05</td>
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<td>3. Role scope</td>
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<td>.40*</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.35*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
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<td>- .04</td>
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<td>.86</td>
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<td>.52*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
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<td>- .00</td>
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<td>.95</td>
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<td>.48*</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>.52*</td>
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<td>.06</td>
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<td>- .03</td>
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<td>.29*</td>
<td>- .02</td>
<td>.10*</td>
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<td>.09*</td>
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<td>.86</td>
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<td>7. Formal procedures</td>
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<td>.57*</td>
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<td>.40*</td>
<td>.50*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>- .17*</td>
<td>.02</td>
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<td>8. Autonomy</td>
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<td>.35*</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>.32*</td>
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<td>9. Interdependence</td>
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<td>.25*</td>
<td>.15*</td>
<td>.19*</td>
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<td>10. Need satisfaction – value</td>
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<td>.31*</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>- .06</td>
<td>.07*</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Need satisfaction - esteem</td>
<td>(α = .88)</td>
<td>.48*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.34*</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.08*</td>
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<td>-.14*</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Socialisation</td>
<td>(α = .87)</td>
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<td>.55*</td>
<td>.42*</td>
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<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.15*</td>
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<td>(α = .94)</td>
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<td>.39*</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Relational PC</td>
<td>(α = .74)</td>
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<td>.06</td>
<td>- .17*</td>
<td>-.14*</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>3.72</td>
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<td>1.32</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. PC Fulfillment</td>
<td>(α = .88)</td>
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<td>.05</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.06</td>
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<td>16. Gender</td>
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<td>-.16*</td>
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<td>1.70</td>
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<td>17. Age</td>
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<td>.35**</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>2.68</td>
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<td>18. Education</td>
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<td>-.08*</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>7.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Tenure</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>7.16</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed); **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); n = 801 – 921
Correlation coefficients were below the threshold (〈0.90) identified by Greene, 2003), suggesting that multicollinearity was not an issue. Taking Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) more conservative estimate (〈0.70), personal importance and organisational support had a value of 〈0.78. To further assess the potential existence of multicollinearity between these two variables, the inspection of tolerance and the variance inflation values (VIF) was undertaken in line with the guidelines proposed by Cohen et al. (2003) and Hair et al. (2006). Tolerance, according to Hair et al. (2006) is a "direct measure of multicollinearity", defined as the "amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables" (p. 227). VIF indicates the "effect that the other independent variables have on the variance inflation values (VIF)" was undertaken in line with the guidelines proposed by Hair et al. (2006). Tolerance, according to Hair et al. (2006) is generally agreed in the literature (see Cohen et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) that the tolerance value should not be less than 〈0.10, while the VIF value should be below ten. As a general rule, a high tolerance value and low VIF value signal that multicollinearity was not a concern. It was further determined that there was no absence of multicollinearity among the remaining independent variables, enabling multiple regression analysis to proceed.

Reliability analysis.

The alpha coefficients generated as part of the Pearson correlation analysis (see bracketed α values in Table 6.1) provided an indication of the internal consistency of the measures used relevant to the study sample. Based on these estimates, all the variables contained in Table 6.1 (excluding the designated control variables) were considered sufficiently reliable for related data to be included in the regression analyses, as the α values were above the 〈0.70 threshold recommended by Hinkin (1995) and Nunnally (1978). While role scope at 〈0.68 was marginally below this threshold, it was retained given the shortfall was only 〈0.02. This decision corresponds to common practice (see Grimmer & Oddy, 2007). Data relating to 'reciprocity' and 'transactional psychological contract', however, were excluded from further analysis. With respective Cronbach alphas of 〈0.57 and 〈0.65, both were considered insufficiently reliable, in line with the recommendation of Anastasi and Urbina (1996).
Common method variance.

The level of common method variance was assessed using Harman’s one-factor test. All variables were entered into an exploratory factor analysis, specifying the number of factors as 1, and using unrotated principle components factor analysis. If common method variance were to be largely responsible for the relationship among the variables, the one-factor model should fit the data well (i.e. generate a value in excess of 50 per cent) (Wesolowski, Mossholder, Bennett, & Kemery, 1998). The total percentage of variance was 22.70, which is within acceptable limits, that is, the single factor model was not a good fit for the data (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In summary, the above evaluative processes have established a non-critical level of multivariate outliers; appropriate patterns of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity; and an absence of multicollinearity. As such, prerequisite assumptions of regression have been satisfied, and further data analyses may be undertaken. While tests have indicated that a level of common method variance is present, it does not represent an issue for further data analysis.

Regression Analysis

The use of multiple regression techniques allowed for the testing of hypothesised relationships relevant to the first two research questions, namely the antecedents of affective and normative commitment as held by volunteers. Separate regression equations were generated for each dependent variable (i.e. affective commitment and normative commitment), using SPSS. Control variables, for both equations, included age, gender, education, and organisational tenure. Relevant to affective commitment the independent variables included role scope, personal importance, organisational support, role ambiguity, formal procedures, autonomy, interdependence, and need satisfaction – dimensions of value and esteem. With the exception of the hypothesised negative relationship between role ambiguity and affective commitment (H1d), the remaining hypotheses (H1a-c, H1e-i) predicted a positive association with affective commitment. Independent variables for normative commitment included socialisation, and congruence of mission and values (H2a and H2b). Relevant parameters and output requirements were selected in line with the recommendations of Pallant (2007).

Predictor variables were entered into the regression equation simultaneously with control variables. The generated magnitude of the standardised beta co-efficient
(β) and its significance was analysed for each variable, the results of which are reported, along with the $F$ value, in Table 6.2 for affective commitment and Table 6.3 for normative commitment.

**Antecedents of Affective Commitment: Hypotheses 1a to 1i**

The first regression analysis ($N = 723$) was undertaken to assess the predictive power of the antecedent variables selected for affective commitment, with results in Table 6.2. The complete model accounted for 36 per cent of the variance in affective commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .36$, $F(13,723) = 33.08, p < .001$). Gender, age, tenure, and education were controlled for in the analysis.

Table 6.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Results for Affective Commitment Regression Analysis</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<td>Education</td>
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<td>Tenure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Role scope</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal importance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organisational support</td>
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<td>Role ambiguity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Formal procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (value)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (esteem)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

$F(13,723) = 33.08, p < 0.001$

$\Delta R^2 = .36$ ***

$^* p < .05, ~ ^{**} p < .01, ~ ^{***}p < .001$

Personal importance was the strongest predictor of affective commitment ($\beta = .24, p < .001$), considered to be a reasonably large effect size (Cohen et al., 2003). This was followed by role scope ($\beta = .17, p <.001$), organisational support ($\beta =.14, p <.01$), formal procedures ($\beta =.12, p <.01$), esteem-based need satisfaction ($\beta =.11, p <.001$), and value-based need satisfaction ($\beta =.07, p <.05$). Role ambiguity was negatively
related to affective commitment ($\beta = -.08, p < .01$). Autonomy and interdependence made no significant contribution to predicting affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1a which stated role scope will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers was supported. Likewise, the positive relationships proposed in hypotheses: 1b (personal importance), 1c (organisational support), 1e (formal procedures), 1h (esteem-based need satisfaction) and 1i (value-based need satisfaction) were supported. Hypothesis 1d, that predicted role ambiguity would be negatively related to affective commitment was also supported. However, hypotheses 1f (interdependence) and 1g (autonomy), which were predicted to be positively associated with affective commitment were not supported.

**Antecedents of Normative Commitment: Hypotheses 2a and 2b**

The second regression analysis ($N = 792$) was conducted in order to assess the predictive power of the antecedent variables of normative commitment, the detail of which is contained in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Results for Normative Commitment Regression Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variable</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Socialisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence of mission and values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$F(6,792) = 40.14, p < 0.001$

$\Delta R^2 = .028^{***}$

*$p < .05, ** p < .01, ***p < .001$

The complete model accounted for 28 per cent of the variance in normative commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .28, F(6,792) = 40.14, p < .001$). In the model, socialisation experiences was the strongest predictor of normative commitment ($\beta = .28, p < .001$), followed by congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values ($\beta = .24, p < .001$), when age, gender, education, and tenure were controlled for. The $\beta$
values indicated that both independent variables are significant predictors of large effect size (Cohen et al., 2003).

In terms of the two hypotheses relevant to normative commitment, both were supported by the results of the above analysis. Hypothesis 2a, which stated socialisation experiences will be positively related to the normative commitment of volunteers was supported. Hypothesis 2b, which posited that the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values on the part of the volunteer would be positively related to normative commitment was also supported.

**Summary of Commitment Hypotheses**

Figure 6.1 presents a summary of hypotheses findings relevant to the direct affective and normative commitment relationships.
GROUP 1: ROLE CHARACTERISTICS / WORK EXPERIENCES

- ROLE SCOPE (H1a) \( \beta = .17^{**} \)
- PERSONAL IMPORTANCE TO ORGANISATION (H1b) \( \beta = .24^{***} \)
- ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT (H1c) \( \beta = .14^{**} \)
- ROLE AMBIGUITY (H1d) \( \beta = -.08 \)

GROUP 2: STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

- FORMALISATION OF PROCEDURES (H1e) \( \beta = .12^{**} \)
- INTERDEPENDENCE (H1f) n.s.
- AUTONOMY (H1g) n.s.

GROUP 3: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

DISPOSITIONAL

- NEED SATISFACTION (ESTEEM) (H1h) \( \beta = .11^{**} \)
- NEED SATISFACTION (VALUE) (H1i) \( \beta = .07 \)

SOCIALISATION EXPERIENCES (H2a) \( \beta = .28^{***} \)

CONGRUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL MISSION AND VALUES WITH PERSONAL VALUES (H2b) \( \beta = .24^{***} \)

Figure 6.1: Significant \( \beta \) coefficients by individual hypothesis for affective and normative commitment
Tests of Mediation: Hypotheses 3a to 3g

To recall, Research Question Three examined whether a relational psychological contract might act as a mediator of the direct relationships between antecedents and respective outcomes of affective and normative commitment for volunteers. This question contained a number of hypotheses (H3a to H3g). Relevant to affective commitment, selected antecedents included: a) role scope; b) personal importance; c) organisational support; d) need satisfaction – esteem; and e) need satisfaction – values. For normative commitment, antecedents included: f) socialisation and g) congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values. Prior to the testing of mediation effects, it was determined through a comparison of mean scores on transactional and relational items, that the predominant character of the psychological contract held by the respondent sample was more relational than transactional.

Mediation analysis, from a theoretical perspective and as detailed in the previous chapter (refer Figure 5.3), requires the introduction of a third variable, and assessment of an indirect effect on the direct relationship between an independent and dependent variable. Although the mediation effects were assessed in combination with moderation, examination of the standalone mediating effect of a relational psychological contract was undertaken, using a bootstrapping macro devised by Hayes (2012b) as a means of maintaining method consistency. The macro is labelled Model 3, and is part of Hayes (2012) PROCESS model (which builds on previous work by Preacher et al., 2007). PROCESS is a sophisticated modelling tool that enables the generation of moderation, mediation and conditional process analysis.

Bootstrap methods provide a powerful technique by which to infer indirect effects in both un-moderated and moderated mediation models (Hayes, 2012), making this technique suitable for use in this study, specific to testing of hypotheses relevant to Research Questions 3 and 4. In practice, the bootstrap test of mediation extracts a random sample from the original data with replacement\(^\text{17}\) (Hayes, 2009). The values for \(a\) and \(b\) (refer Figure 5.2) are found for the bootstrap sample, and the indirect effect, \(ab\), is computed. The extraction of a bootstrap sample and computation of indirect effect should be repeated from 1000 times (minimum), up to 5000 plus repetitions. These

\(^{17}\)Replacement is a resampling technique which, using data from the original sample, allows for the improvement of the population estimate as part of the bootstrapping computation.
estimates then form a bootstrap distribution (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon et al., 2007), based on confidence intervals, which may be referred to as percentile based, or bias-corrected when a population skew has been corrected (Hayes, 2009). MacKinnon et al., (2004) have recommended the use of a bias-corrected bootstrap where possible to address concerns of confidence interval limits and improve interpretation of the significance of indirect effects.

To assess the mediating effect of a relational psychological contract on the direct relationships between the predictors and outcomes of affective and normative commitment, the variables were input into the macro, using \( z \)-values for all continuous variables, and specifying a bootstrap sample of 5000. A bias-corrected confidence interval was specified at the 95 per cent level. Separate mediation analyses were run for affective and normative commitment. The independent variables for affective commitment included role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction – both esteem and value dimensions. Socialisation, and the congruence of mission and values on the part of the organisation and individuals, were the independent variables relevant to normative commitment.

**Results of mediation of the affective commitment path.**

The data output, specific to hypotheses 3a to 3e is represented in Table 6.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>S.E (( a ))</th>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>S.E (( b ))</th>
<th>( c' )</th>
<th>( R^2 ) mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role scope ((N=910))</td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.52***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal importance ((N=902))</td>
<td>.51***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.43***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Org. support ((N=886))</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.S. – esteem ((N=828))</td>
<td>.34***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.57***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.S. – values ((N=829))</td>
<td>.17***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.58***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ***\( p < .001\)

All regression coefficients are standardised values

\( a = \) coefficient relating the IV to M; S.E. (\( a \)) = standard error of \( a \); \( b = \) coefficient relating M to the DV, adjusted for the IV; S.E (\( b \)) = standard error of \( b \); \( c' = \) coefficient relating the IV to the DV, adjusted for the mediator

\( R^2 \) mediation = effect size, i.e. the strength of the relationship between IV and DV through the mediator. The closer to 1 of \( R^2 \) mediation, the better the predictive power (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2010).

Partial mediation occurs when the relationship between the independent and dependent variables decreases in the presence of the mediator \( (c') \). Accordingly, the
data generated as result of the mediation analyses, and contained in Table 6.5, can be represented schematically (refer Figure 6.2).

To elaborate on the data contained in Table 6.4 and Figure 6.2, it can be seen that conditions for mediation were met, such that the independent variables significantly predicted the mediator \((a)\) and DV of affective commitment \((c)\), and the mediator was also a significant predictor of affective commitment \((b)\). Mediation is significant if the 95 per cent bias corrected confidence intervals (CI) for the indirect effect do not include zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher et al., 2007). Examination of the lower and upper confidence intervals for each independent variable confirmed that zero was not included, indicating that the indirect effect was significant \((p < .05)\).

In terms of the mediation hypotheses specified in relation to the antecedent-affective commitment relationships, findings indicated partial mediation (by a relational psychological contract) for each of the five proposed relationships between the independent variables and affective commitment. To this end, H3a in which the independent variable was role scope, was supported, such that the direct relationship between role scope and affective commitment was reduced \((c' = .18, [\text{lower 95\% CI} = .15, \text{upper 95\% CI} = .22])\), but not removed, in the presence of the mediator. The second hypothesis (3b) was also supported, with the direct relationship between personal importance and affective commitment reduced \((c' = .22 [.18, .26])\). Organisational support (H3c) was supported, with \(c'\) equalling .22 [.18, .26]. Need satisfaction was supported on the value dimension (H3d) \((c' = .10 [.06, .14])\), and the esteem dimension (H3e) whereby \(c' = .19 [.15, .23]\).
Figure 6.2: $a$ and $b$ correlation coefficients by mediation hypothesis for affective commitment

Notes.
1. Use of bootstrapping has enabled the calculation of values for i) the direct relationship between each independent variable and affective commitment ($c$), ii) the $ab$ mediation product, and iii) the level of indirect effect ($c'$) attributable to a relational psychological contract.
2. The percentage of explained mediation reflects the $R^2$ mediation values contained in Table 6.4.
3. Due to the number of independent variables tested in relation to the same mediator and dependent variable a compact representation has been used, rather than five individual figures.
Results of mediation of the normative commitment path.

Mediation analysis was replicated for the normative commitment. The results are presented in Table 6.5 and specific to hypotheses, Figure 6.3 below.

Table 6.5

Results of Mediation Analysis on the Antecedent - Normative Commitment Path

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>S.E. (a)</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E. (b)</th>
<th>c'</th>
<th>R^2 mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation</td>
<td>.55***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission and values congruence</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.42***</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ***p < .001

In terms of the mediation hypotheses specified in relation to the antecedent-normative commitment relationship findings, partial mediation was found for both hypotheses. For H3f, the direct relationship between socialisation and normative commitment was reduced in the presence of the relational psychological contract mediator (c' = .23 [.18, .27]). H3g which dealt with congruence of mission and organisational values with personal values, saw the direct relationship with normative commitment reduced (c' = .18 [.14, .21], but not removed, in the presence of the mediator.
Figure 6.3: $a$ and $b$ correlation coefficients by mediation hypothesis for normative commitment

Notes.
1. Use of bootstrapping has enabled the calculation of values for i) the direct relationship between each independent variable and normative commitment ($c$), ii) the $ab$ mediation product, and iii) the level of indirect effect ($c'$) attributable to a relational psychological contract.
2. The percentage of explained mediation reflects the $R^2$ mediation values contained in Table 6.5.
Contract Fulfillment Moderating the Mediated Relationships: Hypotheses 4a to 4g

Hypotheses 4a to 4g sought to test whether the perceived level of contract fulfillment might moderate the relationships between a relational psychological contract and nominated commitment, such that an individual relationship would be strengthened when fulfillment is higher. A bootstrapping macro devised by Preacher (2008) was used to generate the results for moderated mediation, in line with Model 3 (see Preacher et al., 2007, p.194), and as displayed in Figure 5.5 in the previous chapter. This process allowed for the testing of the mediation effect of a relational psychological contract on the antecedent-commitment paths, in conjunction with the conditional effect on the path by contract fulfillment. The macro extracted the relevant data (z-scores by all required variables) from the SPSS data matrix, using listwise deletion (n = 674), in line with the advice provided by Preacher et al. (2007). A series of individual tests were conducted by individual antecedent for affective and normative commitment respectively; incorporating a relational psychological contract as the mediator, and fulfillment level as the moderator, in each equation. A macro (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) was run in SPSS. The mediating variable of a relational psychological contract and moderating variable of psychological contract fulfilment was included for the dependent variables (affective and normative commitment respectively), with subsequent independent variables substituted on an individual basis and the macro executed (see Appendix E for examples of syntax by individual variable).

Results were then graphed as simple slopes to show the indirect conditional relationship for each independent variable. This accords with the recommendation by Aiken and West (1991), and Hoyt et al. (2008), that where moderation effects are apparent, charting the interaction will assist understanding the character of the relationship (Hoyt et al., 2008). “Plotting interaction effects aids in the interpretation of moderation to show how the slope of Y on X is dependent on the value of the moderator variable” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90). This is the same approach demonstrated in published research using the moderated-mediation model (see Shih & Chuang, 2013).

The slope corresponds to the “prediction of Y from X at single value of Z” (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009, p.90). The theory holds for the moderation component of mediated moderation. The combination of mediation (and its strength by individual
variable) determines the starting position of the moderation slope on the vertical (Y) axis. The horizontal (X) axis represents standard deviation (i.e. one standard deviation on each side of the norm) of the moderator. When a charted line ascends between the values of -1 and 1, it represents the association of an increasing level of fulfillment with an increasing level of mediator (Aiken & West, 1991). The slope establishes that the strength of the mediation effect via a relational psychological contract “differs across two levels of the moderator” (Epitropaki, 2012, p.75), and satisfies the conditional nature of moderated mediation (Preacher et al., 2007).

The moderated-mediation results relevant to affective commitment are presented below in tabular (Table 6.6) and chart (Figure 6.4) form. Hypotheses 4a to 4e, posited that the indirect effect for each independent variable would be stronger under conditions of higher psychological contract fulfillment. Moderation was identified as statistically significant and positive for personal importance (H4b), the esteem dimension of need satisfaction (H4e), and role scope (H4a). No significant moderated relationship was found for the variables of organisational support (H4c) or the value dimension of need satisfaction (H4d). As such, only hypotheses 4a role scope ($\beta = .05, p < .05$), 4b personal importance ($\beta = .09, p < .05$), and 4e esteem-based need satisfaction ($\beta = .07, p < .05$) were supported. In other words, perceptions of contract fulfillment interact with the positive association between relational aspects of the psychological contract and affective commitment, such that this association is strengthened when the obligations associated with a nominated predictor variable are deemed fulfilled.

Table 6.6

*Conditional Indirect Effects [of M] at Specific Values of the Moderator [Z], by Tested Antecedent for Affective Commitment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>-0.99</th>
<th>0.02</th>
<th>1.02</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1 SD below)</td>
<td>(normal)</td>
<td>(1 SD above)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal importance</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction – esteem</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role scope</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.05*</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Support</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction – values</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*$p < .05$
Figure 6.4: Moderating effect of contract fulfillment on the relationship between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment

Note. This graph depicts the conditional indirect effect [M] at specific values of the moderator [Z] by individual IV for Affective Commitment (when p < .05).
Progressing to normative commitment and the assessment of hypotheses 4f and 4g, the process was replicated with substituted variables. Results are presented in Table 6.7 and Figure 6.5. Moderation was identified as statistically significant for both socialisation ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values ($\beta = .08, p < .05$). However values decreased marginally (by -.004 and -.002 respectively) in the range of one unit of standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean, generating a barely perceptible downward slope. This result is indicative of Type III error$^{18}$. As such, hypotheses 4f (socialisation) and 4g (mission and values congruence) were not supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>-0.99</th>
<th>0.02</th>
<th>1.02</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1 SD below)</td>
<td>(normal)</td>
<td>(1 SD above)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission and value congruence</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08*</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^*p < .05$

---

$^{18}$ A downward slope in contradiction of the upward directionality proposed by the hypothesis is an example of Type III error. Type III error can occur in statistical tests when “one accepts a specific directional alternative when in fact another alternative is true” (Dawes, 2006, cited in Salkind, 2010). Schwartz and Carpenter (1999) attribute this to the fact that the causes of differences relevant to individuals within a sampled group may not reflect the cause of differences between groups. In line with this observation and given the noted complications of effect size in moderated-mediation analysis, despite the power of the bootstrapping technique it is possible that the hypothesis would be supported with a larger sample. It is also possible that there was another variable that has exerted an effect, but was not taken account of in the conceptual design. This possibility will be considered further in the next chapter.
Figure 6.5: Moderating effect of contract fulfillment on the relationship between a relational psychological contract and normative commitment

Note. This graph depicts the conditional indirect effect [M] at specific values of the moderator [Z] by individual IV for normative commitment (when $p<.05$).
Summary of Findings by Hypotheses

As a means of testing the affective and normative commitment relationships 24 hypotheses were proposed. A summary of results by individual hypothesis is presented in Table 6.8 (affective commitment) and Table 6.9 (normative commitment). In total, 16 of the 18 affective commitment hypotheses were supported, while four of the six normative commitment hypotheses were supported.

Table 6.8

Summary of Hypotheses Findings by Affective Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesised Relationships</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a) Role scope will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b) Perceived level of personal importance to the organisation, will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c) Level of perceived organisational support will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1d) Level of role ambiguity will be negatively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1e) Formal documented procedures and policies will promote the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1f) Interdependence of work processes will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1g) Operational autonomy will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1h (a and b) Need satisfaction, as tested through use of ‘esteem’ (H1ha) and ‘value’ (H1hb) based measures will be positively related to the affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Both supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a) That a relational psychological contract will mediate the relationship between role scope and affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continued)
Table 6.8 (continued)

Summary of Hypotheses Findings by Affective Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesised Relationships</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H3b) That a relational psychological contract will mediate the relationship between personal importance and affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3c) That a relational psychological contract will mediate the relationship between perceived organisational support and affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3d) That a relational psychological contract will mediate the relationship between esteem-based need satisfaction and affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3e) That a relational psychological contract will mediate the relationship between value-based need satisfaction and affective commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a) the indirect effect of role scope on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b) the indirect effect of personal importance on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4c) the indirect effect of organisational support on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4d) the indirect effect of the value dimension of need satisfaction on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continued)
Table 6.8 (continued)

*Summary of Hypotheses Findings by Affective Commitment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesised Relationships</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H4e) the indirect effect of the esteem dimension of need satisfaction on affective commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.9

*Summary of Hypotheses Findings by Normative Commitment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesised Relationships</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H2a) Perceived socialisation experiences will be positively related to the normative commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b) Congruence with organisational mission and values will be positively related to the level of normative commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3f) That a relational psychological contract will positively mediate the relationship between perceived socialisation experiences and normative commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3g) That a relational psychological contract will positively mediate the relationship between organisational mission and value congruence with personal values, and normative commitment of volunteers</td>
<td>Supported (partial mediation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4f) the indirect effect of socialisation on normative commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4g) the indirect effect of organisational mission and values congruence with personal values on normative commitment via a relational psychological contract, is moderated by perceived psychological contract fulfillment, such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of the direct relationships between antecedents and commitment outcomes, regression analyses produced statistically significant results which explained 36 per cent of overall variance of volunteers’ affective commitment, and 28 per cent of normative commitment respectively. Six antecedent variables (role scope, personal importance, organisational support, formal procedures, need satisfaction – both esteem and value dimensions) made a statistically significant, and positive contribution with a strong effect size ($f^2 = .33$) in the full regression model for affective commitment (Cohen, 1988). Role ambiguity was significant, but negatively related to affective commitment. Socialisation and mission and values congruence were both significantly and positively related to normative commitment in the regression model, also creating a strong effect ($f^2 = .40$).

Progressing to the mediation effect of a relational psychological contract on the direct relationship between independent variables and affective commitment, five hypotheses were proposed. Partial mediation was found in support of all five, specific to the independent variables of role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction (both value and esteem dimensions) variables.

Relevant to the mediation of antecedents-normative commitment relationships, by a relational psychological contract, two hypotheses were proposed, specific to socialisation and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values as the independent variables. Both were supported, with the relational psychological partially mediating the direct relationship, relevant to H3f (socialisation) and H3g (congruence of mission and organisational values with personal values).

There were seven moderation hypotheses, devised to test the extent to which perceptions of contract fulfillment might interact with the strength of the mediated relationship. The first group of hypotheses (4a-e), which dealt with the relationship between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment, was supported specific to independent variables of personal importance (4b), the esteem-dimension of need satisfaction (4e), and role scope (4a). Effect sizes were only small, in line with the parameters suggested by Aiken and West (1991), whereby a small moderation effect is better estimated at $f^2 = .02$ and a medium moderation effect at $f^2 = .075$. In relation to normative commitment, neither H4f (socialisation) nor H4g (congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values) was supported.
Conclusion

This chapter has been primarily concerned with the presentation of the regression analyses undertaken to test hypotheses associated with the four research questions. To this end, the data screening processes have been detailed, and satisfaction of the necessary assumptions of multiple regression analysis provided. Regression findings have been organised by individual hypothesis. The next and final chapter will discuss the findings in more detail and attempt to draw out the relevant conclusions regarding implications for management theory and practice. Limitations and scope for further research will also be addressed.
CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This final chapter interprets the quantitative results presented in Chapter Six testing the research hypotheses. Drawing on the challenges facing NFP organisations utilising volunteers (presented in Chapter Two), the literature detailed in support of the research constructs (Chapter Three), and the research questions and resultant hypotheses (Chapter Four), the following discussion seeks to identify the key contributions of this study. In terms of chapter structure, the first section provides a summary of the research process and addresses the findings relevant to the research hypotheses and questions. This will lead into a broader discussion about the research problem, including an examination of the key points of contribution to the literature, and practice, relevant to volunteer management, organisational behaviour, and human resource management frameworks. Prior to the conclusion, study limitations are noted, along with a number of elements that would benefit from further research.

Summary of the Research Process

Findings in relation to the research hypotheses were presented in the previous chapter. It is in this chapter, however, that the value of these results will be interpreted, in terms of contribution to the literature, and the implications for management theory and practice are discussed. This study - by designating organisational volunteers rather than paid staff as the research sample - has enabled a fresh consideration of the antecedents of affective and normative commitment, and has coincided with an exciting new phase in the theoretical consideration and application of normative commitment. Additionally, it has examined the nature of the relationship of a relational psychological contract on the direct relationships between antecedent and commitment outcomes, as well as the interaction of contract fulfillment on the psychological contract-commitment paths. As such, research hypotheses were allocated according to four key research questions.

To refresh, the first two research questions sought to identify the relevant antecedents of affective and normative commitment for volunteers, based on the tripartite organisational commitment model (Allen & Meyer, 1990). As noted, continuance commitment was excluded from the study design due to the nature of volunteer work. Review of the contemporary organisational commitment literature highlighted the ongoing pre-eminence of this commitment model (Becker et al., 2009;
Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Rutowski et al., 2009). Despite the vigorous defence of the model by its authors, debate has continued regarding the level of discriminant validity of affective and normative commitment components (Bergman, 2006; Ko et al., 1997). This debate has contributed to the recent efforts by theorists, chiefly Meyer and his colleagues (see Klein et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), to reconceptualise normative commitment, its antecedents, and consequences.

Other decisions resulted from the review process, chiefly regarding the selection of independent variables. Relevant to affective commitment, a decision was made to include personal importance - an established but rarely used antecedent of affective commitment - in the test model. The structural characteristics group, despite previous conclusions of non-significance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) was included, encompassing antecedents of autonomy, interdependence, and procedural formality. This decision acknowledged the changing nature of operations in many NFP organisations, as well as the transition of management programs within the sector. Need satisfaction - as part of the dispositional characteristics grouping - was included in recognition of a) the neglect of dispositional elements by commitment researchers, and b) previous research establishing volunteer-specific needs and commitment (Clary et al., 1998).

Pertinent to normative commitment was the inclusion of congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values as an antecedent of normative commitment, based on proposals in the literature, and recognising the volunteer context. Reciprocity, while initially included as an independent variable of normative commitment in the study design and as a measure in the distributed questionnaire, was excluded from analysis – attributable to insufficient scale reliability relevant to the test sample.

These above decisions made, multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the level of direct relationship between antecedents of role scope, perceived personal importance, role ambiguity, perceived organisational support, formal procedures, interdependence, autonomy, need satisfaction (value and esteem dimensions), and the dependent variable of affective commitment. Tested antecedents of normative commitment included socialisation, and congruence of mission and values on the part of the organisation and individual. Control variables for both outcome variables included age, gender, education, and organisational tenure. A positive and significant relationship was found (in descending order of importance) for personal
importance, role scope, organisational support, formal procedures, and need satisfaction (value and esteem dimensions) in relation to affective commitment. Role ambiguity, as hypothesised, was negatively related to affective commitment. Non-significant relationships were found for autonomy, and interdependence. Socialisation and mission congruence were both found to be positively and significantly related to normative commitment.

Meyer and colleagues (Klein et al., 2009; McInnis et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010) have sought to reposition commitment research, by emphasising the incomplete understanding of the commitment process and experience. Moving beyond the simple quantification of commitment antecedents, this consideration has encompassed the tentative exploration of how mechanisms, such as psychological contract, might transmit and/or interact with the commitment process. As such, the second part of the conceptual model of this study focused on two research questions. These questions dealt with the examination of the indirect effects generated by a relational psychological contract on the direct paths between antecedents and commitment outcomes, and the subsequent moderation effect of contract fulfillment on the contract-commitment paths, for both affective and normative commitment.

To test the indirect effect of a relational psychological contract, mediation analysis was conducted using a bootstrapping macro devised by Hayes and Preacher (2012), for affective and then normative commitment. It was hypothesised that the antecedent-affective commitment relationship would be mediated by a relational psychological contact, relevant to individual antecedents. Tested antecedents included role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and both the value and esteem dimensions of need satisfaction. These variables were selected due to the theoretical, and / or empirical support apparent in the literature (see Chapter Four) regarding the dual association of these variables with both affective commitment and psychological contract constructs. Moreover, the prior testing of the direct relationship in the current study had identified each of these variables as significantly contributing to affective commitment; satisfying traditional mediation requirements (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Mediation hypotheses relating to affective commitment were all supported, with a partial mediation effect being observed for role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and both the esteem and value dimensions of need satisfaction. Progressing to normative commitment, when tested for the mediating effect of a relational psychological contract on the direct relationship, partial mediation was
identified in support of both hypotheses: socialisation, and the congruence of mission and organisational values with personal values.

To address the final research question, contract fulfillment was tested for a moderating effect on the mediated relationship (created by a relational psychological contract) for both affective and normative commitment, relevant to each of the independent variables underpinning the mediated relationships (role scope, personal importance, etc.). Use of moderated mediation computation techniques allowed for the simultaneous testing of the indirect and interactive effects for all antecedents. As noted in the Methodology (Chapter Five), very few studies have taken advantage of this technique, and its use adds an extra point of value to this study. The moderation hypotheses posited that the relationship between a relational psychological contract and each of the commitment outcomes would be amplified at higher levels of fulfillment of the held psychological contract. Tests were again conducted using individual antecedents. Relevant to affective commitment, moderation hypotheses were supported with statistically significant and positive results for personal importance, the esteem dimension of need satisfaction, and role scope. In relation to normative commitment, the moderation hypotheses were not supported; a negative relationship being produced for both socialisation, and congruence of organisation mission and values with personal values.

Interpretation of the Findings Relevant to the Direct Relationships

The following section interprets the finding for each of the hypothesised direct relationships in greater detail. Relationships are compared with the findings of relevant studies where available, by individual variable. Following the antecedents of affective and normative commitment, which were the focus of the first two research questions, is a section which attempts to integrate the implications derived. This process is then repeated for Research Questions Three and Four.

The Antecedents of Affective Commitment in a Volunteer Context

The first research question concerned the identification of the antecedents, and respective strength of contribution, to the affective commitment of volunteers. This question incorporated eight hypotheses - based on the independent variables nominated in the literature and derived from the Allen and Meyer (1990) definition of affective commitment. Six hypotheses were supported, namely role scope (+), personal importance (+), organisational support (+), role ambiguity (-), formal procedures (+),
and need satisfaction with sub-dimensions of value (+) and esteem (+). Hypotheses for interdependence and autonomy were not supported. These eight variables are discussed below, in terms of theoretical and practical implications, grouped by affective commitment antecedent subcategories (work experience, structural, and dispositional characteristics).

**Work experiences.**

As highlighted in Chapter Four, role scope, organisational support, and role ambiguity have been extensively tested in relation to affective commitment. Personal importance, has received the least research attention, with the majority of researchers opting to operationalise only organisational support in paid staff contexts. The findings from this study support the positive association previously identified (see Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) relevant to role scope, organisation support, personal importance, and affective commitment, while role ambiguity - consistent with a number of meta-analyses and other studies (Addae et al., 2008; Karadal et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2002; Ortqvist & Vincent, 2006; Wright & Millesen, 2008) - was negatively related. The following discussion of work experience antecedents is ordered by the identified strength of the relationship with affective commitment.

**Personal importance.**

A positive perception of personal importance was identified as the most influential contributor to affective commitment in the tested study model. While this antecedent has been included from the outset in Allen and Meyer’s (1990) commitment model, it has received little research attention. A lone study investigating the relationship of personal importance and affective commitment, on the part of organisational volunteers, identified positive relationships across two samples (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007), in line with the positive finding of the current study.

The finding of this study that personal importance was the strongest contributor to affective commitment is worth noting, in particular regarding the implications for organisational support. Drawing from studies conducted amongst paid staff, meta-analyses have consistently attributed perceptions of organisational support - based on the large effect sizes determined - as the preeminent antecedent of affective commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009).

In this study however, findings indicated that perceptions of organisational support was well down the antecedent list in terms of its contribution to affective
commitment. To recollect, perceptions of personal importance contributed to 24 per cent of the total effect, role scope a further 17 per cent and organisational support accounted for only 14 per cent. It can only be speculated what this result really means. Perhaps it reflects the constrained resources common to the NFP environment, where the workplace mechanisms traditionally associated with the development of perceived organisational support are not readily available such as training, opportunities for promotion, or provision of resources. Or perhaps, perceptions of personal importance as a highly intrinsic factor really are of primary importance to organisational volunteers, as suggested by this study and Boezeman and Ellemers (2007).

Personal importance is attributable to an individual’s active participation within an organisation, particularly decision-making processes. The resultant empowerment and sense of value derived through feedback contributes to an enhanced level of affective commitment. As a form of non-monetary reward, personal importance may act to sustain volunteer contribution and retention (Cuskelly, 1995; Shin & Kleiner, 2003). As such, the benefit of further research into the relationship, specific to volunteers, should be considered.

**Role scope.**

Role scope was found to be positively related to the affective commitment of sampled volunteers, thus deserving further consideration. This is not necessarily a simple proposition. In a paid staff context, role scope as a means of creating a sense of change and performance motivation is highly embedded in the human resource management literature and practice (Eby et al., 1999; Goris et al., 2003; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Previous studies of paid staff have identified a positive and significant relationship between role scope and affective commitment (Eby et al., 1999; Humphrey et al., 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 1998; Riketta, 2002; Schaubroeck et al., 2007); whereby a sense of competence (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1997) and understanding of work outcomes (Tremblay & Roger, 2004) is generated. Given a sense of competence has traditionally been premised on aspects of job design, these studies have understandably focused on the practical mechanisms thought to encourage a heightened perception of competence including the delineation of role, responsibilities, tasks, and management of performance expectations.
These same job design elements have been less considered in research terms for volunteers, who have traditionally been regarded as extraneous to human resource management discourse. This is not to say that organisational volunteers have not exposed to role formalisation in recent years. As a consequence of the managerial transformation of the Australian NFP sector, volunteers have increasingly been incorporated into workforce management frameworks. This is exemplified by the trend of formal position descriptions for volunteer roles, including key responsibilities; adherence to organisational requirements of occupational health and safety; and ethical conduct. A volunteer may be subject to aspects of performance management regimes, or tender his or her resignation.

As previously discussed, such strategies are welcomed by volunteers who view their volunteering efforts as akin to a job. For these individuals the development of position descriptions and formalisation of volunteer management strategies is potentially indicative of organisations finally accounting for the value of volunteer contributions. Conversely, a number of researchers have recently expressed concern that wholesale adoption of practices derived from the paid employment environment will be viewed as overt bureaucratisation (see McInnes et al., 2009; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2011), unsuitable to the volunteer context.

Such a view underscores the position that while the application of job design principles may form a valuable component of volunteer role scope, generating a sense of competence, the main emphasis should be on task significance and, to a lesser extent feedback, as a means of determining impact. Volunteers gain “a sense of personal satisfaction and accomplishment from seeing their efforts make a difference in another person’s life” (Wymer & Starnes, 2001, p.279). Where such an effect is not directly visible to the volunteer, due to the nature of the activity undertaken, the provision of feedback through organisational communication channels should be actioned. As such, the ‘meaningfulness’ of volunteer work, that is, how volunteer efforts are of value to the broader organisation, can be fully articulated. It is also aligned with meta-analytic findings from the more general literature that task significance is important in the prediction of work ‘meaningfulness’, and will encourage commitment (Humphrey et al., 2007).

This finding builds on the preliminary studies undertaken amongst volunteers using the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). To date, positive relationships have been identified between role scope, and satisfaction and
performance outcomes (Millette & Gagne`, 2008); task significance and sustained
involvement by corporate volunteers (Pajo & Lee, 2011); and task characteristics and
volunteer engagement and satisfaction (Schroer & Hertel, 2009). From a design
perspective, this study has acknowledged the importance of commitment as a desirable
attribute over and above role satisfaction for volunteers (Testa, 2001; Vecina et al.,
2012). From a theoretical perspective, it highlights the more important subcomponents
of role scope – specifically task significance – in determining volunteer commitment.
As such, the study provides a foundation for further examination of the role scope-
commitment relationship specific to volunteers, and an important strategic
consideration for organisations implementing job design frameworks and practices
derived from the paid-staff literature regarding task significance and feedback.

Organisational support.

Organisational support was found to positively contribute to the affective
commitment of volunteers; consistent with the findings of studies examining the
organisational support – affective commitment relationship among paid staff
(Eisenberger et al., 2002; Quenneville et al., 2010; Riggle et al., 2009; Tremblay et al.,
2010). In the general literature, the negative implications of an overt emphasis on
workplace rules on perceptions of organisational support - and by extension affective
commitment – has been identified in comparison to the positive effect of an emphasis
by the organisation on an individual’s well-being (Quenneville et al., 2010). While the
inclusion of perceived personal importance into the tested model appears to have
diluted the traditional strength of organisational support’s contribution to affective
commitment, the determination of a significant relationship resonates with both the
volunteer literature, as well as literature derived from paid-staff contexts that
emphasises wellbeing.

The volunteer literature is explicit about the interest an organisation should
demonstrate in the wellbeing of a volunteer, including through the provision of
volunteer-based, supportive social networks (Farmer & Fedor, 1999), and social-
oriented organisational values (Ban et al., 2002; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee,
2007) as a means of encouraging commitment. It notes the theoretical affinity between
the attributes and values of an NFP organisation, and the worth of organisational
support as a positive inducement to the formation of affective commitment on the part
of organisational volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Farmer & Fedor, 1999;
The perception of organisational support, similar to personal importance, thus provides a relational inducement to remain involved with an organisation (Maertz et al., 2007) to the extent that volunteers perceive their efforts to be supported by the organisation.

The paid staff literature emphasises the role of human resource management practices in positively shaping perceptions of organisational support through recognition of reciprocation of an individual’s efforts in the longer term (Allen & Vandenbergh, 2003; Tremblay et al., 2010). Accordingly, positive perceptions are typically created through the discretionary provision (Wayne et al., 2009) of training or skills development (Allen et al., 2003; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002), career development, or promotional opportunities (Meyer & Smith, 2000). While the application of human resource management practices may well contribute to creating perceptions of organisational support in a volunteer context, the underlying strategy and resources may require substantial adaptation. This conclusion is based on responses to the ‘why volunteer’ items in the study questionnaire (Clary et al., 1998), as well as free text comments by individual respondents, which indicated that much of the sample group were absolutely not involved for purposes of career advancement or skill development, due in part to advanced age, or types of task undertaken.

Fortunately, other strategies that contribute to perceptions of organisational support are well within the capacity of NFP organisations attempting to foster affective commitment amongst their volunteers. These include the provision of information and clear communication (O’Reilly et al., 1991), fair rewards (Allen et al., 2003), and / or project funding. Scope for skill development or promotion should still be considered by organisations where volunteers appreciate these opportunities.

**Role ambiguity.**

Role ambiguity, as a negative correlate of affective commitment for paid staff, has been well established in multiple meta-analyses (see Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Meyer et al., 2002; Ortqvist & Vincent, 2006), and more recent research (see Addae et al., 2008; Karadal et al., 2008; Wright & Millesen, 2008).

Volunteers are supposedly quite vulnerable to role ambiguity (Carver, 1997; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Harris, 1989, Kikulis, 2000; Pearce, 1993; Widmer, 1993), traditionally operating in looser, less formalised organisational structures than paid employees (Kaplan, 2001; Pearce, 1993; Sawhill & Williamson, 2001; Widmer, 1993).
While only a limited number of studies have empirically examined the role ambiguity-commitment relationship in relation to volunteers, negative associations have been found (Sakires et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2004), consistent with the current study. Hence, role ambiguity remains identifiable as a significant negative predictor of affective commitment, as originally proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990).

However, consideration of the findings of this study and the other volunteer-centric research (Sakires et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2004), suggests that role ambiguity, while remaining a significant negative influence on commitment is no longer as prevalent in the volunteer domain. Such a shift may reflect the transition in volunteer management practices that have accompanied the more general transformation of the NFP organisation. Specifically, this may include the clarification of tasks, provision of role descriptors; attention to person-organisation fit in volunteer selection and orientation processes; and the promotion of supported organisational interaction through training and feedback (Judeh, 2011; Sakires et al., 2009; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). Complementary research on ‘professionalising’ organisations suggests that ambiguity is reduced as tasks associated with specific roles are better understood (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011).

The systematic reduction of role ambiguity relevant to sampled volunteers is an encouraging sign of improved volunteer management techniques. However, the meta-analyses cited above and recent studies of both paid staff and volunteers, testify to the enduring relevance of role ambiguity as a negative predictor of affective commitment in line with the proposition of Meyer et al. (2002). For the contemporary NFP organisation seeking to encourage affective commitment on part of its volunteers, the reduction of role ambiguity should remain a key focus, given the embedded characteristics of imprecise objectives, multiple stakeholder interests, and the more tenuous nature of the volunteer-organisational relationship.

**Structural characteristics.**

Testing of the relationship between structural characteristics and affective commitment has remained neglected by researchers, following the conclusion that structural characteristics did not contribute significantly to the affective commitment of paid employees (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). While not challenging this finding, the paucity of research regarding the antecedents of affective commitment, warranted a more comprehensive examination of the structural component of the Allen and Meyer
(1993) model. On this basis, formal procedures, interdependence, and autonomy were tested, although only formal procedures was found to significantly contribute to affective commitment.

**Formalisation of process and procedures.**

The identification of formal procedures as significant predictor of affective commitment in this study, flags an interesting aspect of the ‘professionalisation’ of NFP and volunteer management; a debate that was briefly reviewed in Chapter Two. In addition to raising the possibility of further research avenues after a long hiatus, the underlying reasons are worth further consideration. The formalisation of organisational procedures and policy frameworks has formed an integral part of the management sophistication being developed in many NFP organisations, accompanied by notions of best practice and compliance. External to the focus and scope of this study, the environment for volunteers, the nature of volunteering, and volunteers themselves, have all been subject to transition. However the finding of this study raises questions regarding the changing expectations of volunteers, and the practical implications arising for volunteer management and engagement. These are not questions that can be explored further in this study, but may be of value in studies seeking to further knowledge of organisational dynamics, specific to volunteer-centric environments.

**Interdependence.**

According to the reviewed research literature, a positive view of interdependence will see individuals support each other in the accomplishment of shared tasks, and experience the collective output and rewards of this process. This may include the development of strong social ties, thereby contributing to the development of commitment (Lin et al., 2008). Interdependence was thus included in the test model, based on the characterisation of NFP organisations of skeletal staff structures and broad service offerings which necessitate resource sharing and collective effort to deliver service outputs or outcomes. The survey instruments reflected task and outcome interdependence; the combination of which has been found to be positively associated with affective commitment (Brooks, 2002; Lin et al., 2008; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Van der Vegt et al., 2000).

However, interdependence was not found to be a significant predictor of affective commitment. This is possibly attributable to the following. Despite the strong interdependence that is attributable at the organisational level, this perception may not
be replicated on the part of individuals; particularly if they are involved in roles or tasks without a lot of scope or responsibility. Information provided by the organisation and by respondents indicated that many roles were variously quite limited, self-contained, or completed in isolation. It is evident in the literature that the greater the interaction through shared work processes and outcomes - i.e. interdependence - the more likely that camaraderie and social network will develop, promoting feeling of belonging and attachment (Lin et al., 2008; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Van der Vegt et al., 2000). For this study, while social interaction was noted in ad hoc comments as important by a portion of respondents, it is possible that many other respondents did not have the same opportunities to enjoy social interaction as part of their volunteer role with this particular organisation; diminishing a sense of interdependence. This perception may be different in alternative organisations utilising volunteers, or if tested with respondents engaged in more complex volunteer roles.

**Autonomy.**

It has been suggested that a reasonable level of operational autonomy is conducive to the development of affective commitment through the creation of a positive organisational climate characterised by trust and a sense of personal responsibility (Hawkins, 1998). In such an environment, individuals possess a sense of control over what and how they pursue work responsibilities and tasks. This view is supported by limited research (Acorn et al., 1997; Siew et al., 2011).

Autonomy is a natural feature of the NFP environment, given the satellite nature by which many service locations, staff, and volunteers function. As quasi-employees, volunteers can regard themselves as even further detached from the organisation than paid colleagues, and as such, may perceive themselves to be even more autonomous. Moreover, commitment has been noted as a specific outcome of the operational autonomy characteristic of the NFP sector (Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Cunningham, 2000).

In this study, however, the autonomy-affective commitment relationship was found to be non-significant. Perhaps while the NFP organisation and individual volunteers have been generally characterised as highly autonomous, due to the decentralisation of operational models, the experienced autonomy may not be aligned with the theoretical definitions provided in the literature review (Lawler, 1992; Wells, 1990). Examining aspects of the level of perceived accountability for local results, the level of decision-making discretion mandated amongst front-line volunteers, and the
extent to which participative management strategies were being implemented to provide relevant knowledge, was outside the scope of this study. The extent to which these were deficient may have influenced respondents’ perceptions of autonomy.

**Dispositional characteristics.**

Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that the dispositional elements allocated to personal characteristics (the third group of affective commitment antecedents) have received little attention, despite the identification by Mowday et al. (1982; Mowday, 1989) of need satisfaction as a contributing factor to commitment. Need satisfaction was the only dispositional antecedent assessed for a direct relationship with affective commitment, split into separate dimensions of ‘value’ and ‘esteem’ (Clary et al., 1998). Both hypothesised relationships were found to be significant.

**Need Satisfaction.**

Relevant to volunteers, the two most applicable needs were identified as value and esteem-based (Clary & Snyder, 1992). These dimensions have only been subject to limited examination (Clary et al., 1998). While results are not directly comparable due to differences in the research design between this study and that of Clary et al. (1998) – where ‘commitment’ was conceptualised as the likelihood of remaining a volunteer - the linkage of need satisfaction and favourable attitudinal outcomes was supported.

The selection of need satisfaction as a dispositional variable was partly premised on the dilemma confronted by organisations when attempting to engage their volunteers. The study enabled the exploration of why a volunteer might be involved with an organisation at a deeper level (such as value or esteem-based needs) rather than more superficial expectations, or as a result of a successful marketing campaign. Review of the open questions contained in the questionnaire regarding why volunteers were involved with a particular organisation indicated themes of ‘helping others’ and ‘making friends’. The ability for an organisation to identify these needs and gain improved insight into the motivations of its volunteer workforce will enable strategies targeting volunteer recruitment and support to be better designed.

**The Antecedents of Normative Commitment in a Volunteer Context**

The second research question in the current study concerned the identification of the antecedents, and respective strength of contribution, relevant to the normative commitment of volunteers. This question had two attendant hypotheses derived from
the literature which were supported: socialisation (+), and congruence of mission and organisational values with personal values (+).

Socialisation.

Socialisation was found to have a direct relationship with normative commitment in this study. This finding is in line with the initial proposal of Meyer and Allen (1990), meta-analytic reviews (Bauer et al., 2007; Klein et al., 2006; Saks et al., 2007), and other studies (see Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010; Mitus, 2010; Taormina, 1999); all of which have provided support to the socialisation-commitment association (albeit for paid staff contexts, and for generic forms of organisational commitment).

Specific to the volunteer literature, the socialisation experience is considered a valuable ingredient in the generation of positive attitudes, retention, and contribution to the organisation or service objectives (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Wymer, 2012; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). The examination of the socialisation experience as an antecedent of normative commitment in this study adds to the initial volunteer-centric research. To recall, these studies have concluded that the social experience is highly valued (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Filstad, 2011; Morrison, 2002) and that volunteer commitment would be reinforced by the existence of appropriate group norms (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008), established as part of the socialisation experience. For volunteers seeking socio-emotional need fulfillment, such norms, combined with social interaction, provide a powerful incentive to remain involved with the organisation (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Wymer, 2012; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). Moreover, this study attempts to leverage the broadened interpretation of the obligations associated with normative commitment, in particular the dual perceptions of indebtedness and moral duty (Meyer & Parfynova, 2010).

The socialisation process promotes knowledge on the part of the employee or volunteer of the values, social knowledge, and expected behaviours relevant to a role, such that a participant may better integrate as a member of the organisation (Bauer et al., 2007; Chiu & Chen, 2009; Filstad, 2011; Saks et al., 2007; Taormina, 1997). Effective socialisation of newcomers is considered crucial to the learning and adjustment process, and can have lasting and positive effects, enhancing person-
organisation fit and person-job fit as well as organisational commitment (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010).

**Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values.**

It was noted in the literature review that the antecedents of normative commitment are not well understood (Meyer et al., 2002), and require further consideration (Becker et al., 2009). This study sought to test the emergent position advanced in the literature, that congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values would act as an antecedent of normative commitment (Klein et al., 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Parfynova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004). The study’s finding that this variable is a positive predictor of normative commitment contributes to the contemporary debate regarding the potential antecedents of normative commitment, specific to volunteers.

To recall, volunteers are motivated to join organisations based on the compatibility of their individual beliefs and values, with espoused organisational values (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Catano et al., 2001; Edwards & Cable, 2004; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2008). Embedded in the stated mission, organisational values provide guidance and justification for decisions and behaviour by the collective organisational membership (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Schein, 1986). Broadly speaking, such congruence has been positively associated with person-organisation fit, workplace behaviours (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Cohen, 2011; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and attitudes including commitment (Finegan, 2000; Lauver & Kristoff-Brown, 2001; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Quenneville et al., 2010; Rosete, 2006).

Normative commitment is, thus, a reflection of the level of identification by an individual with the organisation’s mission and values (espoused and practiced) (Iles et al., 1996; Meyer et al., 1997; Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; Stephens et al., 2004). This association has only been subject to limited examination, with positive relationships between value congruence and normative commitment of paid staff identified by Amos and Weathington (2008) and Finegan (2000).

Organisations wishing to leverage the benefits of commitment should be aware of stakeholder perceptions of organisational values (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; Quenneville et al., 2010). Moreover, congruence of mission and values should reflect the integration of organisational strategy and human resource management practices,
both at an organisational – individual level, and between organisational subgroups (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009) such as paid staff and volunteers. For NFP organisations concerned with leveraging volunteer commitment to achieve performance and retention objectives (Garner & Garner, 2007), the potential benefit of paying attention to mission and value congruence between an organisation and its individual volunteers is clear.

**Implications Relevant to Research Questions One and Two**

Complicated as it is by the lack of explicit reward mechanisms, volunteer management can potentially benefit from an enhanced understanding of tools targeted at the creation and leveraging of volunteer commitment. While volunteer-centric commitment studies have been conducted, the value of a thorough review and testing of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) affective and normative commitment constructs was apparent.

The affective and normative components of organisational commitment tested in this study, as a means of addressing Research Questions One and Two, were derived primarily from the Allen and Meyer (1990) tripartite model of commitment. This framework was augmented by the recent reconceptualisation of normative commitment and its potential antecedents (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, Meyer et al., 2002), as well as the relevant volunteer literature (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stephens et al., 2004). Relevant to affective commitment, antecedents such as personal importance, and structural characteristics encompassing procedural formalisation and interdependence, as well as the dispositional aspect operationalised as need satisfaction, while long disregarded in the paid staff empirical literature, seemed of particular importance to the volunteer context and professionalisation of NFP organisational practices. For normative commitment, the emergence of the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values, also seemed particular apt, but had not yet been empirically examined. While not explicitly tested, the concept of combinative commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) influenced the framework with the value of an affective / normative commitment profile for volunteers discernible in the literature (see Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Van Vuuren et al., 2008). Certainly the determination of the good levels of affective and normative commitment on the part of survey respondents indicates the presence of an affective / normative commitment profile. The support of several
hypotheses in relation to predictors (as noted above), is indicative of the following points.

Beginning with affective commitment, the first point is largely theoretical. This study, by finding significant relationships between modelled antecedents and affective commitment supports the merit of applying organisational commitment constructs to a non-traditional volunteer workgroup. Furthermore, it underscores the value of operationalising a wider range of variables than generally used in contemporary commitment research, and broadening the overt research emphasis on ‘work experiences’ to re-encompass structural and dispositional characteristics. Antecedents that would merit further investigation given the findings of this study, and the NFP and volunteer-specific commitment literature include perceived personal importance, procedural formalisation, and need satisfaction.

The empirically-supported review of theorised commitment antecedents specific to the volunteer context gives rise to more practical considerations. Findings have the capacity to inform volunteer management practices. For example, positive perceptions of personal importance should be recognised as a key attribute to be fostered by organisations keen to promote affective commitment on the part of their volunteers. The predictive capacity of procedural formality reflects positively on the professionalisation efforts of NFP organisations. Further assessment of this variable may assist organisations in determining the optimum balance between coherent management processes, and onerous administrative requirements, where affective commitment of individuals remains an organisational objective. While role ambiguity had a relatively small effect size, in recognition of human resource principles increasingly informing volunteer management (Sakires et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2004), it remains as a significant and negative influence on affective commitment. As such, organisations should continue to work to minimise role ambiguity amongst volunteers.

Turning to normative commitment, the recent reconceptualisation of the construct has allowed for the identification and testing of new antecedents thought to contribute to normative commitment, particularly when individuals are involved in a highly social, mission-oriented organisation (Stephens et al., 2004). Further examination of the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values would clearly be of value. However this study, by providing empirical support for the variable’s relationship with normative commitment, provides a first test of the
emergent theory in this area. The positive finding indicates initial merit as an antecedent of normative commitment, specific to a volunteer context. Similarly, the strength of socialisation as a contributor to normative commitment has addressed two gaps in the literature. Firstly, the finding is aligned with the proposition of Allen and Meyer (1990), and addresses the empirical neglect of this theoretical relationship, and secondly, it is indicative of the relevance of the socialisation experience in the formation of volunteer attitudes.

It is clear from the study findings, and the implications of the first two research questions discussed in this chapter, that Allen and Meyer’s (1990) commitment model is as applicable to organisational volunteers, as it is to the traditionally studied paid staff domain. That is, the antecedents are broadly transferrable to the volunteer management domain, in line with the commitment model and paid staff literature. However, there are also indications that elements of each antecedent perhaps need to be emphasised differently when considering organisational volunteer rather than paid staff commitment.

For example, the contributory strength of perceived personal importance over perceived organisational support in the prediction of affective commitment. The literature emphasises that an individual’s perception of value contributed to the organisation is demonstrated by the provision of training, resources, and professional development opportunities by the organisation (i.e. organisational support). While both constructs are important, the critical difference with perceptions of personal importance as opposed to organisation support is one of perspective. Perceptions of personal importance are largely internally driven (i.e. the sense that the work undertaken and contribution made to the organisation or service outcomes is important, although such endorsements may also be publicly visible). Organisations would be well advised to leverage positive perceptions of both personal importance and organisational support. Moreover, the research literature, particularly when focused on workgroups such as volunteers, could be expanded to better acknowledge the fundamental differences in constructs and that these mindsets can co-exist in the determination of affective commitment.

Role scope needs to be considered differently for volunteers than for paid staff. The direct transfer of frameworks from the paid staff domain - such as position descriptions and codes of conduct - have had mixed results. Some volunteers view these initiatives as due recognition of the value of volunteer contribution, while others
view it as an onerous impediment to their contribution (Stirling et al., 2011). It is suggested that the organisational emphasis should be directed towards the communication of task and outcome significance when conceptualising role scope, in contrast to an overt emphasis on job design frameworks. The provision of effective socialisation programs, containing opportunities for social interaction; and the establishment of role clarity and feedback loops, will further assist in the positive perception of role scope (Wymer & Starnes, 2001).

The socialisation experience, in addition to encompassing valuable opportunities for social interaction and the development of a collegiate environment, supports the development of norms and the integration of the individual volunteer as a contributing member of the organisation. It appears there is little difference in the principles underpinning socialisation between the paid staff and voluntary domains, relevant to the connection between effective socialisation and enhanced role fit.

However, in addition to the delineation of organisational expectations, socialisation programs for volunteers need to have a higher emphasis on fair treatment, and communicate the compatibility of organisational values and those held important by volunteers (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010; Mitus, 2010). While the perceived match of values may well have motivated the volunteer to become involved with the organisation in the first instance (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Catano et al., 2001; Edwards & Cable, 2004; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2008), the socialisation process – and the clarity and relationships generated through it – is likely to influence the resultant perception of actual congruence.

**Interpretation of the Findings Relevant to the Indirect Effects**

With the direct relationships established between antecedents and dependent variables of affective and normative commitment, the indirect effect of a relational psychological contract on these direct paths was able to be tested. This process addressed Research Question Three. The identification and testing of a relational psychological contract as a mediator addressed the identified research gap regarding the nature of the psychological contract-commitment relationship, and the relevance of both constructs to volunteers. Each of the mediated paths is discussed below, allocated by affective and normative commitment sections.

It is important to recap two points at this stage. The first is that while mediation of commitment has been tested, the specific antecedents identified in this study do not
appear to have been previously assessed in this manner. Thus, the reported results support the contention that a number of antecedents of affective and normative commitment may also be transmitted by the relational aspects of an individual’s psychological contract.

The second point – to reiterate the relevant section of the literature review supporting the research framework (Chapter Four) – is the combinative role of dispositional factors on the part of an individual (Grant, 1999) and the strategic human resource management framework utilised by the organisation in the determination of the psychological contract. Both these elements will contribute to the characterisation and associated obligations (both organisational and individual attributions) of the psychological contract (Mowday, 1989; Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994). As such the formative psychological contract is influenced by workplace interactions, as well as dispositional factors on the part of the individual (Grant, 1999). Positive experiences - specific to perceptions of role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction - will theoretically encourage the development of a more highly relational contract character (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Guchait, 2007; Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Uen et al., 2009) and align the contract’s interpretive capacity within relational parameters (Grant, 1999; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994; Vantilborgh et al., 2011). These work experience and dispositional factors further inform the obligations attributed to both contract parties, on the part of the individual. On this basis, each antecedent will differentially influence the obligations embedded within the relational psychological contract.

Mediation of the Affective Commitment Path

To begin with affective commitment, seven hypotheses were devised, based on the combination of theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the associations of each antecedent with both affective commitment and a relational psychological contract. The respective relationships between antecedents (role scope, personal importance, organisational support, and need satisfaction - esteem and value dimensions), and their connection to the mediator (the relational psychological contract) formed the ‘a’ path; while the ‘b’ path reflected the relationship between the relational psychological contract and affective commitment (DV) (refer Figure 6.2). Of the hypothesised mediated relationships, all five were supported. Accordingly, a
relational psychological contract partially mediated the relationships between: role scope (H3a), personal importance (H3b), organisational support (H3c), and the value (H3d) and esteem (H3e) dimensions of need satisfaction; and affective commitment.

**Role scope.**

To recall, role scope is regarded as particularly influential in psychological contract formation (Graen & Scandura, 1987), based on the theoretical argument that work leading to significant outcomes, or enriched role scope, will positively influence the relational characterisation thereof. Likewise Patrick, Smy, Tombs, and Shelton (2001) noted the link between undertaking a role of choice and enhanced attitudinal outcomes. As a mediating factor, the relational psychological contract transmits the effects of role scope to affective commitment, such that as components of role scope reinforce a sense of relationalism of contract terms, and the resultant relational contract promotes a sense of affective commitment (Rousseau et al., 2006). Despite this, the relationship between role scope and a relational psychological contract has not been previously examined. The establishment of role scope as a direct and indirect (as transmitted by a relational psychological contract) effect on affective commitment is therefore a substantive finding.

From a volunteer perspective, it has already been discussed how the experienced ‘meaningfulness’ of work undertaken will generate a sense of accomplishment and ‘making a difference’. Obligations accrued to the relational psychological contract, relevant to role scope, are thus likely to reflect the connection between task significance and perceived value or meaningfulness of outcomes to which the volunteer work contributes. In line with Patrick et al. (2001) and as identified in a sample of sports volunteers (Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007), determining the role preferences of volunteers, both at the point of entry to an organisation, and as appropriate thereafter, and trying to match these to work available in the organisation is likely to be of benefit to positive perceptions of role scope.

**Personal importance.**

As previously reviewed, the perceived level of personal importance to the organisation is a modelled antecedent of affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). It is thought to be particularly relevant to the affective commitment of volunteers (Garner & Garner, 2011; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Yanay & Yanay, 2008); a proposition supported by the limited empirical research (Boezeman
and Ellemers, 2007). Related studies (see Bellou, 2007; Findler et al., 2007) have identified relationships between correlates of decision-making involvement and commitment, based on the sense of value that an individual derives from this participation (Chen, 2011). This sense of value promotes sentiments of belonging and contribution on the part of an individual (Chen, 2011) - attributes which are arguably aligned with the relational elements of the psychological contract, particularly for volunteers (Cuskelly, 1995; Garner & Garner, 2011; Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Yanay & Yanay, 2008).

A positive perception of personal importance enriches the volunteer experience - through a sense of involvement and personal satisfaction on the part of an individual (Chang, 2005; Farmer & Fedor, 1999) - and is coherent with the relational obligations attributed to the organisation through an individual’s psychological contract. For example, an individual might believe the organisation has an obligation to recognise the importance of its volunteer resources, as a means of generating commitment. This obligation might be met by the organisation to the extent that the key actors provide meaningful feedback, recognise volunteer efforts and contribution, and encourage volunteer participation in decision-making processes (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Cuskelly, 1995; Findler et al., 2007; Garner & Garner, 2011; Shin & Kleiner, 2003; Yanay & Yanay, 2008).

Given a relational psychological contract is understood to be highly idiosyncratic, long-term, and based on the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs, it is not an unreasonable suggestion that an enhanced perception of personal importance is likely to positively influence the assessment of relational contract obligations. The derived perception of personal importance also satisfies the underlying need of a volunteer to make a meaningful contribution to a cause or society, or more generally to simply help people. In this way, affective commitment can result as both a direct outcome, and as transmitted by a relational psychological contract, as has been supported by findings in this study.

**Organisational support.**

A positive perception of the support provided by an organisation has been well established as an antecedent of affective commitment for paid staff (Quenneville et al., 2010; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tremblay et al., 2010). In this study, building on the theoretical extension provided (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Luthy & Schrader, 2007;
Netting et al. 2004), this relationship has also been established as significant for volunteers. While the organisational support – affective commitment association has been portrayed as an exchange of obligations (Klein et al., 2009), researchers have emphasised the particularly relational dimension of this exchange (see Guerrero & Herrbach, 2008; O’Donohue et al., 2007a; O’Neill & Adya, 2007). “Employees who perceive their organisations as caring may be more likely to engage in a social exchange relationship with their employer and invest into their employment relationship through emotional attachment” (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003, p.652). As such, this study identified that the relational psychological contract reflects the nature of these organisational support obligations and thereby mediates the direct relationship.

Relational psychological contracts reflect longer term, evolutionary relationships, underpinned by the consideration of employee well-being and the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs, including trust and affiliation on the part of the individual. Human resource management mechanisms associated with organisational support - such as training, positive feedback, promotional opportunities, or simply flexible work arrangements (Allen & Vandenberghe, 2003) - support a sense of employee wellbeing. Such elements also encourage the perception of engagement in an extended organisational relationship (Tremblay et al., 2010) that is integral to a relational psychological contract characterisation. The designation of organisational volunteers as quasi-employees, and in particular where volunteers possess previous employment experience, suggests that perceptions of organisational support and associated mechanisms may be well understood; thereby heightening expectations with regard to the organisation’s supply thereof.

While the direct relationship between a relational psychological contract and affective commitment has been previously established (see Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; O’Donohue et al., 2007), it was noted in the literature review that no studies appear to have examined how a relational psychological contract transmits the effects of organisational support to affective commitment. The finding that a relational psychological contract does exert an indirect effect addresses this gap in understanding. It provides a clearer, and empirically informed, picture of how perceptions of organisational support, as generated by organisational practices, informs the nature of certain obligations of the held relational psychological contract - such as loyalty and trust (O’Donohue et al., 2007) - and the further potential to induce commitment in reciprocation.
Need satisfaction – value and esteem dimensions.

The relationship between need satisfaction and affective commitment was partially mediated by a relational psychological contract, for esteem and value-based dimensions. This finding is in line with the theoretical argument presented (drawing on Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al. 1993; Mowday, 1989; Mowday et al., 1982; Steinmetz et al., 2011). Specific to volunteers, it was suggested that volunteering motivation was partly attributable to the underlying psychological needs, the satisfaction of which would lead to commitment (Marta et al., 2006). Previous work had identified these needs as value based (the altruistic desire to help people) and esteem based (whereby the recognition that efforts make a difference contribute to a positive self-image) (Clary et al., 1992, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Pajo & Lee, 2010; Snyder & Omoto, 1992; Yanay & Yanay, 2008) and first established the empirical association with commitment (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009; Snyder & Omoto, 1992).

However, it was further proposed in this study that need satisfaction, while embedded in personal values and beliefs, would also be integral to the promissory component (and obligations) of the psychological contract construct. This position is an extension of existing literature which suggested that the identification by an organisation of individual needs would assist in the development of an appropriate psychological contract (Bellou, 2007; Schneider & Bowen, 1995). O'Donohue and Nelson (2009) have further ascribed the collective need to help others, and to contribute, as primary motivations of sampled volunteers, as critical elements of a relational psychological contract (albeit ideologically-infused). It would appear that these needs (value and esteem) are sympathetic to the socio-emotional characterisation of a relational psychological contract, and can therefore be classified as obligations rather than expectations. Needs and expectations can be differentiated just as promissory elements and expectations can be, according to the logic of psychological contracting theory. Moreover, the satisfaction of needs assumes a higher priority for individuals in comparison to the satisfaction of their expectations (Schneider & Bowen, 1995).

It was hypothesised that value and esteem need dimensions contribute to affective commitment and at least some of the socio-emotional obligations embedded in a relational psychological contract, and that these obligations transmit the effects of the antecedent to affective commitment. As such, this study’s findings are supportive of the
contention that a relational psychological contract will mediate the direct relationship between need satisfaction and affective commitment.

**Mediation of the Normative Commitment Path**

Theoretical support has been provided regarding the relationship between a relational psychological contract and normative commitment, and an affinity between a relational psychological contract, and normative commitment predictors of socialisation, and congruence of mission and values. Analysis provided support for the partial mediation (by a relational psychological contract) of the relationship between socialisation and normative commitment (H3f), and between mission and values (organisational and personal) congruence, and normative commitment (H3g). These factors are discussed below.

**Socialisation.**

To recall, the socialisation phase (regardless of formality) enables newcomers to gain information, clarify a role, and inform expectations (both general and promissory), through social interaction and participation in organisational practices. Socialisation is an established antecedent of normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010), as further identified in this study. The socialisation experience is also held to be critical in the formation of an individual’s psychological contract (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2012), to the extent that organisational obligations will be assessed through personal experience and observation of workplace behaviour and attitudes (Del Campo, 2007).

According to the reviewed theory, socialisation experiences prior to and on entry to the work environment, including the perception of promised made by the organisation or its agents (Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2012) strongly influence the character of psychological contract formed and its explicit and perceived obligations (Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Robinson, 1996; Rosen et al., 2009; Rousseau, 1989; Zhao et al., 2007). Obligations are defined based on an individual’s beliefs about the resources the organisation is obliged to provide (e.g. material and socio-emotional benefits), and the resources that the individual must supply in return (such as time, effort, loyalty) (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Blau, 1964; Porter et al., 1974; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1989, 1995; Rosen et al., 2009). Particular to a relational psychological contract, obligations attributed to the
organisation might include the provision of development opportunities, personal support, and flexible working conditions, while obligations accruing to the individual may reflect extra-role and / or prosocial behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Hornung & Glaser, 2010; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). In practical terms, the organisation has the capability to ensure the socialisation experience promotes a relational characterisation of the contract and its obligations (Hornung & Glaser, 2010), and that individual (rather than organisational) obligations include organisational commitment.

The finding that the socialisation experience is transmitted via a relational psychological contract to normative commitment reflects not only the pivotal role of socialisation as a means of defining obligations in the first instance, but also the role of the relational psychological contract as a means of enabling exchange of obligations attributed to the organisation and individual.

The volunteer management literature notes that given the fluidity or even ambiguity of organisational values and social expectations for volunteers in comparison to paid employees (Stephens et al., 2004), initial socialisation programs should ensure that the correct assumptions about “role requirements, extra role behaviours, and relational expectations” (Del Campo, 2007, p.434) are developed. In light of this observation, the finding that a relational psychological contract partially mediates the direct relationship between socialisation and normative commitment is of particular relevance. It would appear that the conduct and content of the socialisation process will not only influence the development of the psychological contract characterisation, but through the advance of organisational promises, will determine the nature of the organisational and individual obligations.

Particular to volunteers, it is reasonable to suggest that individuals joining the organisation will be predisposed to the formation of specific commitment components. This suggestion is premised on the intrinsic motivations characteristic of volunteering, and the provision of time and energy in return for need fulfillment, and organisational identification. The commitment predisposition can be further encouraged through the smart design of socialisation programs and promotion of the positive social experience. Given the socialisation objectives include the eventual development and stabilisation of affective and normative commitment, socialisation program content should be aligned with the requirements associated with these commitment profiles.
Saks et al. (2007) and Filstad (2011) found that social tactics was the strongest predictor for newcomers’ socialisation outcomes. In the current study, volunteer respondents indicated the importance of constructive interaction with co-workers (both staff and fellow volunteers); characterised by a strong sense of camaraderie, affiliation, and preparedness to help each other out. For volunteers seeking satisfaction of socio-emotional needs, the social interaction and friendships, appeared to provide a powerful incentive to remain involved with the organisation in line with conclusions in the volunteer literature (Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Luthy & Schrader, 2007; Wymer & Starnes, 2001).

**Congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values.**

The justification of congruence between organisational mission and values and personal values as a specific but emergent antecedent of normative commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Stephens et al., 2004) was made clear in Chapter Four, building on initial research which has established a positive relationship between values congruence and normative commitment (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Finegan, 2000; Somers, 2010). The antecedent is of particular relevance to the NFP context, where individuals are likely to seek alignment between their own values, sense of ethics or social contribution, and an organisation’s mission and values (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Catano et al., 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Tidwell 2005; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Wymer & Starnes, 2001).

Interpersonal and relationship oriented values are fundamental to a relational psychological contract. By informing the contract schema, values held by an individual provide standards on which to base decision-making, and or determine appropriate behaviour or attitudes (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Quenneville et al., 2010). It was therefore advanced that aligned value content is integral to the character of the psychological contract formed and entailed obligations; the evidence for which is seen in the study findings. This finding builds on Cohen’s (2011) identification of relationships between person-organisation values congruence and psychological contract characterisation, and between a relational psychological contract and organisational commitment (albeit affective) on the part of paid employees. To the extent that individuals with “more person-organisation congruence of values as well as of psychological contract may show greater flexibility across jobs and mesh better with
their organisation” (Cohen, 2011, p.649), the findings of the current study contribute to an overlooked dimension of the literature.

Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) suggested that when organisations promote a supportive environment, based on values that individuals can relate to, relationships will be premised on mutual caring and concern, heightening the value of supporting organisational needs on the part of individuals. This line of reasoning is particularly applicable to a NFP organisation given the driving force of its social mission in shaping organisational strategy, and creating engagement appeal to prospective employees, volunteers, and other supporters.

It has been suggested that socially valued goals underpin the development of a strong identification with the organisation, and generate a moral obligation to support the organisation (Meyer & Parfynova, 2010). For organisational volunteers motivated by beliefs in the value of helping people, contributing to society, or simply not letting their mates down, the perceived allegiance of an organisation to a meaningful mission and objectives that resonates with their own internal values can promote satisfaction and intrinsic reward (Aguilera et al., 2007; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Shamir, 1990; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Certainly in the paid employment context, research has found that congruence will promote satisfaction, commitment, and further contributions (Censullo, 2008; Cohen, 2011; Stephens et al., 2004)

Of particular interest is the argument that, given sufficient cause, individuals will continue to contribute in adverse circumstances or overlook organisational shortcomings (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Shamir, 1990; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Such fortitude is attributed to the key characteristics of the held psychological contract, on the rationale that an individual’s values and beliefs influence the relational obligations of the psychological contract. In turn, the psychological contract provides an interpretative framework by which to express the conversion of individual values and beliefs into positive attitudes such as organisational commitment. Volunteers may be initially attracted to an organisation because of the perception that organisational mission or objectives appeals to their own personal values and beliefs. However, given the lack of financial compensation, it would seem particularly important that this initial sense of alignment is consolidated into a deepening sense of congruence. Moreover, a heightened sense of responsibility associated with such congruence may serve to buffer negative organisational events or less desirable work aspects; further supporting
volunteer retention. This felt obligation, underpinned by a relational psychological contract, may well develop into normative commitment.

The means of encouraging congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values draws from literature on person-organisation fit. However, it is clear that volunteer management strategies should seek to foster and maintain alignment between its organisational values and those held by volunteers. The challenge for an organisation is to understand how the stated and espoused mission and values will appeal to the value orientation of potential and commencing volunteers. By understanding the primary values important to such individuals, a sense of congruence can be encouraged between these values and those of the organisation. More altruistic values characteristic of volunteers fit naturally with the relational nature of the psychological contract, and its obligations. As such, an organisation has the opportunity to establish from the outset a collective view between individual values, the development of promissory expectations, and align these perceptions with organisational obligations.

**Implications of the Transmission of Commitment Antecedents by a Relational Psychological Contract**

This study has identified that a relational psychological contract has an indirect effect on the antecedent - affective and normative commitment paths. As such, workplace and dispositional antecedents, derived from Allen and Meyer’s (1990) commitment model, act to inform the characterisation of an individual’s contract (a more relational form in this case), and thus are transmitted through the mediator to the dependent variables. This result is not only consistent with proposals in the literature (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), but also addresses the previous lack of empirical consideration of the predictors of specific forms of psychological contract (Liao-Troth, 2005), and the extent to which the psychological contract may act as a mediating variable (Vantilborgh et al., 2013).

The findings also inform the queried mediating mechanism (Takeuchi et al., 2009) or the conceptual ‘black box’ that was positioned within the strategic human resource management framework (refer Figure 4.1), between human resource management policy and attitudinal outcomes (Guchait, 2007; Guzzo et al., 1994; Mowday, 1989; Rousseau, 1995). To fully appreciate the contributory value, it is necessary to reiterate the interconnection between human resource management
practices, consequent work experiences, and attitudes (Gellatly et al., 2006; Somers, 2010; Testa, 2001) established in the literature review. Importantly, the literature indicated that this connection should not be considered a direct relationship, but may contain a number of transmission factors, including the perceived quality of the individual-organisational relationship (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012).

Enter the psychological contract – positioned not only as a valuable analytical framework for the definition and assessment of an individual’s relationship with an organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Millward-Purvis & Cropley, 2003), but for NFP volunteers, potentially the only means by which individuals can interpret their relationship with the organisation (Liao-Troth, 2005). As such, Rousseau’s (2001) point that the psychological contract schema established will act to stabilise aspects of the individual-organisational relationship, becomes of vital importance to an organisation seeking to positively direct an individual volunteer’s organisational experience through participative and supportive work experiences.

As a consequence of this study’s identification of a relational psychological contact as an indirect effect, and the delineation of antecedents of the held psychological contract, it becomes possible to identify aspects of the organisational experience that inform a volunteer’s perception of his or her exchange relationship with the organisation. As already highlighted, the relevant human resource management and organisational practices include socialisation and training programs, as well as provision of communication and feedback, and recognition of volunteer efforts. The volunteer transition from new organisational entrant to established member is accompanied by the formation of perceived organisational obligations and the realisation – or otherwise - of these obligations as part of the ‘business as usual’ environment, operationalised in this study as role scope, perceptions of personal importance and organisational support, and need satisfaction. Continued involvement in an organisation where these elements are present promotes satisfaction and commitment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1996; Kramer, 1993; Tidwell, 2005).

The Conditional Effect of Psychological Contract Fulfillment on the Psychological Contract-Commitment Paths

This brings the discussion to the final research question: whether the mediated path is moderated by psychological contract fulfillment. This question was addressed
by testing for the conditional effect of psychological contract fulfillment on the relational psychological contract – organisational commitment paths, for affective and normative commitment respectively. This strategy recognised the need to “explore moderators of the exchange” (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012, p.278) relationship, and the limited empirical use of contract fulfillment as a moderator (Kim et al., 2009; Webster & Adams, 2010) to date.

While the effect of interest was the interaction of the moderator variable (fulfillment) on the path between M (relational psychological contract) and Y (affective and normative commitment) - i.e. the ‘b’ side of the mediated relationship – the analysis was necessarily conducted using the same individual antecedents included in the initial mediation analyses. Accordingly, hypotheses (4a to 4e) were worded such that the indirect effect of X (role scope, personal importance, organisational support, esteem and value dimensions of need satisfaction) on Y (affective commitment) via M (relational psychological contract), is moderated by Z (psychological contract fulfillment), such that the indirect effect will be stronger under high fulfillment, than under low fulfillment. The same construction was used for hypotheses 4f and 4g relevant to normative commitment (Y), but substituting X factors (socialisation, and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values).

To address affective commitment first, three of the five moderation hypotheses were supported. As such, contract fulfillment was found to positively moderate the mediated affective commitment relationship, for antecedents of (in descending order of value) personal importance (H4b), need-satisfaction (esteem-based) (H4e), and role scope (H4a). Organisational support (H4c) and the value-based dimension of need satisfaction (H4d) were non-significant.

For the dependent variable of normative commitment, it was likewise hypothesised that psychological contract fulfillment would act to amplify the mediated path. While fulfillment was found to be a statistically significant moderator for both socialisation (H4f), and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values (H4g), the angle of the slopes were so marginal as to be almost flat. However, the direction was negative in contradiction of each of the hypothesised relationships indicating the presence of the Type III error for both independent variables (i.e., the direction was opposite to that expected). The reasons for these findings can only be speculatively considered. Drawing from the methodological literature, it may be that the fulfillment perceptions of sufficient individuals within the tested sample in relation
to these variables differ from the wider respondent group, but this analysis has been
vulnerable to insufficient sample size and/or power considerations of moderation-
mediation analysis (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009). It is conceivable that running the
same analysis with a larger sample would produce a larger effect size, and change the
directionality in support of the hypotheses.

It is also possible that there was another unconsidered variable, specific to the
organisational context, which has exerted an effect. The organisation which was
accessed for data collection purposes has undergone substantive change in recent years
with a concerted program of consolidation of multiple organisations into a larger entity.
Volunteer responses indicated a strong loyalty to the organisation’s client base, but
were not necessarily ‘Head Office’, dependent on if their section of the new
organisation had previously been operating in an independent fashion. It is feasible that
for a cross-section of respondents the normative obligations underpinning continuing
organisational involvement remain intact when focused on the client being assisted, but
are not extended to the organisation in its new form, complicating perceptions of
psychological contract fulfillment.

In summary, only the relational psychological contact-affective commitment
relationship was intensified at higher levels of psychological contract fulfillment,
relevant to the relational contract obligations and inducements associated with role
scope, personal importance, and esteem-based need satisfaction. While effect sizes
were only slight, findings substantiated the case built in the literature review regarding
the designation of contract fulfillment as a potential moderator. No comparison of these
findings with other studies is possible given this research approach was largely
premised on theory which has not been empirically tested, and utilised a still novel
moderated-mediation analysis technique. While the study has generated initial insight
into the way fulfillment acts to moderate an exchange relationship (Conway & Shapiro,
2012), the lack of support for some of the moderation hypotheses suggests further
elements characteristic of the contemporary NFP organisational environment may need
to be considered as part of the complex mechanisms integral to the management of
volunteer-centric psychological contracting.

The underpinning logic of the moderated-mediation argument, and conceptual
assumptions, were detailed in Chapter Four. To recall, organisational volunteers were
represented as a distinctive grouping within the NFP environment, thereby able to form
a discrete sample relevant to the broadened application of the psychological contract
dimensions (Hui et al., 2004). The volunteer workforce is characterised by implicit, but specific values and motivations – broadly categorised as relational and promissory - which inform the character of the psychological contract held, and its relationship to workplace attitudes and behaviours (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stirling et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2006).

The other assumption concerned the separability of psychological contract dimensions into: a) psychological contract character, and b) evaluation contract status (Bal & Vink, 2011; De Lange et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2013), that allows for consideration of each as different forms of influence and application. As such, to characterise a psychological contract’s obligations as relational means that the bulk of content is likely to be more implicit, socio-emotional, or value-centric in orientation. Evaluation status refers to the extent that the contract obligations, attributable to the organisation by the individual contract holder, are perceived to have been fulfilled by the organisation, with the rating falling across a spectrum anchored by breach and fulfillment (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Zhao et al., 2007). Theoretically, the fulfillment perception determines the subsequent strength of the reciprocal response or obligation – which may include commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984) - on the part of the individual. Empirical validation of the distinction between individual and organisational obligations, and the shift between obligation ownership from the point of psychological contract formation and post evaluation has been established (Bal & Vink, 2011).

The nomination of contract fulfillment as a moderator in this study followed the logic that the evaluation of contract status (that is, the extent to which the contract obligations attributable to the organisation are deemed fulfilled), must necessarily occur after contract formation (when obligations are conceptualised). On this basis, the moderator (psychological contract fulfillment) can only operate on the relational psychological contract – commitment path, represented as ‘b’ (refer Figure 4.9). Following on, the implications of the resultant intensification of this relationship is the focus of the following discussion (rather than the individual antecedents that have contributed to the ‘a’ side of the mediated path and been considered in the mediation discussion). Study findings support the theoretical understanding that the partial fulfillment of organisational relational obligations will prompt commitment as a reciprocative response on the part of the individual (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011;
Implications of Contract Fulfillment as a Moderator of the Psychological Contract-Commitment Path

NFP organisations are seeking to understand the underpinnings of the volunteer’s relationship with an organisation, and how encouragement of relational contracts might be leveraged to counter incongruent elements of the organisational experience (Kim et al., 2009). Essential to this consideration is the evaluation of the inducements and obligations embedded in the psychological contract, and the shift from organisational to individual obligations that lies at the heart of the reciprocal exchange principle (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Rousseau, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). That contract fulfillment, as determined by this study, can amplify the level of relational attachment to the organisation, and affective commitment as a reciprocative response, has substantive implications for volunteer management theory.

According to the reviewed literature, perceptions of contract fulfillment will influence volunteer attitudes and performance. A negative effect reflects perceptions of ‘less than’ or only ‘partially’ fulfilled (Bal et al. 2008; Cassar & Briner, 2011; Conway & Briner, 2005; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley et al., 2003), and will prompt an individual to rebalance his or her psychological contract by reducing the perceived obligations or contribution on his or her part, including the strength of commitment outcomes (Bal et al., 2011; Chen & Indartono, 2011; Schalk & Freese,
1997). This may also include a shift in the relational characterisation or terms of the held psychological contract to a more transactional footing (Chen & Chiu, 2009).

Alternatively, researchers interested in volunteers suggested that positive perceptions of fulfillment, even when still only partial, might act to stabilise or counter misaligned elements of the organisational experience, thereby facilitating or stabilising commitment (Kim et al., 2009; Vecina., 2012). Accordingly, should evaluation of contract terms be positively associated with a volunteer’s values, need satisfaction (Clary et al., 1998; Jiminez et al., 2010; Omoto & Snyder, 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), or perception of personal importance (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007) and organisational contribution, the relational weighting of the psychological contract is likely to increase. This change will increase the transmission effect of the same variable to affective and normative commitment, as a function of higher levels of fulfillment.

This position builds on the view that commitment is a positive attitudinal attribute that is offered in reciprocation of perceived contract fulfillment (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Parzefall, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007). Moreover, it is reflective of the established affinity between volunteers and commitment, based on the intrinsic motivations which enable volunteers to contribute time, energy, and expertise in exchange for socio-emotional need fulfillment, organisational identification, and a positive work environment.

The moderation findings suggest that both positions have merit. This study has identified a significant and positive moderating effect on the intensity of the relational psychological contract-affective commitment path specific to antecedents of personal importance, the esteem dimension of need satisfaction, and role scope. The findings are indicative that only some of the relational psychological contract obligations attributed to the organisation need to be perceived as at least partially fulfilled on the part of the individual as a trigger of enhanced levels of affective commitment as means of maintaining a reciprocal exchange balance.

In addition, these obligations on the part of the organisations can be attributed to the specific promises and experiences associated with an individual volunteer’s perception of his or her personal importance, role scope focused on contribution towards outcomes, and satisfaction of esteem-based need; allowing an organisation to tailor its human resource management framework and organisational experience accordingly. Findings of this study therefore underscore the requirement for organisations to identify the needs and expectations of its inbound volunteers, and to
ensure the formed psychological contract contains obligations that the organisation can realistically achieve. The practical mechanisms relevant to the development of role scope, personal importance, and esteem are within the control of the organisation, and will be discussed further in the implications for volunteer management.

**Integration of the Indirect and Conditional Effects of the Psychological Contract on the Affective and Normative Commitment Paths**

It is claimed that the psychological contract construct and the means by which it informs commitment outcomes is poorly understood (Cohen, 2011; Liao-Troth, 1999; McInnis et al., 2009); limiting awareness of how the psychological contract might affect attitudinal and behaviour change (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Schalk & Roe, 2007). Coinciding with the call for research into these dynamics, scholars have noted the potential value of identification of transmission and boundary effects in the commitment process (Meyer, 2009; Takeuchi et al., 2009). This study has examined the conceptualised indirect and conditional effects in order to further inform the queried nature of the association between the relational and fulfillment dimensions of the psychological contract and organisational commitment constructs. As such, it contributes to the greater understanding of the dynamics of the highlighted constructs in multiple ways.

Firstly, the findings support the broadened application of the psychological contract to *multiple* commitment mindsets, not exclusively affective (Bunderson, 2001; Lester et al., 2002; Sels et al., 2004), nor exclusively normative (Meyer & Allen, 1997; McInnes et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2002) components. This allows for the definition of affective and normative elements, understood to be derived from a combination of personal beliefs and needs, as well as the promissory expectations established through organisational practices such as socialisation or delineation of role scope.

Moreover, the finding extends the conceptual limitation beyond the boundary of paid employment to organisational volunteers, in line with the contention that the referenced processes are increasingly applicable to organisational volunteers (Stirling et al., 2010; Vantilborgh et al., 2010). For normative commitment specifically, the identification that a relational psychological contract exerts an indirect effect, meets the call for more research on the interconnection between constructs (Klein et al., 2009; McInnes et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2011), and progresses beyond the consideration of more generic forms of commitment characterising research to date.
Secondly, the identification of the psychological contract character (as held by the study sample) as predominantly relational provides further empirical support for initial positions taken by the volunteer literature. To recall, the researchers have become increasingly settled regarding the relational characterisation of the volunteer-centric psychological contract (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Liao-Troth, 2005; Kim et al., 2009; Netting et al., 2004; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Starnes, 2007; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010, 2012, 2013), in line with theory emphasising the broad, social-emotional and value-laden qualities of this form of individual-organisational linkage (Cohen, 2011; Rousseau, 1990; Zhao et al., 2007). Given the assertion that obligations specific to the characterisation of the psychological contract generate different responses on the part of an individual (Hui et al., 2004), the determination of the volunteer-centric psychological contract as relational has positive implications for the commitment experience (Bal et al., 2010; Cohen, 2011; Jam et al., 2012; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Scheel & Mohr, 2013).

In reference to the tested interaction of transmission and boundary effects of the psychological contract-commitment association, study findings actualise the ‘rich’ collaboration that this relationship purportedly is (Klein et al., 2009; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), but has yet to be, according to Becker et al. (2009) manifested in the literature. It is demonstrative of the “importance of examining the content and conditions of the psychological contract in understanding the nature of commitment among workers across the broad spectrum of contemporary work arrangements” (Wayne et al., 2009, p.271-272).

This study has established that a number of antecedents will contribute to both commitment and a relational psychological contract. Further to the identification of mediated relationships, this study has identified that ‘the b side’ of the mediated relationship is subject to boundary conditions, namely the level of psychological contract fulfillment. Moreover, the schema developed alongside the obligations of the psychological contract will influence how the organisational experience is interpreted, and adjusted for in terms of commitment outcomes, and the relational characterisation of contract obligations (Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Rousseau, 2003). Specifically, this study has leveraged the notion that two sets of obligations are embedded in a volunteer’s psychological contract: 1) those attributed to the organisation and its agents, and 2) the volunteer’s own obligations; and examined the conditions under which the assessment
of fulfillment of these organisational obligations will promote commitment on the part of a volunteer as a mean of maintaining a reciprocal and balanced exchange.

The investment of time, energy, and development of a relationship with an organisation is likened to a ‘calling’ rather than a mere job (Bal et al., 2010; Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009), the relationship imbued with socio-emotional, value-laden obligations. This aligns with the view that relational contract holders value the relationship with the organisation “for its own sake” (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.289). As such, while an individual will adjust commitment forms and levels in response to the perceived quality of the organisational experience (Hornung & Glaser, 2010); the underlying relational contract will promote “positive attitudes” (Bal et al., 2010, p.503), such as commitment. By conceptualising and testing the relationships via indirect and conditional effects, empirical support is provided to the theoretical assumptions in the literature. As such, this study contributes to a greater understanding of the theoretical development and implications of organisational commitment, as called for by Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) through expansion of the interpretive framework regarding commitment relationships, and the characterisation of the individual-organisational obligations.

**Integrated Implications for Theory Arising from the Study**

The acknowledged criticality of volunteer efforts to achieving NFP organisational objectives, in conjunction with the transformed strategic and operational environment, has necessitated the reconceptualisation of the organisational volunteer and how to best engage this fluid form of human capital. Organisational commitment was distinguished in the literature review as a critical theoretical construct. This was on the basis of the positive correlation between commitment and the organisational requirements of role satisfaction and retention (Vecina et al., 2012). It also recognised the contributory potential of the construct relevant to the further consideration of the human resource and organisational development aspects of volunteer management. The thorough review and examination of Allen and Meyer’s (1990) affective and normative commitment was premised on several elements. These included the evident research interest in the topic indicated by the existing volunteer commitment studies; the notion of commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001); the recent reconceptualisation of normative commitment (Meyer & Parfynova, 2010); and the consideration of emergent
antecedents of normative commitment, specifically the congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values (Meyer et al., 2002; Stephens et al., 2004).

It is evident from the study findings, and the previous discussion of the implications of the first two research questions, that Allen and Meyer’s (1990) commitment model is highly applicable to organisational volunteers. The value of operationalising a wider range of variables than generally used in contemporary commitment research, and broadening the overt research emphasis on ‘work experiences’ to re-encompass structural and dispositional characteristics, in acknowledgement of the professionalisation of NFP organisational practices has been made clear. In addition to the expected findings for affective commitment predictors such as role scope, organisational support, and role ambiguity, this study has identified relationships involving less well researched predictors including personal importance, procedural formalisation, and dimensions of need satisfaction. Specific to normative commitment, this study has leveraged the recent reconceptualisation of the construct, and generated empirical support for the emergent predictor of congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values. The identification of socialisation as a contributor to normative commitment addresses the empirical neglect of this theoretical relationship, and underscores the relevance of the socialisation experience in the formation of volunteer attitudes.

This study has also demonstrated that theorised antecedents of commitment need to considered slightly differently between the traditional paid staff and organisational volunteer domains, particularly those allocated to ‘work experiences’. To this end, role scope has been actualised in the form of volunteer position descriptions and codes of conduct, in accordance with job design theory applicable to paid staff. This approach has drawn criticism (Stirling, 2011). Indeed, it has been suggested that theory should emphasise the communication of task and outcome significance when conceptualising volunteer role scope, in contrast to an overt emphasis on job design frameworks.

Given the contributory strength of perceived personal importance over the traditional perceived organisational support in the prediction of affective commitment, both antecedents should potentially be accorded the same consideration in volunteer-specific commitment literature. The distinction between the internally-driven assessment of personal importance derived via a sense of organisational participation, and contribution to outcomes, versus the tangible demonstration of organisational
support (while still an individual perception) on the part of the organisation in the form of training and resource provision or promotions should be recognised. The research literature, particularly when focused on workgroups such as volunteers, could be expanded to better acknowledge the fundamental differences in constructs and that these mindsets can co-exist in the determination of affective commitment.

Turning to the prediction of normative commitment, the theoretical principles underpinning socialisation as a means of enhancing role fit and determining obligations appear to apply to both paid staff and organisational volunteers. However, the study findings suggest socialisation experiences will be most constructive when resulting in a collegial environment and emphasising values and fair treatment. This emphasis needs to be integrated into the socialisation literature, along with the importance of communicating the compatibility of organisational values and those held important by volunteers (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010; Mitus, 2010), and which act as a powerful motivator of initial organisational involvement (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Catano et al., 2001; Edwards & Cable, 2004; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Souza & Dhami, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2008).

Extending beyond the confines of the organisational commitment construct, the study findings further inform emergent value-centric models of SNHRM (Akingbola, 2013; Ridder & McCandless, 2010), which chart a broad connection between organisational practices, individual attitudes, and organisational performance. Using this framework as a guiding reference, Chapter Four presented a conceptual transition between the broader issues of NFP management, the priorities of NFP-centric strategic human resource management, and the specific relationships examined in this study; leveraging the approach of Takeuchi et al. (2009).

Unlike Takeuchi et al. (2009) who focused on mediators of the relationship between human resource management practices and commitment, this study sought to further examine how a relational psychological contract might be used to elucidate the elements comprising the exchange relationship between an individual volunteer and his or her organisation. The nomination of psychological contract was initially based on a number of elements drawn from the literature. This includes the perceived value of an individual’s interpretation of his or her relationship with an organisation (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2008; Liao Troth, 2005; Millward-Purvis & Cropley, 2003; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1989, 1990, 1995, 2001; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998) and the broadened application of the construct to volunteers (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Kim et
al., 2009; Liao Troth, 2001; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Rousseau, 1995; Starnes, 2007; Stirling et al., 2011; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2013). It also reflects the construct’s value in conceptualising more sophisticated volunteer management strategies (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Stirling et al., 2011); and the claim that the nature of the psychological contract - commitment relationship was underresearched (Cohen, 2011; McInnis et al., 2009).

Central to the research design was the contention that certain commitment antecedents would also influence the character and obligations of the volunteer-centric psychological contract. Furthermore, the conceptualisation of the psychological contract as separate dimensions (i.e. ‘relational’ and ‘fulfilled’) in line with reviewed theory (Bal & Vink, 2011; Conway and Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; De Lange, Bal, Van der Heijden, De Jong, & Schaufeli, 2011) enabled the operationalisation of workplace experiences (such as role scope or organisational support) and dispositional elements (such as ‘needs’ and ‘values’) as inputs into the relational psychological contract. This allowed the development of an awareness of the relevant relational obligations attributed to the organisation on the part of a volunteer, manifest through the psychological contract. It also enabled the assessment of perceived fulfillment of these same obligations by the volunteer to be tested as conditional effect. According to extant theory (Bal & Vink, 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Parzefall, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007) such assessments potentially determine the extent to which commitment levels or mindsets are adjusted as a consequence of evaluation status, that is, the extent to which contract obligations have been fulfilled and commitment might be offered in reciprocation.

As previously noted, the assessment of mediated and moderated effects is suitable as research into organisational behavioural constructs progresses from the examination of direct effects to more complex interactions. In summary, the moderated-mediation research contributes as follows. It informs part of the ‘black box’ emergent model of SNHRM by elucidating the exchange relationship between an individual and his or her organisation, based on relational obligations, and the separateness of contract characterisation and evaluation dimensions. It allows for the conceptualisation of more sophisticated strategies as an input into volunteer management, and demonstrates the merit of extending constructs of organisational behaviour into the volunteer management domain. It also contributes to the scarce research into the nature of the
interconnection between psychological contract and organisational commitment as called for by researchers (Cohen 2011; McInnis et al., 2009).

Testing a relational psychological contract as a mediator of volunteer antecedent-commitment relationships, and psychological contract fulfillment as a conditional effect of the mediated relationship, is of further contributory value for the following reasons. From a methodological perspective, the study has utilised an integrated moderated-mediation technique devised by Preacher et al. (2007) to simultaneously examine the indirect and conditional effects on the affective and normative commitment paths, based on the conceptual distinction of psychological contract characterisation and evaluation status dimensions. While methodologists have called for researchers to utilise this sophisticated technique (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, 2011), this study appears to one of only a handful of studies (as cited in Chapter Five) to date to take advantage of the statistical modelling capability.

Furthermore, this study’s findings address the identified gap in the research literature, providing insight into how psychological contract and organisational commitment interact. Given the arguments for the separate dimensions of the psychological contract were largely premised on theory (and logic), the production of empirical results in support of the hypotheses provides further insight into the composition of constructs and their interlaced effects.

In an attempt to address the lack of practical models relevant to volunteer management through the examination of organisational behavioural constructs, this study has evolved into a deeply theoretical approach, and surfaced a number of points of relevant to management theory. This study thus demonstrates the value of applying constructs of organisational commitment and the psychological contract to the distinct, but largely unconsidered workplace cohort of organisational volunteers. It provides a constructive interpretation of the challenges that NFP organisations confront in relation to an essential workforce component that is simultaneously distinct from traditional workforce management methodologies.

In terms of the broader theoretical discourse of strategic NFP human resource management architecture that has recently emerged (Akingbola, 2013; Ridder & McCandless, 2010), the study provides a level of insight into the quandary of volunteer commitment, including its predictors and evolution in response to an individual’s organisational experience and exchange relationship with the organisation. Supportive findings enhance the usefulness of the psychological contract construct as a human
resource management tool, through recognition of its value in interpreting and directing the exchange relationship between organisations and volunteers (Chen & Chiu, 2009). Acknowledging the existing research on contract breach and negative outcomes for individual commitment and retention, this research contributes more generally to the ‘positive’ side of psychological contracting and management theory. It also acknowledges calls for greater research on volunteers, given their pivotal role in contemporary NFP organisations.

In support of the position that organisational volunteers are a critical organisational resource, that has been neglected by traditional human resource management theory, this study demonstrates the merit of extending constructs from organisational behaviour which have been conventionally applied to paid-staff to volunteers as an emergent human resource management inclusion. As such, the study also acknowledges that human resource frameworks and practices cannot necessarily be applied wholesale to organisational volunteers, but must recognise and be adapted to unique aspects of the volunteer management domain. In this vein, organisational behavioural constructs embedded in social exchange are particularly useful.

On the premise that commitment cannot be separated from organisational dynamics and the guiding human resource management frameworks, it is relatively simple to derive from the volunteer management literature the specific human resource practices increasingly used in volunteer management (see Stirling et al., 2011), and connect these to modelled commitment predictors. The inclusion of a volunteer-centric relational psychological contract, and its ability to transmit certain commitment predictors to either affective or normative commitment, provides further insight into how human resource management practices are interpreted by an individual through the psychological contract lens, and provide a powerful means by which to enrich commitment attitudes.

As such, Figure 7.1 illustrates the way in which the explicit relationships examined in this study are potentially able to be integrated into, and enrich, the broader discussion regarding NFP and volunteer strategic human resource management. In Figure 7.1, the relationships found to be significant in this study have been embedded in an expanded view of Akingbola’s (2013) proposed SNHRM framework, as introduced in Chapter Four. Accordingly, the first part of the diagram (connected by dashed line arrows) reflects the relationships established in the extant literature.
Figure 7.1: Embedding of tested relationships in the NFP strategic HRM model
The second part of the diagram (solid line arrows) illustrates the types of relationship tested in this study (i.e. direct, indirect, and conditional). Regarding moderation of the mediated relationships, the reciprocal relationship between the obligations of the relational psychological contract, and affective and normative commitment is shown by the solid line and dot/dash arrow. To recall, the perceived level of fulfillment of organisational obligations triggers a balancing of reciprocal obligations including commitment. When fulfillment is judged by the individual to be ‘high’, the strength of the reciprocity requirement is increased, prompting an increase in commitment. When fulfillment is judged as low, the individual will seek to rebalance the exchange relationship; reducing his or her own obligations and commitment.

The extent to which the commitment profile will contain affective and normative components will be influenced by the character of the obligations attributed to the organisation by an individual and embedded in an individual’s psychological contract. This dynamic has been discussed in this chapter as part of the implications of Research Question Three. For example, if a sense of personal importance was important to the volunteer, this would influence a component of the obligations embedded in the relational psychological contract. The subsequent perceptions of fulfillment of this obligation by the organisation would lead to affective commitment as a reciprocative response or obligation on the part of the individual. Alternatively, if a strong sense of responsibility and obligation on the part of the individual was fostered through the socialisation process, then the organisational obligation might relate to mission adherence. As long as organisational behaviour was seen as consistent with a mission oriented obligation, perceptions of fulfillment would generate normative commitment.

The theoretical benefits of establishing a greater understanding of the basis of a volunteer’s relationship with an organisation are twofold. Managers or other organisational representatives gain an enhanced ability to define and keep suitable promises, enhancing the likelihood of perceived contract fulfillment on the part of the individual volunteer. Knowledge of the character and obligations of the volunteer-centric psychological contract also improves managerial capacity to leverage known characteristics of the held contract for the organisational benefit, including the generation of commitment.
The findings of this study suggest that when an organisation acknowledges the characterisation and scope of its obligations embedded in a volunteer-centric contract (and align human resource management strategy and practices accordingly), and seeks to positively influence causal attribution in times of change; it creates a significant opportunity by which to manage perceptions of contract fulfillment and attitudinal outcomes. As such, it becomes possible to interpret commitment as a reciprocative response to the preferred type of contract and fulfillment level on the part of an individual. The practical implications of this position are discussed below.

Implications for Practice Arising from the Study

Researchers have expressed concern as to the negative impact on volunteer attitudes, including organisational commitment, due to the uninformed application of human resource management practices to this unique workplace cohort (Stirling et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2006). It is on this basis that examination of the individual-organisational relationship, manifest as a relational psychological contract, and its exchange relationship with commitment is particularly relevant to contemporary volunteer management practices; with the interpretation of study findings providing useful insights for NFP and volunteer management. The literature contains many prescriptive recommendations, with an emphasis on determining key relational characteristics of the psychological contract and implementing appropriate human resource management measures which will support perceptions of contract fulfillment, and thereby generate commitment. As Grant (1999) remarked, however, the matching of contract obligations with human resource management practice “might be easier said than done” (p.346).

Through the examination of workplace and dispositional antecedents, this study allows for the articulation of how to create volunteer-centric human resource management practices which will positively influence the development of relational contracts and contribute to commitment outcomes as a desirable organisational objective (Cohen, 2011; Rigotti, 2009; Vecina et al., 2012). Indeed, as an organisational strategy, nurturing and maintaining an appropriate contract, may be even more critical for volunteers given the lack of monetary rewards (Rigotti, 2009; Vantilborgh et al., 2013).

However, the challenge of fostering an appropriate contract type should not be underestimated, and is likely to be subject to a combination of dispositional, internal, and
external factors (Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Scheel & Mohr, 2013; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2011, 2013). In alignment with the findings of this study, these dispositional and external elements have been found to override organisation-centric (typically administrative) obligations when incongruent with the contract held, or act to promote organisational commitment when organisational obligations are deemed congruent with the held values on the part of an individual (Bunderson, 2001; Hager & Brudney, 2008). As such, these influences should be recognised for their importance in the idiosyncratic and subjectively defined, psychological contract formation process undertaken by an individual. An organisation will not be able to control a number of the dispositional and external parameters, but is in the position to influence internal elements. Specifically, these internal components include the formation of the promissory expectations, and its own organisational obligations, in the initial stages of volunteer recruitment and induction. The extent to which an organisation is able to influence the character and obligations of the contract in this early period, will critically influence the management of a volunteer’s organisational contribution in the longer term.

While an organisation cannot change the dispositional characteristics of a volunteer, it can certainly ensure an alignment between relevant value frameworks at the point of psychological contract formation and beyond. This acknowledges the extant literature which has suggested the formation of relational contract characteristics reflects the underlying needs and beliefs of an individual, as well as broader societal norms associated with volunteering activity (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009). Moreover, this study’s findings have indicated that esteem and value based needs contribute to the relational characterisation of the volunteer-centric psychological contract. While the benefits to the individual generated through social aspects of organisational involvement (such as the friendships formed, and the recognition of work undertaken as a valuable personal contribution), initial data analysis demonstrated that these needs were subordinate to the motivational potential of value-based needs, expressed as wanting to ‘help people’, or ‘give something back’. The satisfaction of these needs necessitated the development of obligations on the part of volunteers and the organisation, forming the basis of a predominately relational exchange agreement.
This is not to suggest that transactional elements were not apparent in the psychological contracts of the study respondents. Comments included on the questionnaires highlighted expectations regarding organisational provision of adequate facilities (e.g. well-equipped Day Centres, or appropriate communications equipment and training in the use thereof) in support of volunteer efforts. However, the bulk of survey ‘commentary’ suggested that volunteer relationships with the organisation were more socio-emotional in nature, and therefore premised on relational obligations. The opportunity for a volunteer to undertake meaningful work, be fairly treated, receive explicit feedback and recognition, and experience appreciation of volunteer efforts and wellbeing were referenced, and are thematically consistent with previous studies on aspects of the volunteer-centric psychological contract (see Farmer & Fedor, 1999; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Scheel & Mohr, 2013). To this end, “volunteers clearly perceive the organisation as being obligated to provide a credible supportive environment (through provision of training, leadership, supportive volunteer management practices, and adequate facilities and resources)” (O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009, p.9). The following section elaborates on fundamental human resource management practices that are of benefit to the volunteer management, through the encouragement of an appropriate psychological contract and its leverage as a human resource management tool.

**Human Resource Practices Relevant to the Organisational Obligations Attributed to a Volunteer-centric Psychological Contract**

The fundamental importance of understanding the promises made by an organisation, and the capacity to deliver on these promises through aligned human resource management strategy and process is a key theme apparent in the psychological contacting literature, and finds considerable resonance within the volunteer management domain. In terms of aligning the requirements of a relational psychological contract to the human resource management practices being increasingly applied to organisational volunteers, some clear strategic priorities emerge. These elements include training; communication and recognition; enabling of organisational participation; and the fostering of congruence between the organisational mission and values and personal values. The underlying objective of the human resource management strategy associated with these activities
should be the continued stabilisation and enrichment of the psychological contract so carefully fostered in the initial stages of a volunteer’s interaction with an organisation.

**Training.**

Training is of value when programs are well-designed and delivery is targeted, but will need to be tailored to the organisational requirements and volunteer capacity, and level of screening undertaken of volunteer recruits. Training may be basic – directed at the development of role specific skills; or in support of compliance with occupational health and safety requirements, codes of conduct; or specific activities such as cash handling. While such requirements can be embedded in employment contracts for volunteers and controlled by the organisation, responsibilities are less clear when it comes to volunteers, and may be best communicated through training interaction (Taylor & McGraw, 2006).

Training may also be construed as evidence of organisational support, as found in this study and the more general literature, as a major contributor to affective and normative commitment (Meyer & Parfynova, 2010; Meyer et al. 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Yang, Sanders, & Bumatay, 2012). In addition, training provides a means of reducing role ambiguity, and enabling enhanced role scope. It also contributes to the perception of personal importance and community by providing an opportunity for volunteers to share opinions and experiences (Costa, Chalip, Green, & Simes, 2006; Ferreira et al., 2012). Ferreira et al. (2012) in a study of hospital volunteers, identified training as a very well received human resource management practice; a finding coherent with the view that organisations offering training and professional development opportunities to volunteers experience increased retention (Hager & Brudney, 2008).

Recent studies of employees have identified that training is associated with perceptions of a fulfilled relational contract (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Yang et al., 2012), through the organisation’s acquittal of its obligation to provide opportunities for an individual’s development (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Forrier & Sels, 2003). Moreover the investment in training was indicative that the employee was valued, and in line with a relational contract, the organisation was seeking a long-term relationship with a committed employee (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Suazo, Martínez, & Sandoval, 2009; Yang et al., 2012).
Communication, feedback, and recognition mechanisms.

In a paid-staff context, it is recommended that organisations maintain clear communication channels regarding aspects of human resource management, such as performance evaluations, resource provision, rewards, and promotional opportunities; linking the associated employee trust and confidence as natural prerequisites to commitment (Chen & Indartono, 2011). Certainly there is some crossover to the volunteer management environment. Effective communication mechanisms, and the building of trust and confidence, are desirable organisational attributes, regardless of workforce composition.

Enrichment of the volunteer experience, however, requires a different approach than traditionally utilised for paid staff; particularly when volunteers are working remotely, or in isolation from other volunteers or central operations - including not accessing internal communication mechanisms such as email or intranet. Performance regimes and promotional opportunities have not been positively associated with volunteer retention - in contrast to the positive association of volunteer recognition (Ferreira et al., 2012; Hager & Brudney, 2008; Philips, Little, & Goodine, 2002).

Feedback is noted by volunteers as a valued form of recognition of their contributions. Participants are motivated to continue when the organisation makes the connection between volunteer effort, and positive outcomes for organisational service recipients. Recognition may take the form of publicly visible feedback through newsletters, other communications, or informal gatherings (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2007), or simply recognition from an immediate supervisor (Tremblay, 2010), or peer support. Morrison and Robinson (1997) also suggest the conduct of constructive feedback sessions by managers and coordinators with their volunteers may allow for the identification and correction of negative impressions before they impact on contract schema or volunteer behaviour.

Enabling of organisational participation.

A previously noted, a sense of personal importance is more likely when a volunteer feels part of the decision making process, and that his or her contribution is making a difference to the organisation or its service recipients; that volunteers are valued. The strategic human resource management framework should enable the visibility of consultation, and listening undertaken by the organisation regarding planning or decisions
that will impact volunteers. Consultation with volunteers, and listening to informed opinions, in relation to service delivery or policy decisions, particularly where the decision is likely to affect the frontline volunteer interface, can assist in a decision ultimately being better targeted, as well as accepted.

While volunteer participation in decision-making contributes to perceptions of organisational involvement and a sense of personal importance, it is important for organisations to be conscious that enabling mechanisms do not create an overt sense of entitlement. Such a view may complicate subsequent perceptions of fulfillment of the associated contract obligation, i.e. insufficient participation, or where the non-adoption of volunteer ideas results in perception of contract breach (Paul, Niehoff, & Turnley, 2000).

**Evaluation of Psychological Contract Obligations and Attitudinal Adjustment in Reciprocation: The Linkage to Human Resource Management Practice**

It is understood that the organisational environment is not static, but is comprised of a changing cast of individuals and circumstances with differential interpretative capacities (Chen & Indartono, 2011). Arguably, substantive capacity remains within formalising NFP management frameworks to recognise and address obligations of a volunteer-centric contract. The criticism of development to date (Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Taylor et al., 2006; Stirling et al., 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2010) potentially underrates the organisational capacity to leverage this form of exchange relationship through the application of customised human resource management strategies. As such, this study reinforces the value of closer examination of the conditional effect of fulfillment (and the underlying beliefs associated with volunteerism, and volunteer management) on the psychological contract – commitment relationship.

From a practical management perspective, encouraging a relational psychological contract on the part of an organisation’s volunteers will be redundant if the organisation cannot encourage fulfillment of the same, and ensure it is associated with the enhancement of commitment, rather than the negative revision of contract terms and attitudes. Thus, attention to key processes offer the potential to effectively shape the contract evaluation process and ensure the balancing of organisational and individual obligations is coherent with the relational characterisation of the psychological contract.
Certainly, it is acknowledged that an organisational emphasis on the development of a relational psychological contract characterisation is insufficient in itself (Lester et al., 2007). Volunteers over time, and consequential to organisational events or practices, will evaluate their contract status. While some changes can be simply absorbed into the existing contract schema - and this flexibility is theoretically enhanced by a relational characterisation - events or experiences will cause an individual to determine to what extent the contract obligations may have been fulfilled or breached. Evaluation of the inducements and obligations embedded in the psychological contract is at the heart of the reciprocal exchange principle (Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro, 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Rousseau, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994), and may result in the adjustment of contract terms (Rigotti, 2009).

Accordingly, a favourable assessment of fulfillment of organisational obligations is likely to generate a reciprocative commitment response on the part of the volunteer, as was found in this study, i.e. the intensification of the relational psychological contract - affective commitment path (specific to role scope and the esteem dimension of need satisfaction). Thus, the generation of reciprocal obligations, on the part of individuals, preferably manifest as commitment, becomes a critical focus of volunteer management practices (Cunningham, 2010; Stirling et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2006).

While this study is aligned with the principle that affective and normative components of commitment are distinct dimensions in terms of empirical examination, this is not to say that components cannot act in complement. Indeed, it has been suggested that multiple commitment mindsets, or profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), particularly where comprised of affective and normative combinations, should be encouraged by organisations (Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), desirous of discretionary outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Becker et al., 2009), or a willingness to champion change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). As such, the development, maintenance, and enhancement of commitment, particularly affective and normative mindsets, should be a key part of the human resource management strategy of organisations interested in volunteer retention, or transitioning volunteers through the change processes.
Just as the strategic human resource management framework and practices support the characterisation of the psychological contract and its obligations, it can also support the psychological contract evaluation process, particularly in terms of encouraging perceptions of fulfillment (even if only partial) rather than breach of the attributed organisational obligations which have been found to have negative commitment implications (Bal et al., 2008; Cassar & Briner, 2011; Conway & Briner, 2005; Rigotti, 2009; Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley et al., 2003). A couple of points are worth noting in this regard.

It was clear in the literature review that a volunteer will seek consistency between his or her own sense of social contribution and the organisation’s mission and values.

Recognition of this consistency is apparent in the value-based SNHRM principle (Ridder & McCandless, 2010) incorporated in Akingbola’s (2013) model (Figure 7.1). The subsequent integration of core mission and values into human resource management strategy and practices is thought to facilitate values compliance across organisational practices and thereby encourage enhanced person-organisational fit. Moreover, the ‘worthiness’ of the mission and congruence with volunteer motivations can promote satisfaction and ongoing involvement, even when other aspects of the organisational environment are less than ideal (Aguilera et al., 2007; Kim & Lee, 2007; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Certainly this has been supported by the results of this study, through the identification of a significant relationship between the congruence of organisational and personal values and normative commitment; and the further transmission of this antecedent to normative commitment via a relational psychological contract. These relationships were tested on the basis of the extant literature which suggested that the maintenance of congruence between organisational and personal values will promote commitment; the development of which will provide flexibility in accommodating organisational change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Meyer et al., 2007).

Maintaining positive perceptions of organisational and individual values congruence should be a key objective of human resource management strategy, as a means of buffering the impact of environmental and organisational change pressures that the contemporary NFP organisation is facing. The importance of the organisation maintaining control of the narrative in the event of perceived adverse conditions, or significant changes...
to the policy or operational domain, and the means thereof, was discussed in detail in Chapter Three (see Lester et al., 1997; Robinson & Brown, 2004; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Starnes, 2007; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). To recall, attention to how organisational decisions are communicated and justified to the wider volunteer base is held to promote the acceptance process required of change initiatives (Cunningham, 2010). Where participation is not possible, attention by the organisation to the causal attribution process is prerequisite to assisting in the communication and acceptance process, given the psychological contract acts as an interpretive lens of organisational events and the social accounts thereof (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Chen & Chiu, 2009; Robinson & Morrison, 1997; Rousseau, 1995).

A relational psychological contract is purported to provide greater tolerance on the part of individuals, of such organisational accounts (Conway & Briner, 2002; Rigotti, 2009; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 1999), and enable the contract evaluation to occupy the less-fulfilled to more fulfilled, rather than the breach end of the status continuum. The resilience of both the psychological contract and commitment will also be partly dependent on the socialisation processes (and norms created) at the point of entry to the organisation, and through the change cycle (Judeh, 2011; Reio & Callahan, 2004; Schein, 1988). As such, managers should understand the repercussions of discrepancies as viewed through the volunteer-centric, relational psychological contract, the need for periodic assessment, and have the ability to make changes in order to sustain the contract (Starnes, 2007).

**Limitations**

The findings of the current study are subject to the limitations typically associated with a contemporaneous and correlational research design, and include *self-report bias* (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002), and *common method variance* (Doty & Glick, 1998). According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012), these forms of bias are pervasive in social science and behavioural research. A further implication of the research design is the extent to which the study findings are generalisable. The final limitation to be noted was the skewed representation of older volunteers in the volunteer base of the organisation accessed for research purposes which flowed through to the respondent group.
To address self-report bias first, self-reported measures are justified when assessing self-referential perceptions of constructs such as organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and personal importance, and in particular, the type of psychological contract held. The approach is well regarded, with reviews (see Bodner 2006; Woszczynski & Whitman, 2004) determining that a third of published studies utilise self-report questionnaires as the main or only means of data collection. Nonetheless, mitigation strategies in this study included the use of test variables that were theoretically strong; sufficient reliability of instruments, and that the sample group was strategically targeted in compliance with the identified research problem (Tharenou et al., 2007).

The level of common method variance was also tested for in line with the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003). Common method variance may distort the interpreted strength of a direct relationship (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and should be controlled when possible to lesson negative impacts on construct validity and associated relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010; Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010). This form of bias is likely to be generated when a number of differential theoretical constructs are measured using the same method (Podsakoff et al., 2012) – as was the case in this study. While its prevalence is agreed, debate continues in the literature over the extent to which common method variance is a problem (see Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance, & Spector, 2010; Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, & Hoffman, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2012). To this end, while common method variance may potentially lead to data misinterpretation, it is possible that the effects may not be acute as represented by Podsakoff et al. (2012). Indeed, Brannick et al. (2010) have described common method variance as an ‘urban legend’ and suggested that the assumption of CMV as routinely present in studies is a distortion and simplification of the effect under examination.

Given the application of mitigating strategies specific to common method variance, and the below threshold value derived from Harmon’s single factor test in relation to the level of common method variance present, it is further suggested that this form of bias is not a critical issue for this study. To elaborate, the questionnaire response was anonymous and completed at the individual’s own convenience; an approach held to reduce negative effects of mood or external stimuli, and “evaluation apprehension” (Podsakoff et al., 2003,
To maintain respondent attention, scale item order was retained allowing for a logical question flow (Peterson, 2000), complemented by varying response formats, and the provision of text labels (e.g. strongly agree or disagree), rather than numeric formats (typically 1-7) (Tourangeau, Rasinski, & D’Andrade, 1991). Finally, all instruments were multi-item, and demonstrated acceptable reliability and validity (Spector, 1987). There were a small number of respondent objections to the inclusion of scales co-opted from traditional human resource management frameworks, given the volunteer context, prompting consideration of more tailored scale development going forward specific to aspects of organisational commitment and psychological contract constructs.

A further methodological limitation of the study relates to the generalisability of the results to other volunteers. This study utilised the volunteers of a single NFP organisation, selected for the size of its volunteer pool, and its self-declared dependence on volunteers to achieve service delivery objectives. While there were identifiable clusters in relation to specific variables, for example, commitment, psychological contract, perception of personal importance, or motivational values; response ranges were well spread, reflecting the diverse affiliations of volunteers with the organisation, in terms of time spent, activity undertaken, and allocated division. However, by only using, albeit purposively, one organisation for survey response and subsequent data analysis, it is conceivable that obtained responses contained errors or did not reflect the full range available (Finegan, 2000), introducing a level of risk regarding the extension of the findings to a wider population.

In addition, respondents captured in the current study are not necessarily representative of volunteers in other organisations, limiting the capacity to generalise the study findings, external to the organisation at a given point in time. This risk is more than offset by the avoidance of the potential confounding effects created by sampling respondents from multiple organisations, with the associated differential environmental contexts (Steg, Buunk, & Rothengatter, 2008). While it would be of benefit to replicate the study across other organisations utilising volunteers for greater potential comparability of findings, further consideration would need to be given to a singular or combinative approach.
The final limitation be addressed is that the study sample was noticeably skewed for age (with 90 per cent of respondents being over 50 years of age). Age was used as a control variable in the study. It is worth noting however, that recruitment and retention of older volunteers is of interest to both NFP organisations, and the general literature, given the rising proportion of aging people in the community, and statistics which reflect a higher proportion of volunteers above the age of 45 (ABS, 2006). Warburton and McDonald (2009) have presented a strong case for the targeting of older volunteers in Australia as a cost-effective strategy. They have argued that older volunteers bring lifelong experience and skills to their roles, are more likely to remain with the organisation for a longer period than younger volunteers, and have a propensity for strong commitment (Warburton & McDonald, 2009). Similarly Wei, Donthu, and Bernhardt (2012), suggested “as older people seek positive feelings and long-term relationships, organisations should take every opportunity to recognise the services and contributions by older people to the society and communities” (p.14).

In closing, the limitations referenced above should be acknowledged. However, they need not detract from the significance of the research nor the fact that the research set out to explore an interesting model of volunteer commitment and participation.

**Future Research Directions**

Organisational commitment is notable as one of the most frequently researched correlates of psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2005; Rigotti, 2009; Zhao et al., 2007). In this study, the explicit conceptualisation and operationalisation of the relationships between dimensions of the psychological contract and organisational commitment (affective and normative) constructs in an integrated assessment model contributes to the knowledge base of the NFP sector; challenged as it is by the need to manage the goodwill and sustainability of its volunteer workforce.

Beyond the practical implications for volunteer management, the findings of this study, set against trends in the research literature, reveal a number of further research options. Specifically, these include the extended consideration of the organisational commitment model and a deeper examination of the psychological contract – commitment interrelationship. Also of potential value is the extension of the conceptual model to encompass a broader cross-section of the value-centric SNHRM framework (Akingbola,
2013), whereby the process connection between specific human resource management practices, shaping of contract obligations, the ‘black box’ relationships of this study, and further connection between commitment and correlates such as retention can be tested.

Justified by the volunteer context which allowed for a refreshed interpretation of the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment model, and the reconceptualisation of normative commitment and its antecedents, this study has demonstrated the enduring value of work experience, structural, and dispositional characteristics in producing affective commitment. It has highlighted the specific relevance of personal importance, procedural formalisation, and need satisfaction as predictors of affective commitment, and allowed new nuances to emerge regarding the means of generating meaningful perceptions of role scope and organisational support. While research studies have disregarded such a comprehensive approach, study findings are suggestive that further value is to be derived through the application of the commitment model to non-traditional workforce groups.

In line with the reconceptualisation of normative commitment, and the continuing search for predictors thereof (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010), this study found, as hypothesised, that mission and value congruence between the organisation and the individual contributed to normative commitment. This finding should be further validated for organisations or workgroups where mission and value orientation is held to be an important driver of organisational and human resource management strategy. The further consideration of how congruence of organisational and personal value orientations affects normative consideration is likely to prove instructive, both in paid staff and volunteer contexts. Broadening the application of this antecedent to affective commitment is also worth consideration, and taps the notion of combinative commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), and the potential synergy of affective and normative commitment as part of a distinct volunteer commitment profile.

Antecedents were deliberately aligned and tested relevant to a single form of commitment in this study in line with Allen and Meyer’s (1990) model. However, the notion that individuals can possess more than one commitment component, as part of a commitment profile, opens the door to consideration of antecedents of one form of commitment simultaneously contributing to an alternative form of commitment. The obvious example of this is perceived organisational support, which Wayne et al. (2009) has
suggested should be considered a substantive predictor of both affective and normative commitment. Further examples of this approach referenced in the existing research literature include the congruence of organisational and personal values for both normative commitment (Howell et al., 2012), and socialisation as an antecedent of affective commitment (Mitus, 2010) in addition to normative commitment. Arguably, it would be interesting to assess if perceived personal importance predicted normative commitment in addition to its contribution to the affective commitment of volunteers.

The next suggested research direction continues to leverage the ‘black box’ approach popular in contemporary organisational behavioural research, but extends its application more broadly across the process linkages embedded in Akingbola’s value-centric SNHRM model, that has only been considered on a limited basis in this study. It would enable operationalisation of the linkages between human resource management practices and antecedents of commitment and a relational psychological contract, as well as testing for the connection to further commitment outcomes of value to volunteer management such as retention to remain. This is aligned with recent research by Scheible and Bastos (2013), a moderated-mediation application by Alfes et al. (2013), and Marescaux et al. (2013), all of which seek to connect the organisational behavioural constructs and favourable human resource management outcomes.

As an example, a deepened understanding of the association between specific human resource management practices and perceived personal importance could be established. Likewise, the examination of structural characteristics, historically dismissed as significant in the for-profit literature, may well be of benefit to the NFP organisation given the transformative forces shaping the sectoral environment, and it is arguable that human resource management structures would be instrumental to perceptions of structural formality. Such a research approach would also potentially enable further investigation into the reciprocative relationship between contract fulfillment and commitment.

At the more distal end of the SNHRM model, the relationship between volunteer commitment and intent to remain in particular, would present a valuable avenue for further empirical research. Despite the theoretical support, recent research suggests that the relationship between volunteer commitment and retention is not reflected to the same degree as for paid staff (Garner & Garner, 2008). Intent to remain, has been identified as a
positive correlate of affective and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), as well as for psychological contract fulfillment (Vecina et al., 2012), and as such, would have been a valuable and relevant extension to the conceptual model. However, given the complexity of the relationships already under examination, this additional option was not pursued in the current study. Future studies might fruitfully address this omission.

While the characterisation of the volunteer-centric psychological contract in this study reflected the traditional delineation of this dimension as relational-transactional, further research consideration might include the operationalisation of an ‘ideological’ characterisation, in acknowledgement of the growing research interest (see Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009; Meyer & Parfyomenova, 2010; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Vantilborgh et al., 2011, 2013). Empirical studies suggest that ideology, linked to ‘profession-based values,’ transcend the categorisation of transactional / relational contracts, including for volunteers (O’Donohue et al., 2007; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2009). The operationalisation of such a contract form is becoming more feasible with the development of initial scales (Bal & Vink, 2011; Bingham, 2005).

As a means of producing further empirical research in this emergent area; enhancing the potential generalisability of results; furthering understanding of the range of obligations pertinent to a volunteer-centric psychological contract, and in acknowledgement of the diversity of volunteer motivations contributions, further studies would be of value. It is suggested that the refinement and further application of aspects of this study to other volunteer samples in alternative NFP organisations or statutory authorities (such as the Victorian State Emergency Service or Country Fire Authority) would advance the understanding of the exchange relationships volunteers build with their organisations, and provide opportunities for comparative analysis.

**Conclusion**

This study was prompted by the transformation of the operational environment and management strategy of the Australian NFP sector, and specifically, the acknowledgement of the organisational volunteer as a critical form of organisational resource. Many organisations openly declare their dependence on volunteers in the pursuit of service delivery requirements. The notion that volunteers are just as exposed to the dynamics of
the organisational environment as the paid workforce, has generated research and practitioner interest in the expanded application of strategic human resource principles. It is understood, however, that strategies and practice, derived predominantly from the paid staff and for-profit literature, are not necessarily universally applicable to the NFP paid staff context, let alone volunteers. This shortfall has prompted recent work (see Akingbola, 2013; Ridder & McCandless, 2010) on the human resource management architecture of the NFP organisation. This emergent area of SNHRM supports the closer examination of the ‘black box’ of human resource management practices and attitudinal outcomes called for by Takeuchi et al. (2009). To date, research examining the specific relationships between human resource management strategy (for-profit or NFP) and volunteer attitudinal outcomes has been deficient. Specifically, the level of empirical research regarding volunteer motivations, the nature of their relationship with an organisation, and how work experiences, and dispositional factors influence workplace attitudes remains negligible. Through consideration of how organisational behaviour constructs apply to volunteers, this study has provided the opportunity to tap the underlying needs and organisational relationships essential to volunteer involvement. Underlying the constructs of relational psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989), and affective and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Parfynova, 2010) are the principles of obligation, fulfillment, reciprocation, and exchange balance.

To this end, three specific forms of relationship were tested, based on a combination of reviewed construct theory, paid staff, and volunteer literature relevant to outcome variables of affective and normative commitment. This has included examination of the direct relationships between the antecedents and outcomes (affective and normative commitment). A relational psychological contract was tested as a mediator of the direct commitment paths relevant to affective and normative commitment. Finally psychological contract fulfillment was tested as a conditional effect on the relational psychological contract-commitment paths. Findings supported the existence of direct, mediated, and moderated-mediation effects, addressing the four research questions, and generating implications for management theory and practice relevant to volunteers.

Conventional antecedents including role scope, perceived organisational support, role ambiguity, and socialisation were found to be significantly related to organisational
commitment outcomes; testament to the ongoing durability of the Allen and Meyer (1990) model. By framing the relationships under examination in a volunteer context, this study has challenged assumptions apparent in the paid staff literature, ameliorating the research neglect of commitment antecedents such as personal importance, procedural formalisation, and need satisfaction. In light of the claim that normative commitment antecedents are still to be fully understood, it has also empirically validated the theorised congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values as an antecedent thereof. By identifying these significant predictors, this study makes a substantive contribution to the understanding of volunteer commitment and its formation, and can inform parts of the SNHRM debate that is accompanying the transformation of the NFP sector.

Commitment research has become increasingly complex, including the consideration of transmission effects. This study continued the research trend of extending the psychological contract beyond its traditional employee focus to an additional organisational participant group. Taking a ‘back to basics’ approach, it has provided further empirical support to the initial operationalisation of the relational character of a volunteer-centric contract apparent in the literature. While the psychological contract has been tested previously as a mediator, this study appears to the first to identify that for at least some volunteers, the effects of personal importance, role scope, need satisfaction, socialisation, and mission and values congruence antecedents, on affective and normative commitment are transmitted via a relational psychological contract.

Moderation of the mediated paths reflected the logic that perceptions of contract fulfillment must necessarily occur after the contract character has been determined, and that relationship strength of the mediated path (i.e. between a relational psychological contract and the components of commitment) will vary as a function of fulfillment. This was the case for affective commitment. At higher levels of fulfillment of the obligations of a relational contract, affective commitment was strengthened. This finding supports the conceptual distinctiveness of contract character and evaluative status. In conjunction with mediation, the moderation finding provides empirical evidence supporting the theorised association between dimensions of the psychological contract and organisational commitment, following the advice of leading scholars (Cohen, 2011; Liao Troth, 2005; Meyer, 2009).
From a practical perspective, the role of human resource strategy and activities has been shown to be integrally connected with the development of the character of the psychological contract, its obligations, the perceptions of fulfillment or breach, and reciprocative attitudinal response as a means of maintaining a balanced exchange relationship. Commitment is predicted to develop on the basis of a number of antecedents, but these relationships are amplified through fulfillment of the socio-emotional obligations embedded in the volunteer-centric psychological contract, particularly for affective commitment, although the value of combinative commitment profiles provides scope for further research.

Creating understanding on the part of an organisation and its managers, of the interpretive capacity that the psychological contract provides a volunteer in defining and assessing his or her contract, is essential to the improved management of the volunteer workforce. By being aware of the dispositional needs and expectations associated with particular forms of contract, managers can be aware of how their actions and communications might be perceived, and certainly be better able to avoid making promises that cannot be kept in the longer term. Contract characteristics may also be leveraged to better accommodate organisational change, while maintaining volunteer relationships.

Through the establishment of a promissory and reciprocal exchange agreement, favourable workplace attitudes, such as organisational commitment, can be encouraged by a NFP organisation on the part of its volunteers. It is evident that the development and adjustment of commitment, in conjunction with a relational psychological contract and subsequent perceptions of fulfillment thereof, is a complex and dynamic process. Furthermore this process will be influenced by an organisation’s values and human resource management framework, as well as work experiences and dispositional elements on the part of the individual.

This thesis was initially based on the proposition, identified in the reviewed literature, that work experience, structural and dispositional characteristics might be associated with the formation of a relational psychological contract, and embedded obligations. The perceived fulfillment of such obligations on the part of the organisation was theorised to encourage commitment from the evaluating individual as a reciprocative response. However, the nature of the interaction and relationships between the
hypothesised antecedents; dimensions of the psychological contract; and dependent variables of affective and normative commitment remained unclear. As a means of better articulating these relationships, this study has explicitly operationalised the direct, indirect, and conditional effects associated with the constructs. By doing so, it has contributed to the research literature and extended the frameworks traditionally utilised in a paid-staff context to a volunteer centric environment.
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Appendix A

Notification of Ethics Approval

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date: 3 December 2009
Project Number: CF09/2621 - 2009001514
Project Title: The psychological contract of volunteers
Chief Investigator: Dr Ross Donohue
Approved: From: 3 December 2009 to 3 December 2014

Terms of approval
1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel): Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. Future correspondence: Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. Annual reports: Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. Final report: A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. Monitoring: Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. Retention and storage of data: The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Bon Canny
Chair, MUHREC

Cc: Leanne McCormick
Appendix B

Permission from organisation regarding research access

Permission Letter for “The Psychological Contract of Volunteers”

11 February 2011

Leanne McCormick
Department of Management
Faculty of Business and Economics
PO Box 167
Gaulfield East 3146

Dear Leanne,

Thank you for your request to recruit participants from Vision Australia for the above-named research.

I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement regarding the research project (reference number CF002621 – 2009001514) and hereby give permission for this research to be conducted.

As discussed, in participating in this survey the following are essential: data on individual volunteers participating in this survey remain confidential and are not used for any purposes other than for this research project; survey data on Vision Australia volunteers remains confidential to Vision Australia and is not to be provided to other organisations or reported except on a consolidated basis with the data of other participating organisations; the demographic section includes information on nominated Divisions of Vision Australia to allow Vision Australia to compare aspects of the psychological contract between volunteers in different Divisions; the timing of the survey will be by agreement; and communication timing and content to Vision Australia volunteers will be by agreement.

Yours Sincerely,

[Name]
General Manager Organisational Development
Appendix C
Communication to Survey Recipients

MONASH University

Attention: Volunteers

Tuesday 15 March 2011

Explanatory Statement – Research Access for Doctoral Study on Volunteer Commitment

Title: The Psychological Contract of Volunteers

This information sheet is for your ongoing reference.

My name is Leanne McCormick and I am conducting doctoral research under the supervision of Dr Ross Donohue (Senior Lecturer) in the Department of Management at Monash University. As part of the on-going research process I now need to collect data on the experiences and expectations of volunteers in the context of their ‘employer’ organisation, in this case Vision Australia. The data obtained, when analysed, will help inform a thesis of approximately 90,000 words. Below is some information regarding the study and why I need your assistance.

What is the purpose behind the research?
This research explores the relationship between levels of organisational commitment and the nature of the psychological contract among volunteers engaged in service delivery. You will be very aware how dependent Vision Australia is on your participation and contribution to the success of the organisation and its services. By gathering feedback on the reasons and expectations you have in your volunteer role with the organisation, it is anticipated that the organisation can develop better communication and support strategies for its volunteers. The research aims are based on the established relationships between commitment, role clarity, and perceived organisational support on the part of an employee, or in this case a dedicated or enthusiastic volunteer, and organisational performance.

Why should I participate?
You have been selected to participate in my research, on the basis of your contributory role to Vision Australia as a volunteer. Vision Australia is participating in this study, and is particularly interested in the responses of its volunteers with regard to the research findings. I have been working closely with your National Program Volunteers Co-Ordinator, Deb Barton, to ensure that the environmentally-friendly online survey is easily accessible, quick to complete, and protects your privacy.

In addition, it is hoped that by completing the survey, you will gain a better understanding of your motivations as a volunteer and what you hope to gain from the experience. Unfortunately this research project is not funded in any way, so there is no payment or reward, other than the valuable contribution you will make to the research process, and the potential usefulness of insights gained informing Vision Australia’s volunteer support strategies.

What does the research involve?
I am looking for individuals to complete an online survey on an anonymous basis. Questions will be answered by selecting the appropriate option on a scale from 1-7. The survey has been designed to measure of a number of variables including types and levels of commitment, role clarity, perceived organisational support, induction mechanisms, and alignment of personal values with organisational objectives. Hard copies of the survey with reply paid envelopes are also available.

How much time will the research take and what information will be required?
It is anticipated that the surveys will only take 15-20 minutes to complete, at your own convenience, and can be completed manually (and returned by post) or online. While I would appreciate you taking the time to consider and answer all questions carefully and honestly, no personal information will be required, other than some basic categories to help me enter the data (for example, role title, age bracket, level of education). Once data is entered, it will all be arranged and analysed in aggregate groups. It will not be possible to identify individual responses, or highlight your level of participation.

**Storage of data & confidentiality of records**

Storage of the data collected will adhere to the University regulations and kept on University premises in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

**Can I withdraw from the research?**

Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. However, if you do consent to participate, you may only withdraw prior to the questionnaire being submitted.

**Results**

If you would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact Leanne McCormick on 0410 568 059 or email lmmcc2@student.monash.edu.au. The findings are accessible for 5 years.

If you would like to contact the researchers about any aspect of this study, please contact the Chief Investigator:

**Dr Ross Donohue (Supervisor)**
Department of Management
Monash University

If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research (reference: CF09/2621 – 2009001514) is being conducted, please contact:

**Executive Officer, Human Research Ethics Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)**
Building 3e Room 111
Research Office
Monash University VIC 3800

Thank you.

**Leanne McCormick**

PhD Student
This survey forms part of the research requirement for my doctoral studies at Monash University, titled *The Psychological Contract of Volunteers*. The study is exploring the relationships between organisational commitment and a volunteer-centric psychological contract, among volunteers engaged in service delivery in not-for-profit organisations, such as Vision Australia. In other words, to determine the key reasons why you volunteer and remain involved with Vision Australia, so that the organisation can better meet volunteer expectations and increase satisfaction levels. Organisational commitment is essentially the intention to remain with an organisation, while the psychological contract is a way of understanding the perceived promises made by organisations to volunteers in exchange for volunteer contributions of time or other resources.

This questionnaire should take no more than 20 minutes to complete. It would be appreciated if you could respond to all questions, even if they seem similar, to assist with analysis. If you make a mistake, please clearly cross out and mark your preferred response, before continuing on. All questions should be answered on the basis of your volunteer work within a single organisation. If you know of other volunteers happy to contribute to the study, please pass a copy of this survey on. The survey can also be accessed for online completion at [http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/visionaustralia](http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/visionaustralia)

Participation in the survey is entirely voluntary. While your completion and return of the survey indicates consent to be involved, your survey responses will remain completely confidential and anonymous. Only members of the research team will have access to the information you provide. Findings will be reported on a group-level basis, so there is no possibility that any single individual’s data can be seen or identified by any person within your organisation. The data obtained will be stored securely for five years according to Monash University regulations, and then destroyed. A report of the findings will be distributed back to participating organisations at the completion of the research process.

Thank you for your assistance in this study.

Further Questions:
Please contact Leanne McCormick by email if you have any further questions about this survey

Complaints regarding this study:
Contact the Secretary, Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans, on 03 9905 2052, PO Box 3A, Monash University, VIC 3800 or

Postal Return:

[signature]
Section 1
Please provide the following information about yourself by filling in the blanks or ticking the appropriate response category.

1. What is your gender? □ Male □ Female

2. What is your age in years? □ Under 20 □ 20-29 □ 30-39 □ 40-49 □ 50-59 □ 60-69 □ 70+

3. What is your highest level of formal education? □ Secondary School □ Certificate □ Diploma □ Apprenticeship □ Degree □ Masters or above

4. What Division of are you involved with?

□ Independent living services □ Seeing Eye Dogs, Orientation & Mobility □ International & Stakeholder Relations □ Marketing & Fundraising □ Community Information Access (Library, VAR, Audio Description) □ Other (please specify)

5. Are you a member of the organisation as well as a volunteer? □ Yes □ No

6. How long have you been involved with ? (Years) _______ (Months) _______

7. What is the main purpose of your organisation? (e.g. Advocacy, training, fundraising, rehabilitation, client services, library, access to information, blindness and low vision) __________________________

8. In what capacity / role are you involved as a volunteer ?

□ General volunteer □ Committee member □ Office bearer □ Specialised volunteer (please specify) □ Other (please specify)

9. Is this your first volunteer role? □ Yes □ No

10. How long have you been in your current position? (Years) _______ (Months) _______

11. How much time would you contribute as a volunteer on a weekly basis? □ 1-2 hours □ 3-10 hours □ 10 hours plus

12. In your opinion, could operate effectively without volunteer input? □ Yes □ No

13. In which Australian state are you located?

□ Tasmania □ Victoria □ NSW □ South Australia □ Queensland □ Western Australia □ Northern Territory □ ACT

14. Is your address regional or metropolitan? □ Regional □ Metropolitan

15. Please indicate if your supervisor within the organisation is a paid staff member or a volunteer? __________________________
**Section 2**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>As a volunteer...</strong></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my time as a volunteer with this organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I could be easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation deserves my loyalty</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>As a volunteer...</strong></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I owe a great deal to this organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section 3**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling or highlighting the appropriate number on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>As a volunteer...</strong></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important not to get too involved in your role</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I come to work purely to get the job done
I only do what is necessary to get the job done
I am motivated to contribute 100% to this organisation in return for future employment benefits
I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job
I expect to gain promotion in this organisation with length of service and effort to achieve goals
I expect to grow in this organisation
I feel part of a team in this organisation
I feel this organisation reciprocates the effort put in by its volunteers
I have a reasonable chance of promotion if I work hard
I will work for this organisation indefinitely
I am heavily involved in my place of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As a volunteer…</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My organisation has often broken promises made to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considering the promises my organisation has made to me, the organisation hadn’t always lived up to its end of the bargain</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My organisation has kept its promises to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My organisation fulfils its obligations to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section 4**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling or highlighting the appropriate number on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent …</th>
<th>Very little</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does your volunteer job involve you in many different things, using a variety of your skills and talents?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your volunteer work doing a whole or identifiable piece of work, rather than a small portion of the overall work process?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the results of your work as a volunteer likely to significantly affect the lives and well-being of other people?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does doing the job itself, that is your volunteer work, provide you with information about your work performance?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role requires me to use a number of</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
complex or high level skills
Tasks are quite simple and repetitive
Role provides me with the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent ...</th>
<th>Very little</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tasks are arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any ‘feedback’ about how well I am doing in my work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regarding my relationship with my volunteer organisation ...</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel respected as a volunteer by the organisation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation listens to what I have to say about volunteering work.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation cares about my opinion as a volunteer.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I perceive that my volunteer work benefits the organisation’s customers / members / or service recipients</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My voluntary effort really benefits the organisation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My volunteer work is of importance for fulfillment of the organisational mission</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can greatly influence the decisions of my immediate superior regarding things in my job over which I am concerned</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor often asks my opinion when a problem comes up that involves my work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that it is easy to get my job improvement ideas across to my superior</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation really cares about my well-being</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation values my contribution to its well-being</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation strongly considers my goals and values</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The organisation shows little concern for me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Section 5**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling or highlighting the appropriate number on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>As a volunteer ...</strong></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know exactly what is expected of me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know that I have divided my time properly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation is clear regarding what has to be done</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel certain about how much authority I have</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know what my responsibilities are</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my role</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by volunteers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected volunteers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job decisions are made by my supervisor in an unbiased manner</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To make formal job decisions, my supervisor collects accurate and complete information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor makes sure that all volunteer concerns are heard before job decisions are made</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by my supervisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role allows me to use my personal initiative in carrying out the work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role gives me considerable opportunity for freedom in how I do the work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have enough freedom to do what I want on my job to satisfy customers / service recipients / members</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To what extent do ...</strong></td>
<td><strong>Not at all dependent</strong></td>
<td><strong>Highly dependent</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for information and advice?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for materials, means and other things they need?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your colleagues depend on your presence, help, and support?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your colleagues depend on you for doing their work well?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please select the appropriate word [in the brackets] to complete the statement, and indicate the level of response for the selected term (for questions a-f).

| b. The things other volunteers want to accomplish and the things I want to accomplish are __________________ [compatible / incompatible] | 1. Slightly compatible | 4. Neither compatible nor incompatible | 5. Slightly incompatible |
| c. It is __________________ [advantageous / disadvantageous] for me when other volunteers succeed in their roles | 1. Slightly advantageous | 4. Neither advantageous nor disadvantageous | 5. Slightly disadvantageous |
| d. When other volunteers succeed in their roles, it is at my __________________ [expense / benefit] | 1. Slight expense | 4. Neither expense nor benefit | 5. Slight benefit |
| e. My concerns and those of other volunteers are __________________ [harmonious / clashing] | 1. Slightly harmonious | 4. Neither harmonious nor clashing | 5. Slightly clashing |
| f. When other volunteers succeed in their roles, it works out __________________ [positively / negatively] for me. | 1. Slightly positive | 4. Neither positively nor negatively | 5. Slightly negative |
**Section 6**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling or highlighting the appropriate number on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I volunteer because …</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about those less fortunate than myself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel compassion towards people in need</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel it is important to help others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can do something for a cause that is important for me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes me feel important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It increases my self-esteem</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes me feel needed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes me feel better about myself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a way to make new friends</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section 7**

Please indicate your response to each of the following statements by circling or highlighting the appropriate number on the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As a volunteer, I believe …</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This organisation has provided excellent job training for me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation offers thorough training to improve my job skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training in this organisation has enabled me to do my job very well</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructions given by my supervisor have been valuable in helping me do better work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As a volunteer, I believe …</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know how to get things done in this organisation very well</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a full understanding of my duties in this organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goals of this organisation have been made very explicit and clear</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a good knowledge of the way this organisation operates</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other volunteers / workers have helped</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
me on the job in various ways
My co-workers (volunteer/paid) are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice
Most of my co-workers (volunteer / paid) have accepted me as a member of this organisation
My co-workers have done a great deal to help me adjust to this organisation
There are many chances for a good career with this organisation
Opportunities for advancement in this organisation are available to almost everyone
I am happy with the rewards offered by this organisation
Volunteers should not care about the organisation that ‘employs’ them unless that organisation shows that it cares about its volunteers
Volunteers should only go out of their way to help their organisation if it goes out of its way to help them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As a volunteer, I believe …</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A volunteer should work as hard as possible no matter what the organisation thinks of his or her efforts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If an organisation does not appreciate an volunteer's efforts, the volunteer should still work as hard as he or she can</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A volunteer who is treated badly by an organisation should work less hard</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A volunteer’s work effort should depend partly on how well the organisation deals with his or her desires and concerns</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A volunteer should only work hard if his or her efforts will lead to a promotion, or other benefits</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A volunteer's work effort should not depend on the fairness of his or her rewards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organisation values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My personal values match my organisation's values and culture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My organisation's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Additional Comments**
Survey Return

Please return your completed survey to:

Leanne McCormick (Research Student)
Department of Management
Faculty of Business and Economics
PO Box 197
Caulfield East 3145
(an addressed reply-paid envelope may be included for your convenience)

This survey can also be accessed for completion online by using the link
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/[redacted]

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY!
## Appendix E
Moderated mediation (mod-med) syntax example and allocation of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Included variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Normative Commitment</strong></td>
<td>[X1-4] Zgender Zage Zeducation Ztenure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[X5-6] ZMeanSC ZMeanVC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Y1] ZMeanNC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[M1] ZMeanPCR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Z1] ZmeanPCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODMED VARS = Zgender Zage Zeducation Ztenure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZMeanNC ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF ZMeanSC ZMeanVC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e.g. socialisation] /DV = ZMeanNC /MED = ZMeanPCR /DVMODEL = ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF /MMODEL = ZMeanSC /boot=5000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e.g. age] /DV = ZMeanNC /MED = ZMeanPCR /DVMODEL = ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF /MMODEL = Zage /boot=5000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective Commitment</strong></td>
<td>[X1-4 - control] Zgender Zage Zeducation Ztenure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[X5-13] ZMeanJSFB ZMeanPIPT ZMeanOS ZMeanRC ZMeanFP ZMeanAT ZMeanTI ZMeanNSe ZMeanNSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Y1] ZMeanAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[M1] ZMeanPCR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Z1] ZmeanPCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODMED VARS = Zgender Zage Zeducation Ztenure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZMeanAC6 ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF ZMeanJSFB ZMeanPIPT ZMeanOS ZMeanRC ZMeanFP ZMeanAT ZMeanTI ZMeanNSe ZMeanNSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e.g. gender] /DV = ZMeanAC6 /MED = ZMeanPCR /DVMODEL = ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF /MMODEL = Zgender /boot=5000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e.g. personal importance] /DV = ZMeanAC6 /MED = ZMeanPCR /DVMODEL = ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF /MMODEL = ZMeanPIPT /boot=5000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[e.g. formal procedures] /DV = ZMeanAC6 /MED = ZMeanPCR /DVMODEL = ZMeanPCR ZmeanPCF /MMODEL = ZMeanFP /boot=5000.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>