THE ROLE OF SELF-PERCEIVED ALTRUISM IN DETERMINING ENGAGEMENT

LEVELS OF MANDATORY VOLUNTEERS

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DEDICATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Description
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale
SRA	Self-Report Altruism
SROI	Social Return On Investment
PRMH	Philadelphia Ronald McDonald House
IRB	Institutional Review Board

ABSTRACT

Volunteering has always been synonymous with something someone does on their own time. However, over time organizations have started to rely on individuals that are mandated to volunteer for one reason or another. Previous studies have explored the altruistic and egoistic motivations behind an individual's desire to volunteer and found that overall their engagement during volunteer activities was not that different. However, no literature could be found that measures the differences in engagement of mandatory volunteers whose altruistic or egoistic motives have been removed. The current study sought to fill this void by examining the difference in engagement levels of mandatory volunteers with different self-reported altruistic scores. Correlation analysis and multivariate testing were used to determine if there was any significance present in the difference of engagement scores between those that scored high and those that scored low on a self-reported altruism survey. While results indicated no difference in engagement among these altruistic groups, a univariate analysis revealed non-white males were more likely to be engaged as mandatory volunteers than any other demographic.

1. INTRODUCTION

Some volunteers demonstrate a passion for a program and become consistent long-term contributors, while others disengage and quickly leave. Why these differences occur contributes to a debate about what it means to be a volunteer. Individuals agree that volunteering contains factors such as lack of payment, actions that benefit others, engagement by choice, and actions seen as helping the community (von Essen, 2016). Volunteering, for this study, is an activity in which the labor provided is unpaid, or free from compensation (Stukas, Worth, Clary, & Snyder, 2009; Chaddha & Rai, 2016). However, beyond who is a volunteer lies a more complex construct than the definition implies because, as derived from Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996), someone may be motivated to volunteer for themselves; someone/something such as an organization, person, groups of people; or a combination of both.

An individual's motivation to volunteer may come from a multitude of factors. An older adult's motivation to volunteer may be impacted by the country they live in and type of volunteer activity they are participating in (Principi, Chiatti, & Lamura, 2012). Improving quality of life has also been identified as a reason to volunteer, with indications that volunteering may lead to a lower risk of death (Ayalon, 2008). Others may volunteer due to the level of happiness reported during volunteering, when compared to those that do not spend their time volunteering (Meier & Stutzer, 2008).

Examining motivation to volunteer further, an individual's motivation may be categorized as either altruistic or egoistic in nature. Altruistic reasons may include motivations such as supporting an important cause or helping those in need, while an egoistic reason might be improving ones' chances of future employment (Handy et al.

1

2010). Briggs, Peterson, and Gregory (2010) suggested that when organizations recruit volunteers that are more egoistic in nature, organizations may want to use me-oriented recruiting, such as career driven benefits to attract egoistic volunteers. Recognizing differences in volunteer's motivation could be beneficial to organizations, as volunteer impacts on agencies and their outcomes are well documented in the literature (Fitzgerald, Robillard, & O'Grady, 2016; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2017).

However, there are times when a person's individual choice has been reduced. In these instances, determining impact (Guntert & Wehner, 2015) or level of commitment (Veludo-De-Oliveira, Pallister, & Foxall, 2015) to a program using altruistic or egoistic reasons cannot be relied on. Researchers use different terms to discuss this type of volunteer; such as forced, mandatory, marginal, required, or compulsory. For this study, mandatory volunteers will be the term utilized. Mandatory volunteers are individuals volunteering due to the desire to earn credit for a college course (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999) or mandatory community service (Gallant, Smale, & Arai, 2010). In these cases, the personal motivation to volunteer has been altered, and thus possibly not explained by altruistic or egoistic motivations.

Although a person's motivation to volunteer may be limited, their level of altruistic tendencies in life are still present. These tendencies are characterized by how often someone is giving to others instead of to themselves (Martin, Kwak, Pearson, Woldorff, & Huettel, 2016) and may be important in understanding if altruistic behaviors can determine level of engagement by mandatory volunteers.

Engagement is giving different levels of oneself physically, cognitively and emotionally during performance of an assigned task (Kahn, 1990). An individual's

engagement while volunteering for an organization may be an important factor for organizers to consider (Alfes, Shantz, & Bailey, 2016), especially in relation to mandatory volunteering. Engagement while volunteering has been explored in a variety of ways, such as how engagement affects a volunteer's work on a task (Millette & Gagne, 2008), the happiness of a volunteer (Cattan, Hogg, & Hardill, 2011), and positive benefits to volunteers in long term volunteering (Elias, Sudhir, & Mehrotra, 2016). When an individual is motivated to volunteer for their own altruistic reasons, a greater chance of engagement is present (Shantz, Saksida, & Alfes, 2014). Men have also been shown to have statistically higher engagement than women (Shaufeli & Bakker, 2003). However, when considering how engagement might be affected when an individual is mandated to volunteer, it is plausible that volunteers who perceive themselves to be more behaviorally altruistic will engage more in assigned tasks during a period of mandatory volunteering. In this regard, no research could be found in determining if a mandatory volunteer's self-perceived altruism levels can be a predictor for their engagement during their mandatory volunteer period.

To study how an individual's self-perceived altruism affects their engagement during mandatory volunteering, this paper includes a literature review on the importance of volunteers and the impacts they have on individuals and organizations. The review also examined aspects from both a motivation to volunteer and behavioral approach and research about differences in volunteer's motivation before finally examining engagement of volunteers.

Purpose of this Study

  The purpose of this study was to determine if an individual's level of engagement in a program as a mandatory volunteer could be predicted by the person's self-perceived altruism. A secondary purpose was to determine if there were any differences in engagement and altruism among certain demographic groups.

Research Questions

  The main research question was this: Is one's level of self-perceived altruism predictive of the level of engagement by a mandatory volunteer? A secondary question was does an individual's self-perceived altruism or engagement differ by sex and race?

Significance of the Study

  Findings from this study may help in determining how self-perceived altruism affects mandatory volunteers. Current research suggests that volunteers can have impacts on youth in either positive or negative ways (Ronel, 2006), therefore this study also seeks to determine the engagement level of mandatory volunteers while with a program based on their self-perceived altruism. Results could show if an individual that perceives themselves to be highly altruistic would make a better mandatory volunteer than those that see themselves as not very altruistic. Results may also help organizations recruit mandatory volunteers in the most efficient manner to create the best results for their programs and participants.

Definition of Terms

*Volunteering***:** An activity in which the labor provided is unpaid, or free from compensation (Stukas et al., 2009; Chaddha & Rai, 2016).

Volitional Volunteer: Volunteers who sign up for a program/event without wanting payment, that is for the benefit of others or the community, does so by their choice, and is engaging during that time (von Essen, 2016).

Mandatory Volunteer: Individuals volunteering due to the desire to earn credit for a class, college course (Stukas et al., 1999), or mandatory community service (Gallant et al., 2010).

Altruism: Acts that are seen as those initiated by someone that benefit others with no desire for any kind of outside rewards (Veludo-De-Oliveira et at., 2015)

Egoism: When volunteering is seen as bettering one's self, gaining experience for a job, meeting new people, or demonstrating new skills (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009).

Engagement: Giving different levels of oneself physically, cognitively and emotionally during performance of an assigned task (Kahn, 1990).

Delimitations

Delimitations for this study include:

1. Volitional volunteers will not be studied, for this study, because we want to determine if restricting one's choice to volunteer will impact their engagement levels.

2. A post-test for the Self-Report Altruism Scale (SRA) will not be conducted because we are asking if their self-perceived altruism before the event has an impact and as such will not need to know their score from a post test.

Limitations

Limitations that may affect this study include:

1. Response bias could lead to the inability to determine if self-perceived altruism can determine engagement of mandatory volunteers.

2. Lack of attention when filling out the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) may alter the volunteer's engagement score compared to how much or little they actually engaged in the volunteer experience.

3. The convenience sample may impact the results gathered as all members are recreation majors.

4. This study was cross-sectional in that it will happen at one very specific point in time and cannot infer results based on one study

5. The sample size could affect the results obtained.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following section reviews existing literature regarding volunteerism and the behavioral attributes of altruism and egoism. First, the literature review examines what is volunteering, followed by an examination of why volunteers are important aspects of youth development. The review provides evidence on the impacts that volunteers have on an organization and participants of an organization. Next, the review differentiates altruism and egoism, both behaviorally and motivationally, including whether these two factors have any measured outcome in participant satisfaction. Then, this review explores two categories of volunteers; volitional and mandatory as they relate to the role of engagement in volunteering outcomes. Finally, this review explores engagements role in volunteering.

Introduction to Volunteering

The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that around 62.6 million people volunteered in the United States from September 2014 to September 2015 ("Volunteering in the," 2016). Volunteering has long been seen as an activity where someone gives their time to help people, organizations, or both (Wilson, 2000). Further, Cnaan et al., (1996) stated that an individual may volunteer for themselves, someone/something, or a combination of both. One may even volunteer to gain experiences or connections (Holdsworth, 2010; MacNeela, 2008; Skille & Hanstad, 2013). Handy et al. (2000) found that an individual was more often considered by others to be a volunteer when the volunteer was perceived as receiving fewer personal benefits, such as skill development, monetary compensation, or social connections. For the purpose of this study,

volunteering is defined as an activity in which the labor provided is unpaid, or free from

compensation (Stukas et al., 2009; Chaddha & Rai, 2016).

Snyder and Omoto (2008) argued that volunteering must have freedom as an

essential component in the volunteer process. However, others consider that there is more

to the volunteering process such as fulfilling mandated community service or

volunteering for class credit (Stebbins, 2009). Even freely chosen volunteerism may lose

its freedom when perceived to be overburdening, unpleasant, or constraining (Gallant,

Smale, & Arai, 2016). If freedom of choice is seen as non-essential to volunteering, other

aspects to understanding volunteerism emerge. In this regard, volunteering can be viewed

from a four-dimensional approach: the voluntary nature of the act, nature of the reward,

context in which it is performed, and who benefits. Within these dimensions exists a

sliding scale wherein an individual's placement determines to what extent they are

considered a volunteer (Cnaan et al. 1996).

Within these four dimensions, different reasons to volunteer are present. Clary et

al. (1998) examined reasons to volunteer and determined, that an individual volunteering

could be placed into one of six categories: values, understanding, social, career,

protective, and enhancement. *Values* are expressed through humanitarian concern for

others. *Understanding* is growing one's knowledge, skills, or abilities through new

learning experiences. *Social* consists of volunteering as a means to engage with friends or

to be doing something seen as favorable to others. *Career* is volunteering as a means to

gain benefits related to your career. *Protective* means volunteering to reduce one's own

guilt or to address personal problems one may have. Finally, *enhancement* is volunteering

to increase one's own ego. In these six categories, reasons exist where factors outside of

their control may be present. These reasons, as opposed to freedom, could be an individual forced into volunteering, wherein through this process they inevitably find themselves falling into one of the six categories.

Importance of Volunteers

Volunteering has the potential to create positive societal or community driven impacts (McBey, Karakowsky, & Ng, 2017), and volunteers have been found to give more to an organization than they receive in return (Cnaan et al., 1996). By examining Social Return On Investment (SROI), a financial indicator, Classens (2015) showed that volunteers gave more, through their works, than they received, through personal benefits, during the experience.

Impact of Volunteers on Programs. Volunteers are utilized in many organizations for a multitude of reasons such as what they can offer compared to their cost (Simmons, & Emanuele, 2010; Zappala, 2001). Organizations see the role of a volunteer as a crucial part of their success. Often creating a potential service due to a volunteer's expertise or availability to fill a gap (Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

In their research with the Philadelphia Ronald McDonald House (PRMH) Haski-Leventhal, Hustinx, and Handy (2011) used an online survey examining PRMH volunteer habits and submitted that while in PRMH, volunteers were shown to save money, enhance reputation, enhance legitimacy, generate money, and raise awareness for organizations. These benefits for PRMH led to beneficial impacts on the families, the volunteers, and the organization itself (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2011).

Impact of Volunteers on Youth. For youth organizations, volunteers also have an impact on the youth they interact with. The interactions they have may inspire in youth

a desire to give back and provide a chance for lasting positive implications for youth based on the experience. Rhodes and Lowe (2008) indicated that over 80% of youth have at least one non-parent influence that had some significant impact on them. Many of these were volunteers. Within youth organizations, volunteers can impact the development of moral principles and social awareness (Kim & Morgul, 2017). When these impacts with volunteers are positive, researchers have indicated a healthy development for youth may occur (Caldarella, Gomm, Shatzer, & Wall, 2010). Through interactions, positive thoughts, behaviors, and abilities may be passed on, which create learned traits causing new abilities to be gained from encounters where different punishments or rewards are received. (Law, Siu, & Shek, 2012).

One organization that was found to utilize positive volunteer interaction with its youth was an Irish youth organization, Foroige. This organization focused on youth development through positive interaction between volunteers and the youth, where youth learned from activities such as inter-club events, fundraising, snack time, and meetings (O'Brien, 2017). O'Brien found that reliance on volunteers resulted in an increase in developmental benefits, such as wellbeing and community action, for the youth. Similarly, Fitzgerald et al. (2016) utilized pre- and post-tests when studying the effects volunteer presence had on literary skills in a reading program. Results showed that participants had significant improvements in reading, communication, and social-emotional behaviors before and after volunteers were present (Fitzgerald et al., 2016).

Impact of volunteers on participants also extends to those observed among at-risk youth. By focusing on youth outreach, Ronel (2006) identified instances in which youth impacted by volunteers indicated a desire to come back as volunteers for the program.

10

Further, an indication can be made that the youth realized and understood the impact volunteers had on them. In one study, involving at-risk youth in Massachusetts, youth reported that street outreach workers not only had a positive impact on them and their community, but that these types of workers helped in preventing or mediating conflicts among the at-risk youth (Pollack, Frattaroli, Whitehill, & Stroher, 2011).

Some organizations also use volunteers for youth mentoring initiatives (Jones, Doveston, & Rose, 2009). These type of mentor volunteers may impact the lives of youth, as one study found that youth respondents with mentors showed nonviolent delinquency, lower marijuana use, more school attachment, and the belief that doing well in school was important (Zimmerman, Bingenheimer, & Notaro, 2002). This complements other findings that revealed when introducing youth to new people and activities, mentors were able to create a strong foundation with which the relationship between the two could grow emotionally, with the youth indicating growth in feelings of their well-being as well (Brady, Dolan, & Canavan, 2015). Although some of these studies did not mention volunteers specifically as the form of mentors, there is still value in the importance of the studies. That is because an individual may be classified as a volunteer while mentoring even if not expressed as such (Lavelle, 2010; Raposa, Dietz, & Rhodes, 2017). Regardless of the capacity, having one good adult that cares can affect life satisfaction, build self-esteem, help with coping, promote a sense of belonging, and decrease the likelihood of self-harm and suicide (Dooley & Fitzgerald, 2012).

However, this does not mean the impact is always positive. Impact may be negatively affected when a volunteer feels like they should be receiving some type of reward or praise for their work and do not (Arinze-Onyia, Modebe, Aguwa, & Nwobodo,

2015). Ronel (2006) noted that rapid volunteer turnover, failing to arrive at their shifts, and not showing up regularly hurt the relationships with the at-risk youth in that area. These factors could potentially result in a negative impact on the program and its participants.

Altruism and Egoism

There are many reasons an individual may choose to volunteer, such as volunteering as an obligation of either commitment or duty (Gallant et al., 2016). Obligations of commitment were orders given that were seen as part of the experience, while obligation of duty was described as feeling burdened by following certain guidelines (Gallant et al., 2016). Rewards, affective attachment, flexibility, and side bets (learning and experiences due to volunteering) were indicated by participants to be strong factors to their commitment to volunteering; whereas sense of burden and constraint were factors when one experienced a duty to volunteer (Gallant et al., 2016). With burden and constraints of volunteering decreasing one's enjoyment, different reasons emerge that influence volunteering. These reasons can range from individuals volunteering for motivations that are either self-oriented and a positive benefit to the individual, or other-oriented with positive benefit to others (Cornelis, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2013). However, an individual's reason to volunteer is not always the same, possibly changing due to shifts in life experiences such as marriage, divorce, or parenthood (Bram & Jonas, 2014). The potential to benefit one's health also exists, as one may have a reduced mortality risk when volunteering for altruistic reasons, compared to self-oriented reasons or non-volunteers (Konrath, Fuhrel-Forbis, Lou, & Brown, 2012).

Egoism. Many times volunteers are seen as altruistic in nature simply due to giving time to a cause. However, an individual may also volunteer in order to receive some type of reward (Piferi, Jobe, & Jones, 2006). This desire for personal reward may replace altruistic motivation in volunteering because the thought of this reward is constantly on the mind of the volunteer (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). This type of reward is called egoism, which is volunteering in order to better yourself, meet new people, or to demonstrate new skills (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009). Egoism, as described by Hartenian and Lilly contains three types: outward, inward, and experiential. *Outward egoism* involves demonstrating "skills to others and to increase the likelihood of being hired" (p. 101). *Inward egoism* involves complying with volunteer duties to satisfy "needs such as feeling caring and selfless when one helps another" (p. 103). Finally, *experiential egoism* is ones "need to engage in fulfilling experiences" (p. 101).

An egoistic volunteer may participate fully in the experience, but their main reason for volunteering is so that they may personally gain something from the experience. For instance, Jackson and Adarlo (2016), indicated that a volunteer's motives to help abroad were mainly due to egoistic or self-oriented reasons, such as searching for answers about oneself or demonstrating their ideas (Jackson & Adarlo, 2016). Other instances of these egoistic motives can be seen when individuals choose to volunteer in order to gain job training or connections in their field (Simmons & Emanuele, 2010).

Due to egoistic motivations, a volunteer may make the choice to stop volunteering once they have achieved the objective that motivated them to volunteer, even if the volunteer opportunity is still occurring and available to the volunteer (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009). Even with the idea of early departure present, Hartenian and Lilly acknowledged

that knowing whether or not someone is an egoistic volunteer will not help an organizer determine their level of commitment. Though knowing their egoistic motivations may help organizers recruit these type of volunteers (Pauline & Pauline, 2009; Luping, 2011).

Altruism. Altruism can be described as putting the interests or needs of others ahead of your own (Diacon, 2014). From a volunteer standpoint, altruistic individuals are those that volunteer to give back, their motivation coming from their desire to help some organization or group of people in need (Shye, 2010). Participants are likely to see a volunteer as altruistic simply because the individual is volunteering (Hoogervorst, Metz, Roza, & van Baren, 2016).

However, this alludes to a main concern with the altruistic terminology, can someone be one hundred percent altruistic or will they have other underlying motivations as well? This notion has been tested for international volunteers to see if their altruistic mindset could be changed (Clerkin & Swiss, 2014). The question with altruism here was what happens when one has to pay a fee to volunteer? Although this is not common for things such as local volunteering, it sometimes occurs when volunteering abroad that being forced to pay a fee concerns some volunteers and could potentially inhibit them from volunteering in the future (Clerkin & Swiss, 2014). A hindrance to volunteering for reasons like fees could mean there is no such thing as true altruism for volunteering. Similarly, when stating one feels happiness from doing something good they potentially lose that pure altruism aspect (Diacon, 2014). Regardless of whether pure altruism exists, altruistic volunteering does contain the desire to help others with no assumption of a reward to follow (Dibou, 2012).

With altruistic and egotistic motivations, researchers have found that an individual may begin volunteering for either motive and that a volunteer's altruistic motives can become more egotistically motivated during the volunteer experience (Manatschal & Freitag, 2014). Further, volunteering for either altruistic (Romaioli, Nencini, & Meneghini, 2016) or egotistic (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009) reasons did not predict how engaged a volunteer would be or how likely they were to continue on with the organization after their initial commitment was complete, nor could participants differentiate the motivations of their volunteers (Trussell, 2015).

Altruistic Behavior

Beyond one's altruistic or egoistic motivation lies the inherent act of doing something with no expected return, which is something that can be traced back to the root of many spiritual and religious traditions (Paraskevaidis & Andriotis, 2017). These acts, also known as altruistic behaviors, are seen as giving up one's own well-being for the betterment of others or society (Martin et al., 2016) and as those initiated by someone that benefit others with no desire for any kind of outside rewards (Veludo-De-Oliveira et al., 2015; Phillips & Phillips, 2011). Further, altruistic behavior may create a reduction in stress and an increase in happiness in individuals who care for others (Corral-Verdugo, Mireless-Acosta, Tapia-Fonllem, & Fraijo-Sing, 2011).

Altruistic behaviors are seen in many groups of people, with no clear indication on if one group will exhibit more altruistic behavior than another (Cochran, Mays, Corliss, Smith, & Turner, 2009). In their study measuring individuals that identified as homosexual or heterosexual, Cochran et al. found that while there were separate instances when groups indicated higher altruism, neither group showed higher signs of overall

15

altruistic behavior. Although studies have found instances where a group's altruistic behavior could be higher. For instance, a higher probability of participating in an altruistic act existed when the person being helped was a sibling (Tornero et al., 2018). A decrease in one's altruistic behavior was also observed in high self-risk situations and when there was a low need for help (Hu et al., 2017).

When it comes to the act itself, many actions can be seen as being altruistic. Helping someone who is injured or needed help getting up are seen as acts that are more likely to reveal altruistic behavior in an individual (Corral-Verdugo et al., 2011). Dibou (2012) mentioned altruistic behaviors may also include "selfless aid to another person, support and treatment of weak people, care of each other, self-sacrifice in war, patronage and charity- all behavioral acts, more or less are filled with altruism" (p. 06). Beyond this, altruistic behavior can be broken into two categories; active and passive (Gudinavicius, 2015). Gudinavicius said that active altruism involves such things as attentiveness, protecting and self-sacrifice, while passive altruism includes sensitivity, forgiveness, and generosity. At the forefront for both is the idea of giving as an act that has other motives than to benefit yourself.

Differences Between Volunteering by Choice and Forced Volunteering

While altruistic and egoistic motivations are common for determining reasons to volunteer, they are not the only criteria used to categorize volunteers. When an individual is forced/mandated to volunteer, their motivation to volunteer is not explained by egoistic or altruistic motivations. Instead, an individual may be classified as volitional or mandatory. Volitional is when a volunteer is able to freely choose the volunteer

16

opportunity themselves, and those that volunteer out of some requirement are called mandatory volunteers.

Volitional Volunteer. A volitional volunteer is an individual with attributes that people would naturally associate with volunteering, such as being unpaid, benefitting others, voluntary, engaging, and community-driven (von Essen, 2016). Volitional volunteers exhibit freedom within a volunteer organization by giving their time or skills and demonstrating self-initiative (Rodell, 2013). While volitional volunteers may find themselves volunteering for unselfish motives (Beehr, LeGro, Porter, Bowling, & Swader, 2010), the freedom present allows an individual to volunteer for an organization for their own altruistic or egoistic reasons.

Freedom of choice is one of the key concepts that define volitional volunteers. In her research on organizational freedom, McAllum (2014) found three types of freedoms expressed: freedom to join, act or leave. *Freedom to join* gives the individual the chance to join any volunteer opportunity they desire. Here, a volunteer's freedom to join is not forced. *Freedom to act* includes the presence of no obligations, which gives a volunteer the freedom to do what they want, job wise, during their volunteer experience. This includes deciding to do a task assigned to you even if it was not a task initially desired. *Freedom to leave* is freedom that gives one the ability to leave a volunteer opportunity whenever desired. Whether bored, feeling something is missing, or disagreements with the staff, freedom to leave gives volitional volunteers an edge over mandatory volunteers as there will be no negative impact on the individual outside of possible social impacts.

These freedoms that allow an individual to be in control of their own choices separates volitional from mandatory volunteering. Even when this choice could be disruptive to the organization, such as putting their needs above the organization's needs (Jacobs, 2017).

Mandatory Volunteer. As mentioned previously, mandatory volunteers are individuals volunteering due to an external factor such as to earn credit for a class or college course (Stukas et al., 1999). The mandatory nature involves some type of forced coercion in order for the participant to volunteer (Stebbins, 2009).

The idea that someone's freedom to volunteer can be taken away is not a new issue in research (Cuskelly & Harrington, 1997). One of the areas where mandatory volunteering is seen frequently is at the high school and college levels. Especially at the college level, volunteering is used to give students a chance to gain experience in their professional field. Instructors do so by incorporating service learning into their curriculum (Garver, Divine, & Spralls, 2009). Service learning is an unpaid period of time in which a student is placed in a situation in which some type of work experience, usually career driven, will be gained (Sokal, Barrett, Appel, Funk, & Radawetz, 2016).

During one's time as a mandatory volunteer, different reactions, such as negative attitudes (Garver et al., 2009), may emerge. In one case, researchers examined students who needed to complete 30-40 hours of volunteer service related to their course work over one calendar year, in order to graduate (Scott & van Etten, 2013). Scott and van Etten found not only did several students not meet the requirements, and thus did not graduate, but 41% saw the volunteering experience as offering "few to reasonable advantages of the experience in gaining future employment" (p. 252). However, being a mandatory volunteer may not always negatively affect one's performance or deter future

volunteering (Henderson, Brown, Pancer, & Ellis-Hale, 2007). For instance, Sokal et al. (2016), when examining teaching candidates from the University of Winnipeg, found the possibility for students to have positive experiences during their mandatory volunteer period.

Researchers have indicated that there are many factors to consider, like former volunteering experiences (Sokal et al., 2016), length of program, and the mandatory volunteering experience not being an end to future volunteering (Gallant et al., 2010). Henney, Hackett, and Porreca (2017) found mandatory volunteers not only enjoyed their experience but were more likely than volitional volunteers to find themselves volunteering again. Further, Metz and Youniss (2005) found that students who indicated no desire to volunteer before being mandated to do so, were likely to indicate that they viewed the experience as having a positive impact on their outlook of volunteering and civic development in the future. This impact may result from the possibility of a more thorough understanding of available knowledge to gain, the application of learned knowledge, and the ability to learn while performing the volunteer service (Eyler, 2009; Sass & Coll, 2015).

Stukas et al. (1999) pointed out that a positive effect of mandatory volunteering on future volunteering hinged on whether volunteers perceived their behaviors and actions as not being heavily controlled. By not allowing volunteers to pick a job to complete, frustration and resentment may occur (Warburton & Smith, 2003). In addition, one study on Maryland's statewide mandate on student community service showed a decrease in volunteering as students aged (Sparks, 2013). This supports current research conducted by Yang (2017) that indicated that when focusing on a more longitudinal

period, those forced to volunteer because of a mandated Ontario policy showed no increase in volunteering over time after completion of their volunteer requirements.

Volunteer Engagement

Engagement is giving different levels of oneself physically, cognitively, and emotionally during performance of an assigned task (Kahn, 1990). Most research on engagement comes from the work sector (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). In this regard, men have been shown to have statistically higher levels of engagement than women (Shaufeli & Bakker, 2003), although Shaufeli and Bakker caution the actual practical significance of these results. However, researchers are beginning to study engagement specific to volunteering, as research on volunteer engagement can assist organizations to improve a volunteer's engagement (York, 2017). Examination from a work engagement standpoint highlights important factors for understanding volunteer engagement (Vecina, Chacon, Sueiro, & Barron, 2012).

Work engagement is often defined as a mindset in which one shows different levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Huynh, Metzer, & Winefield, 2012). As discussed by Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008), *vigor* is effort and persistence while engaged, even during adversity, as well as having energy and mental toughness. *Dedication* is involvement in work to the fullest extent while experiencing strong emotions such as inspiration and pride and *absorption* is when an individual finds themselves fully involved in their work, so much so that time flies by and they do not want to leave. Utilizing these categories, researchers have modified the work engagement model as a way to examine volunteer engagement (Malinen & Harju, 2017).

From a volunteering standpoint, Vecina, Chacon, Marzana, and Marta (2013) found that engagement has more to do with one's psychological well-being and commitment to the organization, than to do with a volunteer's intention to come back. The psychological aspect of engagement is an important consideration for those working in the nonprofit sector who endeavor to increase engagement from their volunteers (Vecina et al., 2013). From a psychological standpoint, an increase in engagement can occur when an individual is able to convey their real self while volunteering (Shantz et al., 2014). Likewise, Kang (2016) said engagement can occur because of affective commitment, positive affectivity, and empowerment. *Affective commitment* involves an attachment to the program. When a volunteer begins to feel connected to a program, they also begin to engage more than those who do not feel as connected. *Positive affectivity* is a creation of feelings, like joy and excitement, that can produce increased energy in a volunteer, which in turn leads to more engagement out of a volunteer. *Empowerment* is seen when giving volunteers the chance to lead or run an activity to their liking, creating a higher sense of power in them, which also creates more engagement from that volunteer.

Being engaged is not just a psychological concept, as engagement can impact outcomes of both the volunteers and organization. Outcomes can include maximization of hours, enhancing employment opportunities, ability to network, and the chance to build working relationships with other organizations (Alfes et al., 2016). When examining job and organizational engagement, Malinen and Harju (2017) found that focusing on volunteer engagement was beneficial to creating satisfaction amongst volunteers. Specifically, Malinen and Harju discussed how organizational engagement can be

important because when a volunteer feels like an organization cares about them, the work of the volunteer will be more meaningful to that volunteer, which may lead to higher levels of volunteer engagement. Limiting constraints for volunteers, such as low funding for supplies and resources, can also help mitigate the potential issues of engagement among volunteers (Harp et al., 2017).

While volunteering has been studied in a variety of ways in the past, there are still some questions left to be examined, especially with engagement of mandatory volunteers. Factoring in different parts of the volunteer experience, such as the importance of volunteers, their impact, and reasons for volunteering may indicate that volunteering is important not only for programs and participants but to the volunteers themselves. However, with the inclusion of mandatory volunteering, which alters one's own motivation to volunteer, the question of whether one's self-perceived altruism can predict a mandatory volunteer's level of engagement emerges. No research could be found to answer this question, so this study is being conducted to provide data that may help organizations more fully understand this relationship.

3. METHODS

The purpose of this study was to determine if an individual's level of engagement in a program as a mandatory volunteer could be predicted through one's own self-perceived altruism. Although researchers have examined the effects mandatory volunteering can have on volunteers, a review of existing literature resulted in no findings that examined whether altruistic characteristics can be a factor in determining the engagement levels of mandatory volunteers. This study first determined the self-perceived altruistic behavior of the volunteer, and then measured their engagement immediately following volunteering to determine if these two variables were predictive of a mandatory volunteer's engagement. This study, methods, and consent form were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Texas State University

Participants.

For this study, a sample of convenience, "which is a sampling strategy where participants are selected in an ad hoc fashion based on their accessibility and /or proximity to the research" (Jager, Putnick, & Bornstein, 2017, p.15), was used. Volunteers were selected based on one key criterion; they were enrolled in the Recreation Leadership class during the fall 2018 semester at Texas State University. As such, these students were required to participate as volunteers in the after-school program at two local middle schools. Because of this requirement, these volunteers are classified as mandatory and thus fit the criteria for this study.

For this study, all undergraduate students enrolled in the Recreation Leadership class, forty-five (45) participants, completed the surveys administered during the semester. No participant's information had to be excluded from this study. The mean age

of the participants was 23.02 (SD= 6.58). Of the participants, there were 16 males (35.6%) and 29 females (64.4%). In terms of race/ethnicity, the sample consisted of 33 participants (73.3%) who reported as White, 9 (20%) as Hispanic, 1 (2.2%) as African-American, and 2 (4.4%) identified as Other. After initial data entry, race was recategorized into two categories; white and nonwhite. Thus, 33 participants (73.3%) reported as White, and 12 (26.7%) reported as Nonwhite. For school year classification, 14 (31.1%) were Sophomores, 26 (57.8%) were Juniors, and 5 (11.1%) were Seniors.

Measures

Self-Report Altruism Scale. To determine if altruistic behavior played a factor in the engagement levels of mandatory volunteers, the self-perceived altruism of each volunteer was categorized. To do this, the Self-Report Altruism (SRA) Scale was used to measure the degree of altruism of each individual. The SRA contains 20 statements in which volunteers rated the frequency of engagement in their altruistic behaviors, using a five-point Likert Scale response from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often). Once, more than once, and often were scored as two, three, and four respectively. Scores for each volunteer ranged between 20 and 100. A score of 20 indicated no altruistic behaviors while a score of 100 indicated extremely high altruistic behaviors. (Rushton, Chrisjoh, & Fekken, 1981). (See Appendix A).

The SRA has been shown to be a reliable and valid method for predicting altruistic behavior among participants. Calculating Cronbach's alpha with the SRA has proven it to be an effective scale to utilize for research (Barr & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2009; Limberg, Lambie, & Robinson, 2016). Reliability for the SRA, as measured by Cronbach's alpha was consistently over .70, the low acceptable score for reliability

(Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Including the original SRA by Rushton et al. (1981), validity has been shown in multiple previous studies examining SRA such as Hindi, Chinese, and Columbian versions (Khanna, Singh, & Rushton, 1993; Chou, 1996; Pardo & Cotrina, 2016).

For this study, the SRA was adjusted to better fit the sample being studied. Accommodating for regional differences, like snow being local to certain areas, and asking participants "if they could" or "if they could imagine" when it comes to the situations are considered appropriate adjustments as a way to measure SRA (Rushton et al., 1981). With the climate in Texas, "I have helped push a stranger's car out of the snow" was changed to "I would help a stranger whose car is broken down on the side of the road." Also, statement 17 was adjusted to read "I would voluntarily look after a neighbor's pets or children without being paid for it." No loss of reliability was revealed when items in the SRA were adjusted (Pardo & Cotrina, 2016).

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. To determine engagement levels of volunteers during their time in an after-school program, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was utilized. The UWES (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) measures engagement, vigor, dedication, and absorption, and consists of 17 statements such as, "I am enthusiastic about my job" and "I feel happy when I am working intensely." Respondents answer each statement on a Likert scale of 0 (Never) to 6 (Always). As with the SRA, the UWES has shown strong Cronbach's alpha scores, greater than .70, across various studies (Shimazu et al., 2008; Stander & Mostert, 2013; Jacobs, Renard, & Snelgar, 2014).

The UWES is a work engagement scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006) and as such was edited to fit volunteers. Substituting "work" with "volunteer work" is a suitable method to use with the UWES to determine volunteer engagement (Vecina et al., 2012). For this study, terms such as "volunteer work," "volunteering," and "volunteer program" were used instead of "work." The statements were also altered to be past tense and specific to this volunteer opportunity. For instance, "when I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work." was edited to read, "when I got up this morning, I felt like volunteering for this program."

Usually, a shortened version of the UWES, called the UWES-9, is used as it is deemed more valid (Nerstad, Richardsen, & Martinussen, 2010; Seppälä et al., 2009) compared to the UWES-17. However, the psychometric properties of UWES-17 are considered valid and acceptable (Lathabhavan, Balasubramanian, & Natarajan, 2017; Ahmed, Majid, & Zin, 2016; Tijdink, Vergouwen, & Smulders, 2014). For this study, the UWES-17 was used, as some of the omitted statements in the UWES-9 were seen as valuable for the purpose of this research. The UWES-17 can be found in the appendix. (See Appendix B).

Data Collection

Volunteer Participants. Before starting the study, two items were addressed. First, students had the option to take part in this study by completing a consent form. Second, when a student signed the form, they randomly selected a number based on the total number of students in the class, pulling a single number from a container without the researcher viewing the process. Once drawn, the instructor for that course (who was not associated with this research) recorded which number identified each student. Students

were instructed to write their number on the SRA and post volunteer engagement surveys when administered so that motivations and engagement levels could be properly paired. Students were informed that the instructor kept a record of which number belonged to each student, in the case that a student forgot their number.

Volunteer Participation. Volunteering was conducted in partnership with two after-school programs at two local middle schools. Each volunteer was assigned to one of eight groups by the instructor, in which four dates were assigned to each group to volunteer. Each participant volunteered at each school twice. The volunteering period happened on Tuesdays and Thursdays during an eight-week period from September to November of the 2018 school semester. Each volunteer period, including set-up and debriefing, lasted two and a half hours. Volunteers had access to tables at each volunteering location to complete the engagement surveys, which were completed in about ten minutes.

Self-Report Altruism Scale. The SRA was administered as a survey to volunteers involved with the after-school program, before the program's start date. The student volunteers were instructed to write their number on the form, as well as answer each statement as truthfully as possible to garner accurate results for each student volunteer. After completion of the SRA, students were instructed to place their surveys into a folder. The instructor on site then collected the folder with all completed forms. The researcher was not present to avoid seeing a student volunteer's number.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. The UWES survey was administered to the volunteers after each of the four volunteer activities in which they participated. Collecting the UWES-17 immediately after each volunteer experience was done to gather

the volunteer's reaction to the activity as soon as the event happened, instead of having to recall the event at a later date. This ensured immediate recollection and feelings leading up to and during the event. It also indicated whether a volunteer experienced some type of positive or negative experience, particular to the activity of the day, that would have affected their engagement scale if only handed out once. After each of the four separate volunteer experiences, volunteers were instructed to write their assigned number on the survey and complete the survey using their thoughts on how they felt they did as a volunteer during that specific timeframe. As with the SRA survey, the researcher had a folder that the student volunteers were instructed to put their UWES survey in once completed while the researcher stepped aside in order to avoid seeing the student volunteers' numbers.

Data Analysis

To address the purpose of this study, preliminary action was conducted for each survey. First, once all SRA forms were collected, each statement was scored from 1-5 (Pardo & Cotrina, 2016), with one point being assessed to the Never responses and five points being assessed to the Very Often responses. Items were summed to give an individual one score for the SRA (Rushton et al., 1981). Once scored, the SRA scores for the participants were examined. First, each participant was placed into one of three groups, depending on where their score fell from 45-88. Three groups were used to have a fairly even number of participants in each group. Those that scored between 88-80 were placed into the high SRA group, those between 79-70 were placed in the medium SRA group, and those that were at or below 69 were placed into the low SRA group. From

this, the means and standard deviations were examined as a whole, as well as from the high, medium, and low SRA score groups.

Second, after all UWES surveys were collected, each volunteer's engagement scores from each of their volunteering periods were averaged to generate one score per answer on the engagement scale. From there, they were scored on two levels. The first was a multi-factor level that was scored based on answers to questions of vigor (questions 1, 4, 8, 12, 15, and 17), dedication (questions 2, 5, 7, 10, and 13), and absorption (questions 3, 6, 9, 11, 14, and 16) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The second model scored the engagement scale as one variable. From each model, the mean and standard deviation were examined.

Once these preliminary results were analyzed, data were examined further. First, a correlation coefficient was determined among the altruistic and engagement variables. Then, a MANOVA was utilized to examine differences an individual's self-reported altruism had on their three engagement subscales of vigor, dedication, and absorption. Finally, two ANOVAs were conducted to examine how race and sex differed on (a) self-perceived altruism scores and (b) engagement scores.

4. RESULTS

Internal Consistency Reliability

Item analyses were conducted for the altruism and engagement scales to

determine internal consistency reliability. Item 12 on the altruism scale (I would give a

stranger a lift in my car) had a low inter-item correlation and was removed from further

analysis. After removal of item 12, the SRA showed good internal consistency reliability

using Cronbach's alpha (α = .90). A Cronbach's analysis was also conducted on the

engagement scale. Items 8 (When I got up this morning, I felt like volunteering for this

activity) and 13 (To me, this volunteer activity was challenging) had negative and low

inter-item correlations and were removed. After this, Cronbach's alpha was .95, which

indicated that the scale had a good internal consistency. All three subscales of

engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) showed strong internal consistency reliability,

after removal of items 8 and 13 (vigor α = .84, dedication α = .90, and absorption α =

.91) as well.

Descriptive Statistics

For the altruism scale, participants reported scores between the "More Than

Once" and "Often" choices on average (between 3 and 4 on a 5-point scale), although all

responses from each item ranged from 1 to 5. Mean scores showed that participants were

likely to hold the doors open in elevators for strangers (M = 4.71) and helping someone

move (M = 4.40), while avoiding instances like helping a stranger with a broken down

car (M = 2.78) or letting a neighbor borrow valuables (M = 2.91). When examining the

total altruism scores (sum of all items), the average altruism score was 71.49 (SD =

11.49) and when examining the altruism scores when separated into the 3 levels (low,

medium, and high), the mean of those in the low altruism level (n=18) was 59.83 ($SD =$ 7.75), 74.17 ($SD = 2.66$) for the medium group (n=12), and 83.33 ($SD = 2.35$) for the high group (n=15).

For the engagement scale, the average of participants' scores was between the "Sometimes" and "Often" options (between 3 and 4 of a 0-6 grade scale). The whole group average engagement score was 3.75 ($SD = .74$). When examined as the three subscales, the average vigor score was 3.99 ($SD = .72$), 3.88 ($SD = .89$) for dedication, and 3.46 ($SD = .79$) for absorption.

Correlations

Correlations were run among the studied variables. The correlation between altruism and engagement was weak and nonsignificant. Altruism also showed weak, nonsignificant correlations with the three engagement subscales. However, high, significant correlations were present among vigor, dedication, and absorption. (see Table 1).

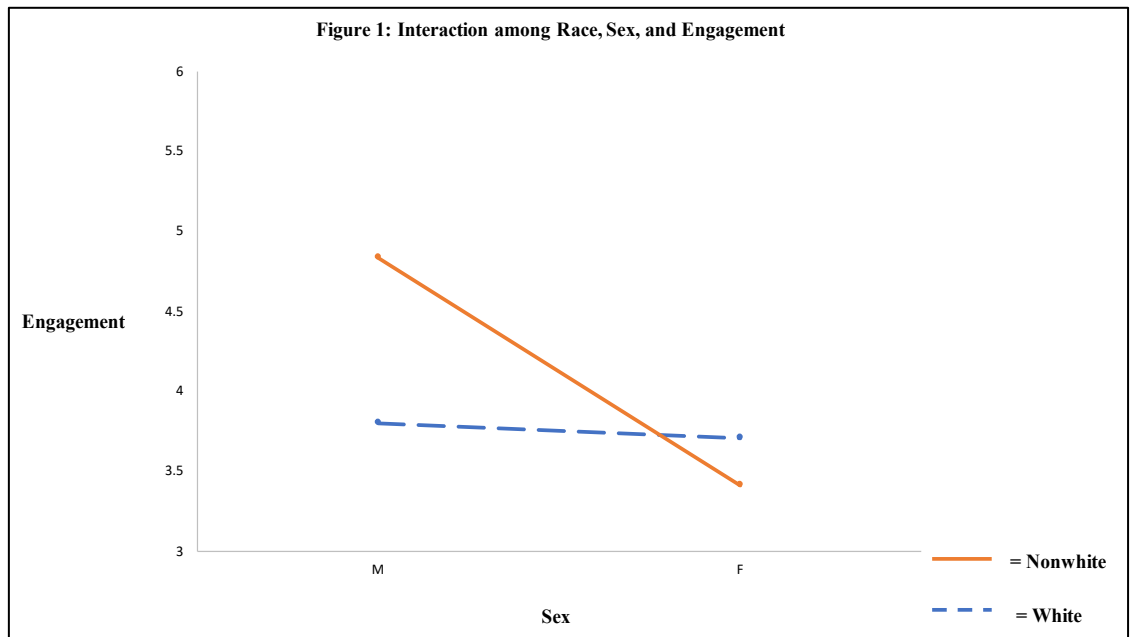| TABLE I					
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Altruism and Engagement					
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Altruism	.90				
2. Vigor	-.04	.84			
3. Dedication	.10	.75*	.90		
4. Absorption	.15	.76*	.83*	.91	
5. Engagement	.08	--	--	--	.95
M	71.51	3.99	3.88	3.46	3.75
SD	11.57	.72	.90	.80	.74
Range	19-95	0-6	0-6	0-6	0-6
Note: Alpha coefficients are presented along the diagonal.					
* denotes significant correlations (p<.05)					

MANOVA

A one-way MANOVA was calculated examining the effect of a participant's self-perceived altruism score (low, medium, or high) on the engagement subscales (vigor, dedication, and absorption). No significant multivariate effect was found, Wilks' Lambda = .90 [$F(6, 80)$ = .73, p = .63, η^2= .05]. Examination of univariate F-values revealed no significant effects for vigor [$F(2, 42)$ = .19, p = .83, η^2= .01], dedication [$F(2, 42)$ = .63, p = .54, η^2= .03], or absorption [$F(2, 42)$ = .68, p = .52, η^2= .03]. Therefore, one's level of altruism did not make a difference in any aspect of their engagement. SRA group explained a small amount of variance in the engagement subscales (η^2= .05).

ANOVAs

A 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted to determine race (white and non-white) and sex (male and female) differences on altruism score among participants. The overall model was not significant [$F(3, 41)$ = .49, p = .69, η^2= .04]. Thus, neither sex nor race has a significant effect on one's altruism score. Race and sex explained a small amount of variance in altruism scores (η^2= .04).

A 2 x 2 ANOVA was also conducted to determine race (white and non-white) and sex (male and female) differences on engagement score among participants. The overall model was significant [$F(3, 41)$ = 3.33, p = .03, η^2= .20]. A significant main effect for sex was found [$F(1,41)$ = 8.67, p = .005, η^2= .17]. Males had higher engagement scores (M = 3.99, SD = .63) than females (M=3.61, SD = .77). The main effect for race was not significant [$F(1, 41)$ = 2.04, p = .16, η^2= .05]. The interaction between race and sex was significant [$F(1, 41)$ = 6.68, p = .013, η^2= .14]. Thus, the effect of race on engagement scores depends on sex. Figure 1 shows that nonwhite males have higher engagement

scores compared to white males. However, white and nonwhite females were similar on engagement. Race and sex explained a large amount of variance in engagement score ($n2=.20$).

Figure 1: Interaction among Race, Sex, and Engagement

Engagement (y-axis, values 3 to 6) plotted against Sex (x-axis, M and F). Legend: solid orange line = Nonwhite; blue dashed line = White.

5. DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if an individual's level of engagement in a program as a mandatory volunteer could be predicted through their own self-perceived altruism. Through the use of correlation analysis and multivariate testing, it was determined that self-perceived altruism did not have a role in predicting an individual's engagement as a mandatory volunteer. However, when conducting a univariate analysis among demographics with altruism and engagement it was found that one's sex was significant in determining their engagement.

While the initial research sought to determine if there was a connection between self-perceived altruism and engagement in mandatory volunteers, the results indicated that other areas may contain additional data that could indicate differences in the self-perceived altruism or engagement of mandatory volunteers. In regards to an individual's self-perceived altruism, no differences were discovered between an individual's score and their sex or race. This is consistent with past studies that found no difference in altruistic behavior among varying groups of volunteers (Cochran et al., 2009). The current study indicated that there could be a link between sex and race with engagement. In regards to sex and engagement, men in this current study, specifically non-white males, had higher levels of engagement than women. Men having a higher engagement score than women corresponds to previous research that showed similar findings (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). While Shaufeli and Bakker caution the practical significance of their findings, the current study showed statistical and practical significance, especially in regards to sex and race together, due to its large effect size. However, the current

findings for this study should be taken with caution, as more research is needed to confirm these findings.

Prior to this study, research on the role of self-perceived altruism as it relates to the engagement of mandatory volunteers could not be found. Based on prior anecdotal information, it was expected that the level of engagement by a mandatory volunteer could be predicted by the level of self-perceived altruism. However, results from the current study suggest the level of self-perceived altruism did not play a role in a mandatory volunteer's engagement. Various points can be examined further in relation to what the results mean regarding the engagement of mandatory volunteers. First, findings from the current study were consistent with previous studies that examined patterns of engagement among volitional volunteers (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009; Romaioli et al., 2016), which may explain the similar engagement levels among mandatory volunteers regardless of their self-perceived altruism. For instance, the engagement of the mandatory volunteers may be attributed to the academic program in which they were enrolled. Studies have indicated this possibility, finding that positive impacts may be obtained through the knowledge that is gained, learned, or applied during the mandatory volunteer experience (Eyler, 2009; Sass & Coll, 2015). In the current study, volunteering was done as part of the required curriculum to pass the course, thus the participants may have been more engaged, it is possible that participants saw this as a chance to gain experience that was relevant to future endeavors.

Originally, one of the assumptions in creating this study was that because individuals lacked freedom as mandatory volunteers, those that perceived themselves to be more altruistic would naturally be more willing to be engaged during a mandatory

35

volunteer period. Compared to volitional volunteers who have freedom in their volunteering decisions (McAllum, 2014), even if those decisions negatively impact organizations (Jacobs, 2017), a mandatory volunteer's actions come from some forced coercion (Stebbins, 2009). This forced coercion has been known to create possible negative attitudes during a mandatory volunteer period (Stukas et al., 1999). However, the current study's findings may have differed from the original assumptions due to the instructors present. Their willingness to let participants plan and implement their own ideas during the program may have impacted the results on engagement levels by decreasing the resentment and frustrations that can arise when being forced into a role (Warburton & Smith, 2003). This is consistent with previous research that found when an organization shows it cares, the engagement of the volunteer may increase because they see their work as having greater value (Malinen & Harju, 2017).

The consistency of engagement scores across SRA groups in the current study may also add a layer to past studies where researchers found that an individual will be more engaged when they are committed to volunteering for the organization (Vecina et al., 2013). In the case of the current study, because the participants lacked any type of special connection to the organization beforehand, each participant's commitment may have started from the same place of wanting to pass the course. Further, with research indicating that a volitional volunteer's level of commitment over time could not be determined by their initial selflessness (Veludo-De-Oliveira et al., 2015), it could be argued that the results indicate this holds true when applied to self-perceived altruism levels of mandatory volunteers as well.

Recent studies have also indicated that certain elements of the volunteer process may predicti an individual's level of engagement. These studies found that not only could engagement happen because of varying psychological aspects (Kang, 2016), but also when an individual felt like they were able to give their full self to the opportunity (Shantz et al., 2014). In the current study, the various dynamics that were present leading up to and after each volunteer period could have impacted engagement. For instance, forming a connection with the youth in the program, buying equipment, or spending extra time preparing may all be seen as factors that could have increased engagement while a part of the program. Likewise, commitments such as other classes or jobs may have prevented others from doing the same.

These dynamics bring back the topic of altruistic and egoistic motivations. The examination that one's altruistic or egotistic motivations could not be present was assumed because they were being forced to volunteer. However, because periods of non-volunteering were present, the findings may suggest that motivations may have existed during the semester in which participants were examined, regardless of their perceived altruism. If, as indicated in other studies, volitional volunteers may switch motivations during a volunteer period (Manatschal & Freitag, 2014), then switching motivations may also hold true for mandatory volunteers, particularly when they have gaps in time between volunteering. Perhaps, then, the periods between a participant's volunteering dates had some influence on their engagement that the SRA could not account for. Instances were noted of individuals purchasing their own equipment, as previously noted above, which could be seen as altruistic motivations in the volunteer's engagement (Shye, 2010). This is different from studies that found low funding could create potential issues

in engagement (Harp et al., 2017), as participants of the current study did not see an observable drop in their level of engagement due to this. Likewise, extra preparation for a volunteer activity may have been done on one's own time in advance of each activity. This extra preparation, which was not measured in this current study, could be seen as highly altruistic behavior since doing so would be for the benefit of the kids in the program and done with no desire for outside reward (Phillips & Phillips, 2011).

At first glance, one may then assume that those who incorporated their own altruistic motivations into the mandatory volunteer period would have greater engagement. Studies have indicated such, finding that those who volunteer for their own altruistic reasons had a greater chance to be engaged (Shantz et al., 2014). However, an argument can be made that receiving a course grade for volunteering may be a reason why this assumption would not be true. Because participants were forced to volunteer due to course requirements, participants may have cared about receiving a particular final grade. This desire for a certain grade could be seen as an egotistic reward (Piferi et al., 2006) which, as Haski-Leventhal (2009) indicated, could become a participant's primary motivation due to the focus exerted into gaining that personal reward. In this case, individuals in the current study that scored low on the self-perceived altruism scale may have been equally engaged when compared to those that scored high on the same scale because they saw this as a chance to (a) get as high of a grade as possible or (b) perform well enough where some type of reward, such as a future recommendation for a job, would be given. In short, the sample and method used in the current study may not have accurately represented the population of mandatory volunteers.

The findings to the current study create an interesting dynamic for organizations to consider when it comes to participants that are mandatory volunteers due to course assignments. While conventional thinking may dictate that volitional volunteers would be more engaged than mandatory volunteers, the current study found no difference in engagement among these mandatory volunteers. Thus, two points can be made: the type of mandatory volunteer used in this current study could make equally good volunteers when compared to volitional volunteers and organizations could focus their attention on recruiting this specific type of mandatory volunteer with no loss in volunteer effectiveness. Because of these points, organizations may consider utilizing these types of mandatory volunteers because they would be able to fill up their volunteer slots faster, spending less time at various places recruiting volunteers. Organizations could do this by contacting universities that offer recreation studies that implement some type of service learning as part of their curriculum. By doing so, organizations may also be able to address their volunteer needs, while providing learning opportunities for students. For instance, camps constantly utilize young adults during their summer programs. The impact on utilizing these mandatory volunteers can be seen on two points. First, camps could utilize the skills of some of the mandatory volunteers to create new programs or events, which can happen when utilizing volunteers (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). Second, organizations may use mandatory volunteers knowing that the impact on the youth they serve will not decrease, with past studies indicating the potential for volunteers to create beneficial development among the youth they interact with (Caldarella et al., 2010).

Future Research

There are a few implications that can be taken from this current study. First, because volunteering was not weekly, research could also examine if creating designated weekly planning time between volunteering dates would impact the engagement levels of high, medium, and low scoring altruistic individuals across the semester. Findings could indicate that there may be a level of involvement to a program beyond simply volunteering that may indicate how engaged a mandatory volunteer may be when compared to their own self-perceived altruism.

If one's self-perceived altruism has no impact on their engagement during a mandatory volunteer period, future research could explore mandatory volunteering in different manners. First, research could examine mandatory and volitional volunteers to see if there is any difference in engagement between the two different groups. Researchers could then examine the potential impact mandatory volunteers could have if they were consistently used in place of volitional volunteers. If mandatory volunteers leave the same impact, organizations may consider using them as an alternative or as last-minute addition to fill required volunteer roles that might otherwise be hard to fill.

However, if mandatory volunteers leave the same impact, another area for future research could focus on how different types of mandatory volunteer groups compare. As previously mentioned, the participants for the current study were all members of the Texas State undergraduate program in Recreation Administration. Future studies could compare mandatory volunteers like these with mandatory volunteers that are trying to earn community service hours as part of a court ruling, for instance. Results from these

studies could help organizations in determining if they should focus on one section of

mandatory volunteers, or if they

could also consider partnering with local law enforcement to help cover their

volunteering needs.

Another area to further explore is the relationship between sex, race, and

engagement. Conducting a study that focuses solely on this aspect of volunteering could

be beneficial to organizations that utilize volunteers. While past research has indicated

that there is no practical value in the differences in sex with engagement (Schaufeli &

Bakker, 2003), the addition of the mandatory volunteer component could alter this

outlook. With a more balanced sample, future research may indicate that there may be a

certain group that would be more engaged as mandatory volunteers. Organizations may

then focus on these types of mandatory volunteers for programs where high engagement

is a crucial component to its success.

Limitations

The findings above should be considered with the understanding that the sample

for the current study was fairly small and homogenous. In the study, participants were

part of an undergraduate program pertaining to recreation education. While the whole

class participated, future research should include a larger sample to see if the numbers

hold when expanded. Also, while these individuals were mandatory volunteers, they were

also all college students and members of the same recreation administration

undergraduate program. In this major, most individuals find themselves in careers that

rely on providing customer service for individuals that include, but is not limited to,

leisure activities and camps. As such, their willingness to engage could be higher than

those forced to volunteer under other circumstances. Future research should focus on varying groups of mandatory volunteers that are not just college students.

Next, there were many outside factors that might have contributed to how a participant filled out their altruism and engagement surveys. For instance, although students were told to read and answer the questions to both surveys based on how they felt in regards to each question, how happy, sad, tired, or awake they were that day could have impacted their responses. So even if an individual graded themselves as highly altruistic and was ready to be engaged in the activity, some outside force could have affected their mood one way or the other. Likewise, the SRA was only conducted once. Doing so multiple times may have created a more thorough SRA score for each individual.

Finally, the activities in which students volunteered as leaders were not the same for each volunteer. While this was combated by averaging their four engagement surveys, this still may not have been enough. Because the schedule of activities was finalized before volunteers were assigned, an individual may have been responsible for activities they were not as comfortable with, which could have impacted their engagement. On top of this, the semester in which these surveys were conducted saw an unusually high amount of rain. This could have thrown off an individual's engagement because of the impromptu changes to the activities they had originally planned for.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to study a certain group of volunteers to see if their engagement could be predicted based on their self-perceived altruism. The results showed that engagement of mandatory volunteers in service learning could not be determined by

their level of self-perceived altruism. While this indicates that mandatory volunteers may

be an important part of an organization's output, more research is needed to fully

characterize the relationship between volunteer engagement and self-perceived altruism

of mandatory volunteers. Specifically, more research is needed to see if mandatory

volunteers show the same level of engagement when compared to mandatory volunteers

through service learning. Finally, mandatory volunteers may continue to be utilized by

many organizations in need of volunteers. Thus, by continuing to examine the

relationship between any mandatory volunteer's self-perceived altruism and their

engagement, it may become more clear what type of mandatory volunteer organizations

could pursue to fill potential volunteering voids.

Appendix A

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Situational Survey

	#

Everyone reacts to situations differently. Below are 20 different situational statements. Please read each thoroughly and place a X in the box that BEST describes your reaction to each.

Situation	Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often
1. I would help a stranger whose car is broken down on the side of the road.					
2. I would give directions to a stranger.					
3. I would make change for someone that asked.					
4. I would give money to a charity.					
5. I would give money to a stranger who needed it (or asked me for it).					
6. I would donate goods or clothes to a charity.					
7. I would do volunteer work for charity.					
8. I would donate blood.					
9. I would help carry a stranger's belongings (books, parcels, etc.).					
10. I would hold the door of an elevator open for a stranger.					
11. I would allow someone to go ahead of me in line (in a bank, in the supermarket).					
12. I would give a stranger a lift in my car.					
13. I would point out a clerk's error (in a bank, at the supermarket, in a restaurant) in undercharging me for an item.					

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Situation	Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often
14. I would let a neighbor whom I didn't know too well borrow an item of some value to me (a dish, tools, etc.).					
15. I would buy some form of goods (gifts, food) for 'charity' during the holidays deliberately because I knew it was a good cause.					
16. I would help a classmate who I did not know that well with a homework assignment when my knowledge was greater than his or hers.					
17. I would voluntarily look after a neighbor's pets or children without being paid for it.					
18. I would offer to help a person with a disability or elderly stranger across a street.					
19. I would offer my seat on a bus or train to a stranger who was standing.					
20. I would help someone I know to move households.					

1. What is your sex?   Male   Female   Other:_____

2. What is your birthdate? (mm/dd/yyyy): _____

3. How do you describe your race/ethnicity? (circle any that apply)

     African-American   White   Native American

     Asian   Hispanic   Other:_____

4. Circle your school year classification:

   Freshman   Sophomore   Junior   Senior

2

Appendix B

Volunteer Engagement Survey

Below are 17 statements about your time volunteering for this after school program. For each statement, place a X in the box that best represents your volunteer experience for this specific activity you helped with today.

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1. During this volunteer activity, I was bursting with energy.							
2. I found the volunteer work I did to be full of meaning and purpose.							
3. Time flew by when I was volunteering.							
4. For this volunteer activity I felt strong and active.							
5. I was eager about my volunteer work during this activity.							
6. When I was volunteering, I forgot about everything else around me.							
7. The volunteer work today inspired me.							
8. When I got up this morning, I felt like volunteering for this activity.							
9. I felt happy when I was able to volunteer fully.							
10. I am proud of the volunteer work that I did today.							

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	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
11. I was immersed in my volunteer work today.							
12. I was able to volunteer without wanting to take a break.							
13. To me, this volunteer activity was challenging.							
14. I got carried away when I was volunteering.							
15. During the volunteer activity, I was strong, mentally.							
16. It will be difficult to remove myself from this volunteer activity now that it is over.							
17. During the volunteer activity, I was able to go on, even when things did not go well.							

1. What is your sex?   Male   Female   Other (specify):_____

2. What is your birthdate? (mm/dd/yyyy): _____

3. How do you describe your race/ethnicity? (circle any that apply)

     African-American   White   Native American

     Asian   Hispanic   Other:_____

4. Circle your school year classification:

     Freshman   Sophomore   Junior   Senior

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