

Exploring the Motivations and Constraints on Volunteerism from a Preparatory Behavior
Perspective Across Two Natural Resource Management Organizations

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School of Environmental and Forest Sciences

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Abstract

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Many government natural resource management agencies depend on volunteers and, as a result, put a great deal of time and effort into recruiting and retaining them. Of the studies that have examined volunteers' motivations and constraints, the focus has been on understanding what motivates and constrains volunteerism from an end-state behavior perspective, which is the final, or end, behavior that produces desired outcomes in the field. In the context of this research, the desired end-state behavior is the act of doing the volunteering for projects that protect natural resources and the environment. Researchers have not yet explored the concept and operation of preparatory behaviors that may facilitate desired end-state behaviors, and how motivations and constraints for such behaviors may be influencing behavioral outcomes. Preparatory behavior is behavior that precedes and facilitates engagement in a desired or target end-state behavior.

I applied a qualitative methodology that included focus group interviews and an open-ended conversational format. This allowed interviewees to self-identify their preparatory

behaviors, and what motivates and constrains them, in their own words and from their unique perspectives rather than respond to a set of pre-defined, closed-ended questions based on a priori researcher presumptions and literature about the phenomenon that may be incorrect or incomplete (e.g. Visser et al., 2000). A series of eleven focus group interviews were conducted involving 72 interviewees. The sample of interviewees was purposefully selected to include a wide range of volunteering experience from none to many years of participation and was also selected to include two different Washington State natural resource management volunteer programs: Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW), and Washington State Department of Natural Resources (DNR).

The range of preparatory behaviors identified from this research includes cognitions, physical actions, and social interactions. Preparatory cognitions involve decision making, knowledge gaining, and planning; physical activities include gathering and organizing equipment and supplies, and getting physically prepared (e.g., getting enough sleep); and social interactions to gain psychological and material support towards their volunteerism. The full range of preparations appeared to be similar across both DNR and DFW focus groups.

A range of motivations for engaging in preparations were identified. These include motivations unique and separate from those that motivate volunteerism more generally. For example, having the desire for a positive emotional experience when doing preparations, being able to live up to one's personal obligation outside of volunteering, and the need to take care of one's comfort and well-being by getting enough rest and nutrition. These are all sources of motivations for doing preparations that may also facilitate successful engagement in end-state behavior. Overall, with a few exceptions, the range of motivations for preparations and end-state

volunteerism were similar between DNR and DFW, including those differences identified between end-state and preparations. Accordingly, when it comes to designing strategies to recruit and retain volunteers, in similar contexts, it may be important to know what motivates these preparatory behaviors that facilitate volunteerism.

Besides motivations, a range of behavioral constraints on people's preparations were also identified, including personal resource costs, negative feelings and emotions, and normative conflicts and expectations for the self and others. Protecting the self was a theme elaborated on by interviewees. Perceptions of personal discomfort in the form of disruptions in daily routines, physical discomfort, threats to safety and well-being, and perceived threats to self-esteem were themes that emerged. As with motivations, the range of constraints for preparations and end-state volunteerism were similar between DNR and DFW, including those differences identified between end-state and preparations with a few nuanced exceptions.

Evidence from this research suggests that it is important and useful for volunteer organizations trying to recruit and retain volunteers to understand what people do as part of their preparations, and what might serve as constraints and motivations for engaging in them. With this deeper insight, beyond an end-state behavior perspective, natural resource volunteer programs may be able to improve the effectiveness or impact of their volunteer recruitment and retention strategies, including strategies that are developed within a social marketing framework.

By introducing preparatory behaviors and their related motivations and constraints into the social marketing model, it may be possible to increase the effectiveness of behavior change strategies, for example, to better recruit and retain volunteers. Accordingly, I present a novel approach to the community-based social marketing model (CBSM) (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011) by

extending the model to include motivations and constraints for preparatory behavior. I use the set of behavior change principles prescribed in the CBSM model along with other relevant principles of influence (e.g. Cialdini, 2007) and match them with the various forms of motivations and constraints that emerged from the focus group interviews. I then discuss the implications and make recommendations for designing social marketing strategies that could increase the effectiveness of efforts to recruit and retain volunteers willing to perform strenuous physical labor, and, as a result, may improve the efficiency of natural resource volunteer programs in terms of real world on-the-ground outcomes.

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DEDICATION

To Neta, my beautiful, wonderful, and brilliant wife, best friend, and honorary Supervisory Committee member. Thank you for always being there for me!

Exploring the Motivations and Constraints on Volunteerism from a Preparatory Behavior Perspective Across Two Natural Resource Management Organizations

Many government natural resource management agencies, whether national, state, or local, perpetually depend on volunteers, and, as a result, invest a great deal of time and effort into recruiting and retaining them (Propst et al., 2003). For example, in Washington State, the Department of Natural Resources benefited from more than 65,000 volunteer hours in 2019 (DNR, 2021b), and the Department of Fish and Wildlife depends extensively on the efforts of volunteers to help protect and enhance fish and wildlife populations (DFW, 2021a). The range of volunteer activities advertised by these organizations include working in the outdoors doing physical labor such as planting trees, maintaining recreation trails, clearing brush, repairing fences, cleaning up garbage along shorelines, and serving as citizen scientists. This is also the range of activities that served as the behavioral context for this research. With this need for volunteers, it is important for volunteer-dependent programs to understand how to successfully recruit and retain people who are willing to volunteer their time and effort.

Of those studies in the literature that have examined volunteers' motivations and constraints, the focus has been on understanding what motivates and constrains peoples' volunteerism from an end-state behavior perspective. To date, researchers have not explored specifically how motivations and constraints on preparatory behaviors in particular may be influencing participation in end-state volunteerism.

While understanding that the motivations and constraints on end-state pro-environmental behavior, such as volunteerism, are important from a behavior change perspective (e.g. McKenzie-Mohr, 2011), people also engage in actions that precede, facilitate, or inhibit their engagement in a targeted end-state behavior. For example, performing recycling of household

waste in the form of composting requires one or more preceding or preparatory behaviors in order to facilitate successful engagement in a desired end-state behavior (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). Such behaviors could include making an initial decision to do composting that may involve an appraisal of the perceived personal benefits and barriers one associates with composting. Other preparatory behaviors may include learning about what types of waste can be composted, developing a container system to hold the waste while it is in the house, gaining support for doing composting from others in the household, getting into a routine of taking the material out to the compost unit, putting on suitable clothing or footwear to stay comfortable while outdoors, or planning a schedule to work around other household and family responsibilities. All of these preparatory behaviors may have a range of motivations and constraints associated with them that can have an impact on how successful a person may ultimately be at composting. Focusing only on motivations and constraints from an end-state perspective leaves open the question of how motivations and constraints on preparatory actions can serve to facilitate and/or inhibit engagement in a desired end-state behavior.

Efforts to promote engagement in pro-environmental behaviors across many domains have had mixed success and some notably large scale failures (McKenzie-Mohr & Smith, 1999). In the domain of natural resource management, many organizations are persistently challenged to fill a growing need for volunteer labor (Propst et al., 2003). One problem these organizations face is not simply how to increase the number of volunteers, but also how to maintain continued participation in a given volunteer program (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007).

Knowing what motivates volunteerism is only part of the picture. Although researchers have identified a range of motivations for volunteerism, only limited research has been done to

understand the effects of barriers or constraints on volunteerism (Gage III, 2012). Knowing why people won't and can't volunteer are important questions that researchers and volunteer recruiters should be trying to answer since behavioral constraints can prevent even the most highly motivated person from volunteering (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Musick & Wilson, 2008). Additionally, researchers have not explored the motivations and constraints associated with preparatory behaviors, nor how these motivations and constraints can impact engagement in end-state volunteerism.

The evidence from my research suggest that it is important and useful for volunteer organizations trying to recruit and retain volunteers to understand what would-be volunteers do to prepare, and what serves as constraints and motivations on those preparations. With this knowledge, natural resource management organizations may be able to improve the effectiveness or impact of their volunteer recruitment and retention strategies. Strategies designed to promote pro-environmental behavior have, to date, not taken into account the role of preparatory behaviors, nor looked at how engagement, or lack of engagement, in them can impact people's participation in the target or desired end-state pro-environmental behavior. By introducing preparatory behaviors and their related motivations and constraints into, for example, a social marketing model, for example Community-Based Social Marketing (e.g., McKenzie-Mohr, 2011), it may be possible to increase the effectiveness of these strategies, such as those designed to recruit and retain volunteers.

The overarching purpose of this research is to add to the knowledge of how to influence and promote pro-environmental behavior, in the form of volunteerism, by understanding what motivates and constrains preparatory behaviors that facilitate or inhibit volunteerism. Within this

research context I explore two volunteer organizational cases, or segments: Washington State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) and Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW). For both organizations, I focused on understanding how perceived motivations and constraints for engaging in both volunteering and related preparatory behaviors may be influencing participation (or lack of participation). My use of the term “influence” refers to factors that can facilitate or inhibit behaviors that are perceived by interviewees as being relevant to their engagement in volunteerism that is being promoted by a natural resource management organization through a volunteer recruitment and retention strategy.

For this research, I applied a qualitative methodology that included focus group interviews and an open-ended conversational format to allow for themes to emerge that are grounded in the subjective experiences of the interviewees. I chose this approach given the gap in knowledge in the literature about the role of motivations and constraints for preparatory behavior have on people’s engagement in pro-environmental behavior. This gap in knowledge provides an opportunity to make a novel contribution to our understanding of this phenomenon in the context of volunteerism and how such knowledge can be applied to behavior change efforts focused on recruiting and retaining volunteers.

The research goals, questions, and analysis are framed within the theory of motivational functionalism (Katz, 1960). Motivational functionalism posits that a person’s evaluation or attitude toward an object, such as engaging in volunteerism, is influenced by the underlying psychological needs that are being served by holding such an attitude. For example, a negative attitude toward volunteering to do environmental restoration work may be due to a belief or perception that the volunteer organization does not treat volunteer(s) in a respectful manner.

[A] functional analysis is concerned with the reasons and purposes, the needs and goals, the plans and motives that underlie the generate psychological phenomena; that is, such an analysis is concerned with the psychological functions being served by people's beliefs and their actions (Snyder, 1993, p. 253).

I have adopted the definition of preparatory behaviors used by Abraham et al. (1998); they define these as prior personal actions undertaken which may facilitate an individual's performance of the desired end-state behavior. Hence, preparatory behaviors involve a range of activities that people engage in to reach a desired level of preparedness to volunteer (where the act of volunteering is the desired, or target, end-state behavior). These activities may include a range of cognitive processes such as gaining knowledge (information gathering), establishing expectations, planning, problem solving, and decision making, etc. Preparatory behaviors require some degree of motivation that compels them to engage and to overcome barriers that may be inhibiting these behaviors. Knowing what motivates and constrains these preparatory behaviors may be useful for behavior change practitioners charged with recruiting and retaining volunteers.

Descriptions of the Subject Natural Resource Management Organizations and Their Purposes for Recruiting and Retaining Volunteers

The Washington State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) is both a regulatory agency for commercial timber harvesting (on private and state public lands), and also manages 5.6 million acres of natural resource lands that range from forest lands, range and agricultural lands, to aquatic lands (DNR, 2021a). DNR manages these lands for multiple purposes that include generating revenue for public trust beneficiaries, preserving and protecting forests, water

and wildlife habitat, as well as for public recreation. DNR depends on the support from volunteer labor to help with restoring and protecting habitat on designated natural areas and to help with maintaining recreation facilities, such as trails and campgrounds (DNR, 2021d). In 2019, volunteers contributed more than 65,000 hours toward maintaining recreation areas and helping to protect the natural environment (DNR, 2021c). The range of volunteer activities described in the discussions with DNR focus groups involved some form of physical labor, such as using hand and power tools, lifting heavy objects, and working in all sorts of seasonal weather environments.

The Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW) manages more than 1 million acres of public lands and over 500 public water access areas across Washington State (DFW, 2021c). DFW is also a regulatory agency charged with enforcing laws related to hunting and fishing, and protection of fish and wildlife habitats (DFW, 2021b). DFW manages these lands by restoring habitats and protecting wildlands, as well as by managing public lands and water for both humans and wildlife populations. DFW provides what it describes as “wildlife-related recreation” such as hunting and fishing (DFW, 2021c). DFW depends on the support of volunteers for a wide range of projects (DFW, 2021a). Of these projects, DFW focus group participants mentioned helping with wildlife habitat restoration, game management (e.g., maintaining fencing to deter elk from crossing state highways), and citizen science. The range of tasks described by DFW focus groups involved some form of physical activity, such as brush removal, fence installation and repair, planting of natural vegetation, and placing and monitoring submerged sampling traps in aquatic environments. As with DNR volunteers, these activities often require working in the full range of seasonal weather conditions.

Organization of the Following Chapters

In Chapter One, I present the research design for this study. In Chapter Two, I present the findings on the types of preparations that emerged from the interviews. In Chapter Three, I present the findings on the range of motivations expressed by interviewees for preparatory and end-state volunteerism. In Chapter Four, I present the range of constraints interviewees describe regarding their preparations and volunteerism. These findings reflect my interpretation of the interview data in terms of how motivations and constraints may be impacting interviewees' participation in end-state volunteerism. In Chapter Five, I use a behavior change model known as Community-Based Social Marketing (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000) to show how the model's concepts and behavior change principles can be extended to include preparatory behaviors into the design of a social marketing strategy to recruit and retain volunteers. Chapter Six contains a concluding discussion.

Chapter 1: Research Design

Purpose and Goals

The purpose of this research is to contribute to the knowledge of how to influence and promote pro-environmental behavior in the form of volunteerism by understanding what motivates and constrains preparatory behaviors that facilitate volunteerism. The research goals are to: (a) understand the motivations and constraints that people associate with doing end-state volunteerism and related preparatory behaviors, and (b) how this knowledge can be applied to behavior change models and strategies to enhance their effectiveness at recruiting and sustaining engagement in end-state behaviors such as volunteerism and other pro-environmental behaviors.

Research Objectives

1. Identify the types of motivations and constraints for engaging in end-state volunteerism.
2. Identify the types of preparations and associated motivations and constraints that facilitate and inhibit participating in volunteerism.
3. Based on research findings, suggest ways to improve the impacts of behavior change social marketing strategies aimed at recruiting and retaining volunteers by addressing motivations and constraints for both end-state volunteerism and preparatory behavior that are relevant for target populations.

Research Question for Preparatory Behaviors (Chapter Two)

1. What are the types of preparatory behaviors in the context of volunteering for a natural resource management organization?

Research Questions for Motivations (Chapter Three)

1. What are the motivational themes described by focus group interviewees to account for their engagement in volunteerism and related preparatory behavior?
2. How do motivations for volunteerism and preparatory behavior differ between DNR and DFW organizations?
3. How do motivations for volunteerism and related preparatory behaviors support or facilitate engagement in volunteerism?

Research Questions for Constraints (Chapter Four)

1. What are the constraint themes described by focus group interviewees that may inhibit or prevent participation in volunteerism and related preparatory behavior?
2. How do constraints for volunteerism and related preparatory behaviors inhibit or prevent engagement in volunteerism?
3. How do constraints for volunteerism and preparatory behavior differ between DNR and DFW organizations?

Social Marketing Applications Questions (Chapter Five)

1. How can principles of social influence be matched with motivations and constraints for engaging in preparatory and end-state behaviors in order to design an effective social marketing strategy?
2. Given the organizations examined (i.e., DNR and DFW), what kinds of social marketing strategies could be effective at recruiting and retaining volunteers?
3. How can motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior be incorporated into a social marketing model to potentially increase the effectiveness of the model to guide the development of social marketing strategies.

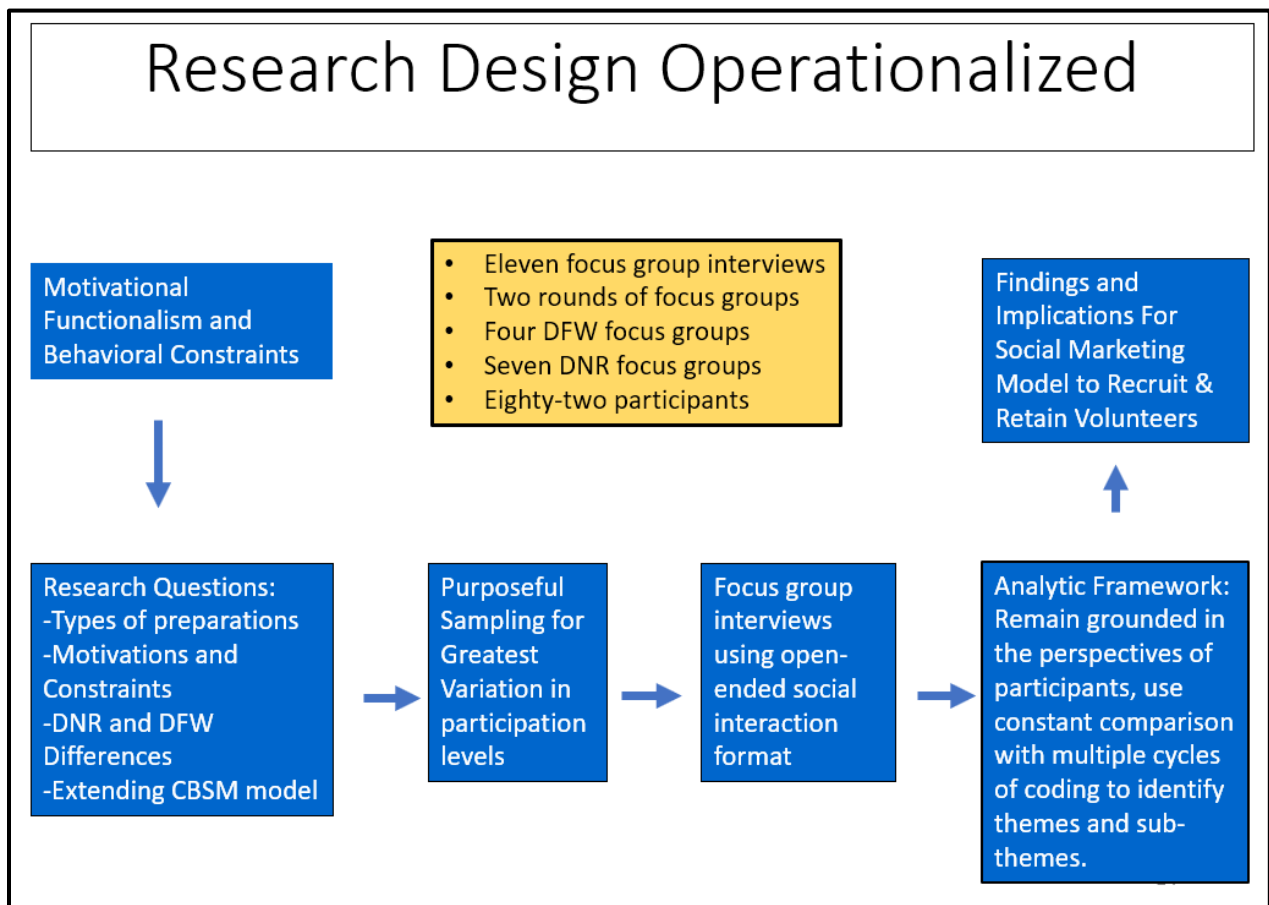
Research Method

I chose a qualitative approach for this research using focus group interviews and open-ended questioning, as opposed to a closed-ended questioning approach (see Figure 1 below). One reason for this was the lack of a priori knowledge regarding the psychological aspects of preparatory behavior in a volunteerism context. Under these conditions, the use of closed-ended questions, such as in a survey, can produce less valid and reliable information compared to an open-ended question approach (Visser et al., 2000). For example, focus group interviews have been shown to be more effective at gaining insights on motivations and complex behaviors when compared to other methods such as surveys (Morgan, 1996). Focus group interviews can be an effective way to gain a deep understanding of the range of opinions, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions about a topic (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Additionally, focus group interviews provide a more realistic social setting where interviewees are interacting with each other (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Through this interaction, participants are able to compare and contrast their situation with others in the group to help them develop and express their own views and feelings in their own words (Morgan, 1998).

Within the domain of promoting pro-environmental behavior, focus groups have been used to gain in-depth information of people's perceptions and behaviors (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). Propst and Knap (2001) demonstrated the utility of focus group interviews within the context of outdoor recreation needs assessments. Although focus group interviewing requires a higher level of procedural sophistication on the part of the practitioner, and more time devoted to analysis, when compared to quantitative methods (e.g., surveys), focus groups provide a deeper understanding of complex issues while providing more flexibility in data collection and tailoring

to fit changes in context (Propst and Knap, 2001). For example, using the theoretical lens of motivational functionalism, Asah and Blahna (2014) used focus groups to allow people to self-express how they “perceive, acquire and use indirect benefits” through their actions to acquire direct ecosystem services.

Figure 1: Conceptual Research Design Operationalized



Prior to conducting this research, I applied for and received approval from the University of Washington Human Subjects Division (HSD #52605) to conduct focus group interviews

involving adult-aged participants. Before the start of each focus group session, I obtained signed consent forms and verbal consent from each interviewee.

Focus Group Interviews

Sampling: Recruiting Focus Group Interviewees

This research involved sampling from two different state natural resource management agencies (specifically, DNR and DFW) that have in common the requirement that volunteers perform strenuous physical labor. The reasons for this selection were to 1) sample more broadly than just one agency to allow for greater variation in preparatory behaviors, motivations, and constraint factors to emerge in the data, and 2) to explore for differences and similarities between DNR and DFW. Where differences between DNR and DFW are identified, such differences can serve to tailor a recruitment and retention strategy that is specifically designed for that particular agencies' target population.

I used a purposeful sampling method (Robson, 2011) to gain a broad range of volunteering experience, ranging from no experience to those that had volunteered on multiple occasions for DNR or DFW. Having a broad range of participation experience created the opportunity to identify a more complete understanding of the two target populations (DNR and DFW) related to the subject behaviors. A 'snowballing' sampling (Robson, 2011) effect occurred during this interviewee recruitment process for some of the DNR interviewees. For example, a number of the DNR focus groups involved participants that all belonged to the same recreation group or club (e.g., Backcounty Horsemen). However, based on self-reports during the focus group interview sessions themselves, the total sample of participants included a range of from no

volunteering experience to long-term repeat volunteers. Overall, most of the interviewees indicated that they had had some prior experience volunteering for DNR or DFW.

The DFW focus group interviewees were produced from a group email that was established in collaboration with the DFW Volunteer Coordinator and sent out to 2022 recipients. The list of emails was generated from a larger list of more than 11,000 individuals that had registered on-line with DFW expressing an interest in volunteering. The email contact list was generated by selecting recipients based on their address being within 50 miles of the location where the focus groups were going to be held (Olympia, WA, area). This distance limitation was deemed a reasonable driving distance to help boost interest in participation. The email consisted of an invitation to take part in a focus group to discuss their motivations and constraints related to volunteering. Recipients of the email were asked to respond by indicating how many times they had volunteered for DFW in the past. A total of 80 individuals responded to the emailed invitation expressing an interest in participating in a focus group. The number of willing participants were further reduced through scheduling conflicts and participants later deciding to not participate. Four DFW focus groups were conducted. The first DFW focus group consisted entirely of individuals who had indicated in their response email that they had volunteered six or more times with DFW. The second focus group consisted of all but one individual reporting that they had not yet volunteered or volunteered only once, with one individual reporting they had volunteered six or more times. The third DFW focus group consisted of individuals who had reported volunteering from zero to five times. The fourth DFW focus group consisted of the full range of experiences from zero to six or more times.

Following my analysis of the four DFW focus group interviews, I attempted to recruit interviewees for additional DFW focus groups to further explore the motivations and constraints. However, I was not successful in this follow-up effort. A combination of events internal to DFW (not related to this research) prevented the use of the contact list of registered volunteers due to concerns over managing access to public contact information. An effort was made by DFW staff that managed the state-wide volunteer program to seek support to recruit interviewees via their regional volunteer coordinators, but this effort failed, apparently due to lack of response to the state-wide coordinator (phone conversation with DFW state-wide coordinator).

The sample of interviewees for the DNR focus groups was purposefully targeted at gaining a range of experiences volunteering with DNR (i.e., from none to many) and was obtained through a combination of contacting known volunteers from user groups which, in turn, recruited other participants (i.e., snowball recruitment) willing to talk about their volunteering experiences. Prior to contacting DNR user groups to recruit interviewees, an invitation was sent out to all individuals who had subscribed to DNR public social media platforms, including a DNR newsletter, Facebook, and blog posts. The content of the invitation was similar to the invitation used to recruit DFW interviewees, including asking for a range of volunteering experience with DNR from those with no experience to those who had volunteered with DNR six or more times. At least 4,700 individuals were solicited through their subscription with DNR's social media platforms (personal conversation with DNR communication staff), and approximately 10,000 were solicited from a Northwest Motorcycle Association email list (phone conversation with NMA social media website manager). This approach resulted in only two individuals responding to this solicitation with neither deciding to participate. The only

successful approach to recruit volunteers for the DNR focus groups was through direct contact. These efforts included attending DNR public meetings where volunteers were in attendance and attending user group club meetings to recruit interviewees. I also directly contacted individuals who were listed as being in leadership roles (e.g., club presidents and volunteer coordinators) on club webpages. In nearly all cases where I was able to make a personal contact with an individual representing a club or group, I was successful at gaining their support to recruit interviewees from their membership.

Conducting the Interviews

I conducted two-rounds of DNR focus group interviews; the purpose of the second round was to explore further the motivations and constraints related to preparatory behaviors, including preparatory cognitions, that emerged from my analysis of the first-round of DNR and DFW interviews. In total, I conducted eleven focus group interviews (four DFW and seven DNR) involving 72 interviewees (DFW: 26, DNR: 46). The interviews were digitally recorded and then manually transcribed with the assistance of transcription software (Express Scribe, version 6.10) and voice-to-text conversion software (Dragon Professional, version 15). Coding and analysis of the interview transcripts was aided by the use of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (NVivo, versions 11 and 12). A total of 515 single-spaced pages of interview transcripts were generated from the eleven focus group interviews.

Focus group interviewees were “sensitized” to the topic of preparatory behavior by sending out a worksheet (see Appendix C) one week ahead of the focus group session that they could use to make a list of the things they do (or might do, in the case where the interviewee had

not yet volunteered) to prepare to volunteer. This prompted interviewees to think about their preparations. Sensitizing the focus group participants in this way can help produce greater depth of information from interviewees (Bowen, 2006). To encourage group discussion and interaction, I applied a non-directive moderation technique where the role of the moderator is to create a permissive environment that allows interviewees to freely explore and express their thoughts and feelings (Brinkmann & Steinar, 2015).

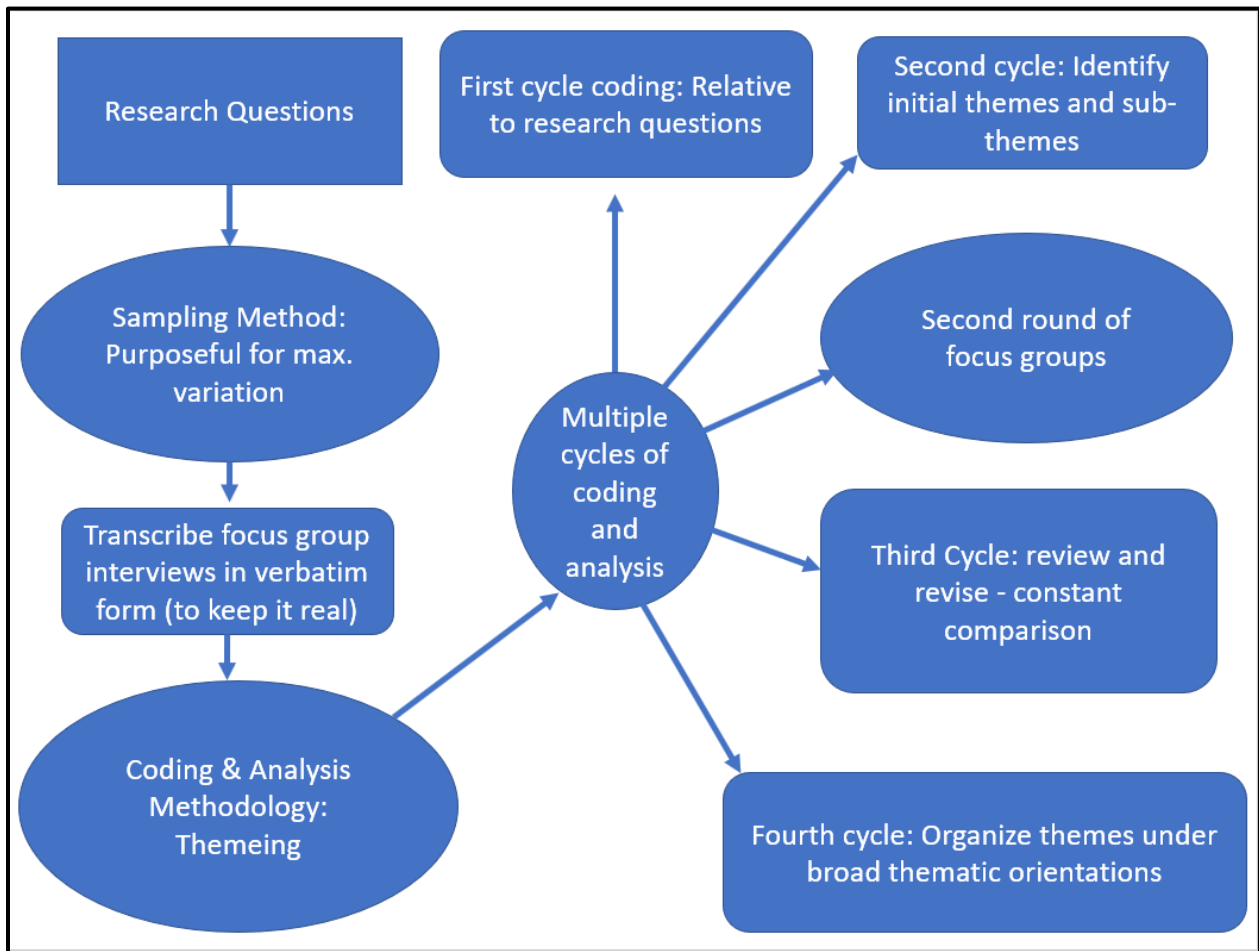
Each focus group meeting began with me, serving as moderator, facilitating interviewee introductions followed by a statement of the purpose for the interview, which was to learn about their perceptions of what motivates and constrains their volunteerism and preparations. The interview discussion then proceeded with the aid of an interview script (Appendix A and B) that was structured around a set of open-ended questions and prompts intended to promote a group discussion (Morgan, 1997).

Method of Analysis for Focus Group Interview Transcripts

My approach to coding and analyzing the focus group transcripts was inductive; that is, it was grounded in the empirical evidence contained in the interview data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The analytical approach I applied to the focus group interviews has been described as “themeing” the data (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). This process involves the use “extended thematic statements” in the form of a phrase or paraphrase. I used this method to retain context and meaning contained in the focus group transcripts, and to facilitate identification of themes and sub-themes in the data (Saldana, 2009). An inductive approach allows themes to emerge from the data, rather than being driven or influenced by a deductive approach using an a priori

set of codes to categorize the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 58). This approach is similar to grounded theory in that it is an “integrative” (Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p. 7) or “interactive” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 12) process involving constant reflection and reassessment of outcomes from the analysis.

Figure 2: Coding and Analytic Framework



I conducted four cycles of coding (see Figure 2 above). After reading through the interview transcripts, the first cycle involved identifying and organizing interviewee quotes according to their relevance to answering the set of research questions for the types of

preparatory behavior, motivations, and constraints for both end-state volunteering and preparations. In vivo coding, the use of the actual words of the interviewees (Saldana, 2009), was used to maintain a connection (i.e. grounded) to the original data as the analysis progressed.

The second cycle involved organizing motivations, constraints, and preparatory behaviors into sub-categories that emerged from the data. For example, the theme of *make it flexible for me* would later be grouped under the broader theme of *convenience*; and *fun with others* was later grouped under the broader category of *prospect of having fun* along with other sources of enjoyment; and *save time and effort* would later be grouped under *cost-benefit*. For coding of preparatory behaviors, I would start with the In Vivo theme of, for example, *need to know the details* and *what do I bring* that would later be combined under the cognitive behavior category of *knowledge gaining*. Both first and second cycle coding, continued until all the relevant information in the transcripts had been coded to a category.

Third cycle coding followed from a second round of focus group interviews. The purpose of the additional focus groups was to gain a deeper understanding of the cognitive preparatory behaviors that emerged from the first set of focus group interviews, along with exploring further the motivations and constraints for all forms of preparations and volunteerism. This cycle involved further analysis and coding of the past transcripts combined with the new focus group data. Throughout this process I was comparing, and recombining text into revised codes and themes. The fourth and final cycle of coding involved examining the coding for broader overarching themes in the data. This resulted in a set of goal-oriented themes of *personal resource gain and loss*, *hedonic and emotion*, and *normative* themes.

The interview data was analyzed for each organizational sample (DNR and DFW). The comments of interviewees belonging to a given focus group are viewed as a single unit, or source of data, within the sample space. For example, a theme that was present in three of the four DFW focus groups was regarded as being elaborated on more extensively than a theme that was only mentioned by one DFW focus group. This range of elaboration within each organization sampling space is indicated in parenthesis for the theme headings: (DNR: X; DFW: X). For example, if four DFW focus groups talked about being motivated by their desire to protect the environment, and one DNR focus group mentioned it as a motivation, then this would be indicated as (DNR: 1, DFW: 4). Meaning that for DFW interviewees, the desire to protect the environment was a reoccurring theme, but not something elaborated on for DNR. This suggests that efforts to recruit and retain volunteers, DFW may want to emphasize providing volunteers with opportunities that help protect the environment, and DNR efforts may want to emphasize sources of motivation that were elaborated on by DNR focus groups.

Results

Chapter 2: Understanding Preparatory Behaviors in a Natural Resource Organization

Volunteerism Context

Literature Review

My review of research on behavior change in the domain of pro-environmental behavior, as well as in the practical application of behavior change models and strategies, did not identify any research into whether and how preparatory behavior, and related motivations and constraints, impact people's engagement in desired end-state behaviors. In this research, I present empirical evidence and make the argument that pro-environmental change agents should invest time and effort into understanding and addressing the motivations and constraints for doing preparatory behaviors when designing behavior change strategies.

The term *preparatory behavior* is used in this research to include personal actions undertaken which may facilitate an individual's performance of the desired end-state behavior (Abraham et al., 1998). The preparatory behaviors described by interviewees involved the range of activities that people engage in to reach a desired level of personal preparedness to volunteer. These activities range from cognitive processes such as gaining knowledge to establishing personal expectations, planning, problem solving, and decision making. They also include physical activities such as collecting and organizing personal gear, food, and equipment, as well as social interactions for purposes of maintaining positive relationships (and avoiding negative interactions) with important others. For example, a person's preparatory behavior might include searching for information about an upcoming volunteer event. That information may then be

used to form an expectation of what the event experience will be like; to make sure they bring the right gear, food and clothing to stay comfortable; to be able to make plans or arrangements with important others to take care of children and pets; or to make arrangements to take time off from work. Engaging in these preparations requires sufficient motivation to initiate, direct, and sustain the behaviors through to completion. Knowing what motivates these preparatory behaviors that facilitate one's engagement in a desired end-state behavior, such as volunteerism, may be useful for behavior change practitioners charged with recruiting and retaining volunteers. For example, making it as easy and convenient as possible for potential volunteers to find the information they need to be able to make plans and schedules with important others and to know what will be required of them as volunteers so they can mentally prepare themselves for the event, may serve to maintain or even enhance a person's level of motivation to volunteer.

It has been shown that preparatory behaviors, such as planning and other instrumental actions, can have an effect of producing desired target end-state behaviors (Abraham et al., 1998; Bagozzi, 1992; Osch et al., 2009). For example, post-intentional planning may facilitate goal achievement (e.g., in the form of performing the desired end-state behavior). Approaches to promoting behavior change in the fields of behavior modification and cognitive behavior therapy have acknowledged the role of preparatory, or instrumental acts, in goal achievement (Abraham et al., 1998). For example, van Osch et al. (2010) studied the consumption of fruit and found that an action plan might include such preparatory behaviors as going to the store and buying fruit, taking the fruit to work, and using the fruit as a snack. Specific preparatory behaviors may add to the understanding of the behavior change process. For example, Bagozzi and Edwards (1998)

have shown how goal pursuits can “involve complex sequences of actions across time” (Abraham et al., 1998, p. 579).

Using a hypothetical example of a pro-environmental behavior, such as volunteering to do wetland restoration work, an individual’s self-efficacy may be high in regards to using hand tools but low in regards to the proper planting techniques for wetland plants. Understanding these preparatory cognitions provides insights into those preparatory behaviors that individuals might have trouble acting on in pursuit of an end-state behavioral goal, which in turn may suggest possible intervention points to provide support for goal attainment through completion of instrumental acts (Abraham et al, 1998).

In summary, research findings in the field of public health behavior change suggest that preparatory behaviors may also have a positive effect on changing end-state behavioral outcomes in the domain of pro-environmental behavior change. However, given that there is no research or empirical evidence in this domain there exists a knowledge gap in our understanding of what kinds of preparatory behaviors volunteers engage in, and what motivates and constrains those activities.

Findings and Discussion

Interviewees described a range of preparatory behaviors that they do in order to get ready to volunteer. There are three general forms of preparatory behavior, *preparatory cognitions*, *physical preparations*, and *social preparations* (see Table 1 below).

Table 1: General Forms of Preparatory Behavior

<p>Three general forms of preparations identified:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Preparatory cognitions<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Appraisal of the prospective volunteer experience• Knowledge gaining• Making a commitment known to others• Planning• Self-protection appraisal2. Physical preparations<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Gathering and checking• Self-protection measures3. Social preparations<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Social interactions with family• Social interactions with non-family (friends, employer)• Social interactions with the volunteer organization

To illustrate where the sources of themes and quotes originated from the focus groups, the letters and numbers in parentheses at the end of headings indicate the number of focus groups, for either DNR or DFW, that expressed this theme during their interview sessions. For Example (DNR: 3, DFW: 4) indicates that this theme was present in three DNR focus groups and was also present in four DFW focus groups. Lettering and numbers at the end of each quote represent which focus group, identified by number sequence, the quote came from. For example (DFW1) means that the quote came from the first of four Department of Fish and Wildlife focus groups that were interviewed. This information is also provided at the bottom of each of the summary tables below.

Preparatory Cognitions

Preparatory behaviors described by focus group participants include cognitive activities, such as an appraisal process that involves constructing a mental image of what the prospective volunteer event experience will be like, including the preparatory stage, and then making an appraisal, or assessment, of that experience. Such appraisals appear to be part of the decision process that leads to the making an initial commitment to volunteer, for example a public commitment (e.g., registering/signing-up with an organization to volunteer). Making an initial commitment, is a form of cognitive preparation that can be subject to further appraisals of the object volunteering event as additional information becomes available (or if lack of information persists). Other preparatory cognitive elements include *knowledge gaining* (expressed as information seeking), *planning* (expressed as making checklists, following routines, and making contingencies), and thoughts involving *personal comfort and well-being*.

Appraisal of the Prospective Volunteer Experience. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

One of the preparatory cognitive processes that emerged from the focus group interviews was a prospective appraisal of the object volunteer experience. This appeared to be a multi-dimensional appraisal of what the volunteer experience might be like, including the preparatory stage of that experience. Evidence in the focus group interviews suggests that this appraisal process is part of a commitment decision process to decide whether or not to volunteer. Such appraisals can involve a comparison of what one perceives or expects the volunteer experience outcome will be like, in a given organizational setting, versus what one considers to be an acceptable or satisfactory volunteer experience. That is, it is an assessment of how well the

mental construct of the prospective volunteer experience matches with their own preferences and goals. These appraisal dimensions serve as a set of personal pre-conditions to be met and deemed acceptable (or unacceptable) as part of one's decision to volunteer or not. The dimensions of this experience appraisal include personal resource gains versus losses, hedonic and emotional consequences, and whether personal and social normative expectations are likely to be satisfied. These appraisal factors can be sources of motivation as well as constraint on one's preparatory behavior and impact end-state volunteerism, depending on whether they are perceived positively or negatively.

Whoever contacted me if it's in person or if it's email or phone that would be my first sort ["sort" is a decision point] and then if it's continuing [i.e. if it's going to be an ongoing or repeating volunteering commitment or just a single occurrence] then I want to know over what time period and how frequently, and then the way I sort is am I interested in this activity and why for this opportunity, and then how does it fit with the other things I'm doing, and what's the benefit to the community in other words is it worth my time, and then do I have time for another activity which is where it sometimes stops, and then will I learn something new? And then do I have the equipment that's needed, or will it be provided? Once I sort through all that, then I can decide if that's something I'm gonna commit to. (DFW1)

For this interviewee, an important first condition decision point is their assessment of the initial social interaction, or first contact, with the volunteer organization, suggesting a hedonic-emotional oriented condition at the social level that was needed to be met. Additional hedonic-emotional outcome conditions include whether the volunteer experience will be rewarding in some respect. Other conditions or decision points include numerous gain-loss (cost-benefit) appraisals regarding personal time investment. Finally, uncertainty related to preparations are

also being considered here in terms of the investment in time needed and any equipment acquisition that may be needed.

The above quote is an example of how an appraisal process leads to a commitment decision that involves an examination of the benefits of volunteering. It also suggests what might serve to inhibit or constrain a would-be volunteer's level of commitment (including choosing to not participate). This interviewee describes a series of decision points associated with a set of conditions that need to be met. Each condition is a point where they either decide to not volunteer (and disengage further appraisal) or to continue further down the list of conditions. A commitment to volunteer is made for those opportunities that meet their particular set of conditions. Conditions that are not met appear to serve as barriers to participation.

In terms of recruiting and retaining volunteers, this interviewee provides evidence that there can be multiple sources of motivations and constraints involved in the decision whether or not to volunteer. One element in this particular interviewee reveals, is the importance of the volunteer organization making a positive first impression. A positive interaction can facilitate further appraisal of other aspects of the prospective volunteer experience that may result in the formation of a commitment to volunteer which, in turn, may provide motivation for engagement in further preparations and, ultimately, to their volunteering.

Knowledge Gaining Preparations. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

Focus group interviewees in both organizational settings described knowledge gaining preparations that involved searching for and gathering information in order to gain an understanding about an upcoming volunteer event. Interviewees appeared to use information

about an event to form an expectation of what the event experience will be like and then use that expectation to help them make a commitment as to whether or not to volunteer. Interviewees elaborated on feelings of uncertainty due to experiencing gaps in desired information about a volunteer event. For example, feeling uncertain about one's self-efficacy or ability to do the work, having the right equipment, and avoiding logistical problems (e.g., location, vehicle constraints, etc.). Interviewees suggested that having uncertainties about an event, and how to prepare for it could be a psychological constraint on making a commitment to participate and on maintaining that commitment during preparations.

. . . if I don't have a point of contact and I can't get a hold of anyone who will give me the information that I need then like I don't think I would participate . . . if I didn't you know initially have that point of contact that I could establish this communication channel . . . (DFW 1)

Knowing what's going to be going on is the big thing for me I want to know what the project is what I'm going to do because whether or not I go it's going to depend on that . . . (DNR 2)

Making a Commitment Known to Others. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

Focus groups in both organizations talked about making a commitment known to others. DFW interviewees described filling out the on-line volunteer registration and indicating what types of volunteering they were interested in doing. For some interviewees, this was expressed as an important display of their commitment. For DNR, an open commitment was described as making a verbal commitment to an important other, such as a fellow club member, or signing up to volunteer on a club volunteer roster. Such open commitments to important others appeared to

carry a great deal of influence on following through on their commitments. This motivation to follow-through reflects the commitment-consistency principle described by Cialdini (2007) that posits people are motivated to live up to their commitments once made.

Again, if I made a commitment to attend a work crew or whatever a pack trip a weekend you know up in the Pasayten I'm going to do it . . . if it's already scheduled and I committed myself that's what I'm going to do. (DNR4)

Planning Preparations. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

Focus groups indicated that volunteering and doing preparations involves planning or thinking ahead about how their time will be used in ways that fit in with other daily priorities and social obligations. Focus groups indicated that planning is motivated by the desire to save time and effort, resulting in savings in personal resources. Not being able to plan, such as having short notice of a volunteering event, can be perceived as a barrier and thus a potential non-starter to one's participation. Planning is also a way of having control and resolving uncertainties that can create stress and anxiety that interviewees talked about needing to resolve. Such uncertainties could serve as a constraint on engaging in preparations that could in turn be a barrier on their volunteerism, such as not knowing what tools and gear to bring to a volunteer event.

. . . well yeah I have like a whole list that I go through, my personal things that I gather up you know like my rubber boots my raincoat and all that kind of stuff . . . but yeah I start monitoring the weather reports a few days out making sure I have a full tank of gas, planning my lunch and snacks and liquids and everything and everything I will have to pack to have with me get the cooler my pack whatever

generally I start laying all this stuff out on the dining room table and my car keys and my hat and all my stuff kinda ready for the next morning so all I have to do grab my stuff um usually I determine what time I'm going to need to leave the house in order to be there on time and kind of work backwards figure out what time I need to set my alarm if I'm picking up someone else carpooling what time you know kinda work figure out my time schedule so that I'm not stressing about laying in the bed in the middle night thinking about (she laughs a little bit) I'm not going to be on . . . and then usually check the weather report one more time before you go to bed. (DFW4)

Self-Protection Appraisal. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4)

Interviewees in both organizations talked about assessing their prospective volunteer experience for personal safety and well-being. Such concerns, if not resolved prior to the volunteer event, can stall preparations that can inhibit participation.

Oh yeah if it's not safe to go [others are agreeing around the table] (DNR4)

I also checked the weather if I'm going to be outdoors um how many layers [of clothing] because there is a certain number of layers, I wear for temps in the 20s and 30s versus what I wear in 40s and 50s and . . . is it going to rain do I need to wear rain gear etc. (DFW3)

Being in a Positive Emotional State and Avoiding Negative States. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

Interviewees in both organizations talked about getting 'mentally prepared' to volunteer. They described efforts to get into a positive emotional state or 'mind set' and to avoid getting into a negative emotional state. Interviewees indicated that being able to get into a positive mental state about the prospect of volunteering was an important motivation for engaging in both

preparations and volunteering, and that being in a negative mental state about the prospect prior to volunteering could be a constraint.

Also getting just mentally prepared the day before or the morning of saying that “I am going to get out of bed and make some coffee and get out of the house early and go to this event and get it done” rather than you know blowing it off. (DFW3)

. . . and the mindset. Other: yeah, and the mindset. Me: and when you mean mindset how do you describe that? Um I’m preparing myself to do like a lot of like am I moving rock am I you know are we like cutting brush or you know that if I have an idea of what I’m getting into on my way then I can either get kinda get psyched for what I’m doing you know . . . (DNR2)

Physical Preparations: Collecting and Organizing Actions and Routines. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4)

Focus groups in both organizations talked about their experiences gathering and organizing such items as clothes, tools, and supplies they believed they needed and wanted to have with them at the volunteer event. When describing these activities, interviewees mentioned having routines that they relied on to make sure they obtained everything they wanted to bring. The motivation for routines included reducing effort and making preparations easy and convenient, having a positive feeling of being ready, and avoiding feeling anxious due to not having preparations taken care of ahead of time.

Gathering and Checking (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

You know I it's just checking your equipment I've got all the Club's brushing equipment so I just make sure it's I start it all up and make sure it's running make sure the blades are sharp make sure there's fuel, in the case of the manure bins I either go out personally myself beforehand to see if they need be emptied. . . safety

gear wise I do make sure I've got GPS with me and a map of the forest first aid kit firestarter you know toilet paper drinking water energy bar uh those space blankets that's more for just safety. (DNR1)

I think it's important to have some sense of quick gathering otherwise it's too cumbersome to even enjoy . . . make sure you know where all that stuff is, you're not scrambling for and then are they ready you know . . . (DFW2)

Self-Protection Preparations. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4)

Focus group participants in both organizations expressed desires and concerns for how the volunteer experience would impact their physical comfort, pleasure, and well-being in both positive and negative ways. Participants conducted preparatory behaviors in response to these desires and concerns.

. . . I'll usually take it easy for a couple of days you know I won't you know be doing any vacuuming or you know anything that might stretch my back before [the volunteer event] . . . (DNR2)

Um did I get enough rest? (DFW4)

. . . like it's you know below freezing you know in the morning and it's like if you don't have enough layers and you don't have enough stuff when you're out you know putting you know these cages out in the Sound . . . that's just kind of ends it [meaning that it's going to be a constraint]. (DFW1)

Social Preparations (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

Preparatory behavior includes social interactions with important others. The purpose of these included the desire to avoid interpersonal conflicts (e.g., family, friends, and employer).

Perceived social conflicts, and related negative feelings and emotions that one may associate with such conflicts, if not resolvable or avoidable, may serve as barriers to one's volunteerism.

Social Interactions with Family. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4)

Focus groups in both organizations described engaging important others within their family circle to seek or gain their support or approval before participating in a volunteer event. Partners (e.g., wife or husband) were elaborated on in both organizations as a key people in obtaining support to volunteer before making commitments. The importance of taking care of perceived social obligations to other family members, such as their children, was also elaborated on in both organizations.

Kiss her goodbye . . . that's a preparatory behavior and so uh fortunately I have a pretty understanding girlfriend wife so she takes care of my son when I'm gone when I'm out . . . (DNR5)

. . . uh have to coordinate childcare generally speaking as long as my wife doesn't have work that weekend or have something else going on she can watch the kids it's easier to do if she agrees with my reasoning for leaving so if I'm going to go to a volunteer event that she backs you know she feels there's something good coming from it then she's more likely to be supportive of that. (DFW 3)

Social Interactions with Non-Family. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

Social interactions with non-family members includes coordinating with other would-be volunteers to orchestrate such things as carpooling to the volunteer event site, gaining permission to take time off from work, and assigning tasks and dividing up responsibilities among fellow volunteers. Social interactions can serve to resolve uncertainty (e.g., to identify roles and

responsibilities) and to gain approval and avoid conflict with important others (e.g., permission from a supervisor to take time off work).

Well, there are times when I thought I set up a carpool and it's supposed to work out and then it doesn't happen . . . so there are times when arrangements have been planned for way in advance or at least two weeks in advance that they confirmed and at the last minute they fall apart. (DFW3)

Um well right now got some pretty critical projects going on but if I said I want to take next week off my boss would say "ha really" [like his boss wouldn't be to happy with that] "don't do it" so it really comes down to that workforce thing . . . (DNR2)

Social Interactions with the Volunteer Organization. (DNR: 2, DFW: 3)

Interactions with the volunteer organization was described in both contexts and served a number of purposes. These included serving the need to be kept informed and actively engaged with the organization staff about project details (e.g., gear and equipment preparations), which, in turn, served to reduce feelings of uncertainty, anxiousness, and other negative emotions during the time leading up to a volunteer event.

[One interviewee commenting to another interviewee] I see you though doing a lot of coordinating with the DNR that you're probably not mentioning here . . . (DNR1)

. . . to the extent that there's the amount of time in communicating with the event organizer if it's really long and I haven't heard from them I get more anxious I guess I get more interested in understanding what the circumstances are . . . (DFW2)

Summary Discussion of Preparatory Behaviors

Focus group interviewees in both organizations described a range of preparatory behaviors that they engage in to facilitate their ability to participate in a desired or target end-state behavior. All of the themes identified were present for both DNR and DFW organizations. These behaviors include cognitive, physical, and social activities. Interviewees indicated that the motivations and constraints they have for engaging in preparatory behavior are factors involved in their decision making about whether or not to make a commitment to engage in volunteerism (i.e., end-state behavior). Since it precedes end-state behavior, I have characterized decision-making as a form preparatory cognitive behavior. This thought process appears to include perceptions, beliefs, evaluations, goals, and the prospect of experiencing feelings and emotions (positive and negative) related to engaging in both preparatory behaviors and end-state volunteerism.

Interviewees in both organizations described motivations and constraints for their preparations that are in addition to their motivations and constraints specific to the end-state volunteering. For example, gaining approval from important others (social preparatory behavior), such as an employer or spouse, to spend time volunteering may be perceived as having positive or negative outcomes for the self, such as the desire to maintain positive relationships, and avoid negative social outcomes. Physical preparations appear to be motivated by, for example, the prospect of both positive and negative hedonic and emotional consequences involving personal comfort and well-being. Such perceived consequences suggest that they are likely an integral part of being willing and able to volunteer. Accordingly, by examining the motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior in a given context, such as volunteerism, a

deeper understanding about what may be facilitating and inhibiting end-state volunteerism can be achieved. Consequently, volunteer-dependent natural resource management organizations may benefit from understanding the range of motivations and constraints on peoples' preparations and apply that information to the design of volunteer recruitment and retention strategies.

Chapter 3: Understanding Motivations for Volunteerism and Preparations from a Preparatory Behavior Perspective Across Two Natural Resource Management Organizations

I conducted a series of focus group interviews within two volunteer organizations to understand the motivations for doing both end-state volunteerism and associated preparations that facilitate volunteerism; these were Washington State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) and Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW). The interview transcripts were analyzed for motivational themes and for organizational differences between DNR and DFW. Understanding the organizational differences may provide insights into how these and similarly purposed volunteer organizations can tailor social marketing strategies aimed at recruiting and retaining different segments of volunteers.

Literature Review

According to the functional theory of motivation (Katz, 1960), a person's attitude or evaluation of an object, such as volunteerism, is influenced by how the object can serve personal psychological needs and desires. In other words, our motivations influence how we think, feel, and behave (Baumeister, 1995). For example, Asah and Blahna (2013) found that a significant reason for volunteering to do stewardship conservation work was for the social interaction benefits gained through the volunteering experience. Additionally, although a group of individuals may express the same attitude or level of importance toward an object behavior, the "motivational forces" or reasons underlying such evaluations serve different needs for different members of the population (Katz, 1960). Motivation not only initiates action, it also directs and

sustains it (Pinder, 2008). Consequently, attempts by natural resource management organizations to promote pro-environmental behavior, such as volunteerism, will require an understanding of the kinds of motivations that are present in the target population, and how the organization can satisfy those motivations while gaining participation in desired behaviors such as volunteerism.

In their research on volunteers in the public health context, Clary et al. (1998) applied functional theory to understand the range of motivations people have for doing volunteer work. Their focus was on understanding the motivations for the end-state behavior and not on preparatory behavior. They found six generic motivational factors or functions served by doing volunteer work. In other words, people doing the same type of volunteer work benefited in different ways from the experience. They labeled these functions as *values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement* (Clary et al., 1998). The values function of volunteerism is served in cases where people are able to act on personally held values such as the need to protect the environment or to help others in need; the understanding function is served where volunteers have an opportunity to learn new things and/or to apply personal skills that are used infrequently; the protective and enhancement function is served in cases where volunteers have the opportunity to bolster their egos through positive actions; the career function is served where volunteers have the opportunity to improve future career prospects by adding to their list of career-relevant experiences; the social function is served in cases where volunteers can interact with others to build and strengthen social relationships; and the protective function is served where the volunteer have the opportunity to protect their egos by reducing feelings of guilt or other negative feelings about themselves (Clary et al., 1998). Although these six

functions appear to apply generally to the domain of volunteerism, there could be fewer, more, or a diversity of functions being served in any given volunteering context (Clary et al, 1998).

Past research in the domain of environmental volunteerism has identified a range of motivations. For example, Bruyere and Rappe (2007) applied the functional approach and found eight volunteer motivating factors. These factors were: a) *helping the environment*, which serves the need to do something to improve the natural environment; b) *learning*, which serves the desire to understand nature in a more scientific sense, such as learning about ecosystems, flora and fauna; c) *social*, which serves the need to meet people and be with friends; d) *values and esteem*, which serve the desire to share or express personal values through actions as a volunteer and to do things that help the volunteers feel good about themselves; e) *project organization*, which is the concept that volunteers may have a desire to be part of a well-run, organized effort that is effective at getting things accomplished; f) *career*, which serves the desire to develop skills and enhance employability by making professional contacts and adding experience to their resume; g) *user*, which was interpreted as a motivation associated with stakeholder concern for use and protection of personally relevant landscapes that may be threatened, for example, by restricted public access in response to government budget constraints on maintenance and operations; and h) the motivation of *get outside*, which was interpreted to represent a personal need to be in contact with nature (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007, p. 513).

Ryan et al. (2001) concluded from their review of past research on volunteer motivations that *learning, helping the environment, social factors, reflection, and project organization* were likely factors that predict longevity or duration of volunteering commitment (p. 632). In their own study, Ryan et al. (2001) found that important and significant motivation factors for

volunteering included (beginning with the highest factor mean) *helping the environment, learning, project organization, social, and reflection*. Overall, the highest mean was for a single item - *feeling of doing something useful*, which the authors suggest being a form of altruistic motivated behavior (p. 638). The study examined which motivations identified in their study were statistically significant predictors of participants' commitment to volunteer. They found positive relationships with commitment among participants that were relatively more motivated by the social aspects of volunteering, and also for those that were more motivated by a well-organized volunteer program. They also examined the statistical relationship between relevant volunteer activity factors on volunteer participation levels and found that doing tangible, on-the-ground, activities, such as native plant restoration and stream monitoring, were important motivation factors for long-term (duration) volunteers (Ryan et al., 2001). Donald (1997) found that active volunteers were more likely to have a social connection as an important motivation (such as a friendship with others in the volunteer group).

A study conducted by Miles, Sullivan, and Kuo (1998) found that *meaningful action* (defined as an altruistic motivation), was reported as the most important motivator for their study population. Another important motivational factor from the Miles et al. (1998) study included *fascination with nature*, which serves the desire to experience the wonder of nature and how it functions. The study also examined the relationship between one's most important motivation and his/her levels of volunteer participation (frequency). They found that generally those who participated more (i.e., volunteered more often) in conservation volunteering activities experienced greater overall satisfaction with doing volunteer work (i.e., environmental restoration work). The motivational functions that had the greatest impact on participation

levels, on average, for the more active participation group included (in descending order) *meaningful action*, *fascination with nature*, *life satisfaction*, *participation*, and *positive life functioning*. For the less active group, the corresponding ranking for motivation on participation was *meaningful action*, *fascination with nature*, *life satisfaction*, and then an equal ranking among *participation*, *chance to be away*, and *positive life functioning* (Miles et al., p. 35). The only two factors that were not statistically different were *meaningful action* (i.e., the intrinsic value or importance of nature) and *a chance to be away* (i.e., to break from a routine and find peace of mind). These findings add to past research on motivations to volunteer in a natural resource context by suggesting that a person's level of motivation (i.e., when measured as a general satisfaction construct) when served through volunteering for personally important reasons, is strongly correlated with their level or frequency of participation. In other words, efforts to retain volunteers over the long run are more likely to be successful if they provide volunteers with experiences that satisfy those personally important motivations.

In one of the few studies of volunteers using qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, Caissie and Halpenny (2003) found five motivational themes: a) *pleasure seeking*, this theme reflected the personal importance of having fun, such as doing fun activities as part of volunteering, the enjoyment of being with *like-minded people*, and having volunteer work that was also *challenging* (p. 43); b) the theme of *perks* included rewards such as being able to attend informative presentations and to learn new skills and valuable insights; c) the theme of *place* referred to a person's desire to do volunteer work in a natural setting or context of personal significance; d) a *legacy* theme emerged that represented the personal desire to make a lasting

difference toward protecting the environment; and e) an *altruism* theme, which captured the personal importance of caring for both humans and the environment (Caissie & Halpenny, 2003).

According to Asah and Blahna (2012), studies that have assessed motivations of voluntary pro-environmental behaviors have indicated that the desire to improve the environment (among other reasons) can account for significant levels of volunteer participation, but these studies did not directly examine the extent to which a motivation's relative importance for a person can account for or explain his/her level of participation in volunteerism. For example, Asah & Blahna (2012) also found that for urban conservation volunteers in the Seattle, WA, metropolitan area, the *environment* factor was reported to be the most important function or reason that people volunteered. Other factors that emerged (in descending order of perceived importance or saliency) included *career and learning, community, escape and exercise, social interaction, and ego defense and enhancement*. However, in terms of which factors were significantly correlated with, and predictive of, participation levels, Asah and Blahna (2012) found that volunteer participation, in general, was significantly influenced the most by the *ego defense and enhancement* motivational factor, and in cases where people volunteered for their most favored conservation program, the *social interaction* function appeared to have the most significant influence on volunteer participation levels.

In summary, past research has not explored the motivations and constraints for engaging in preparations and how they may be impacting engagement in people's volunteerism. This leaves open the question of whether and how motivations (and constraints) for engaging in preparatory behavior impact participation in a target end-state behavior such as volunteerism. Additionally, past research suggests that people are motivated for a broad range of reasons and

that these reasons can vary from one context to the next. This suggest that gaining an accurate (valid) understanding of the sources of motivation for any given target population requires gaining empirically derived information from that population, where such efforts are not constrained by prior research findings from other populations or researcher assumptions. Methods, such as open-ended interviews, are more likely to gain a deep understanding of the motivational nuances of a specific population and therefore are likely to produce a reliable source of information to design a volunteer recruitment and retention strategy.

Findings and Discussion

The motivational themes that I have identified below fit into three broad, overarching categories of goal-motivated behavior (e.g. Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). These sources of motivation, as they specifically relate to end-state volunteerism and associated preparatory behavior, include: (a) gain-oriented motivations that reflect a rational calculation or appraisal of personal costs and benefits focus groups associated with volunteering; (b) hedonic-oriented motivational themes focused on the desire to experience pleasure and positive emotions (and to avoid their negative counterparts); and (c) normative-oriented motivational themes in the form of perceived personal and social norms or expectations of the self and others for engaging in volunteerism and preparatory behaviors (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007).

Goal-framing theory posits that multiple goals (motivations) can be acting as an influence on a person's behavior at any given time and can have a strong influence on how people select and process information and make behavioral choices (Steg & Vlek, 2009). These three general goal-frames are reflected in other theoretical frameworks often applied to research domains in

environmental psychology (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). These include the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985), which reflects a gain-orientation; theories and models of affect that involve hedonic motivations (e.g. Dittmar, 2004; Kals & Maes, 2002); and normative models such as the value-belief-norm theory (Stern, 2000).

The following motivation findings are organized into the sub-categories of end-state and preparatory behaviors for each of the main motivation theme orientations presented below: resource gain, hedonic and emotions, and normative.

Gain Oriented Motivation Themes

People have a general self-interest or goal to protect and improve personal resources, including the resources of time, money, and status (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007, p. 124). Focus groups in both organizations commented on whether and how their personal resources, time, money, and effort invested in volunteering, was going to produce a gain in perceived benefits or, on the other hand, result in a perceived loss of resources. Focus groups described a number of gain-oriented themes that were perceived as sources of motivation for their volunteering. These themes were: *cost-benefit appraisal*, *organizational worthiness*, and *personal match*. Each of these themes includes sub-themes that show the finer detail or nuances of these main themes.

End-State Gain-Oriented Themes

Cost-benefit Appraisal (DNR: 6, DFW: 4). When talking about their motivations for volunteering, focus groups described sources that are gain-oriented. Reasoned choice models frequently applied to pro-environmental behaviors involve the assumption that people weigh the personal costs (e.g., time, effort, social approval, and money) against the potential benefits

gained from engaging in a particular pro-environmental behavior (e.g. Steg & Vlek, 2009). I have labeled this over-arching theme as *cost-benefit appraisal* which consists of three motivational sub-themes. These sub-themes reflect a rational and calculating assessment to determine if the volunteering event, including the volunteer organization itself, is worth one's time and effort. This theme was elaborated on in both DNR and DFW focus group organizations. The sub-themes for cost-benefit appraisal include 1) *convenient in time and effort*, 2) *organizational worthiness*, and 3) *personal match for benefits gained*.

1. Convenient in time and effort. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

Convenience is a form of incentive (Gardner & Stern, 1996). Generally speaking, if a behavior is perceived as convenient, people are more likely to engage in the behavior, and less likely if it is perceived to be inconvenient (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). The source of motivation for this theme is about saving time and effort in terms of both gaining information about volunteering opportunities, and also about the amount of time and effort needed to invest into the actual volunteering event. For example having convenient access to information (e.g., easily accessed web-based information) with enough detail to allow people to decide if the volunteer event matches their goals for volunteering, such as being able to find locations close to where they live, having flexible scheduling options, and easy access to toilet facilities are the elements that have been coded to this sub-theme.

1.1. Ease of gaining information (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

Being able to easily gain access to detailed information about opportunities to volunteer (e.g., where and when), in terms of time and effort, was elaborated on in both organizations.

. . . if you have an Amazon like thing where you can choose those volunteer components that meet your criteria, I think that would be very easy and we could increase the number of people interested in volunteering if it's all laid out that way you put in your cart what you can do and the date . . . (DFW3)

I guess my um just knowledge of opportunity I need to know what's available and to the extent that that all the detailed stuff we talked about before I just need to know about it and if I have to spend a lot of time digging around on the Internet or somewhere else and try to identify it that's going to prevent me from volunteering, if it's clean and sort of intuitive likely I'll be signing up for it but if it's not likely I won't. (DFW2)

1.2. Proximity (DNR: 1, DFW: 2)

Having the option of participating in events close to where people live was mentioned in both DNR and DFW organizations in terms of conserving distance and time spent traveling.

And it's convenient for me I mean it's the closest area to where I live, I'm there in 15 or 20 minutes and so very convenient. (DNR1)

1.3. Flexible scheduling. (DNR: 2, DFW: 2)

Focus groups expressed the benefit of having volunteering opportunities that had flexible schedules making it easier to fit it into their lives. This element was relevant for both organizations.

And variable time schedules and Sundays too I mean sometimes you have things you want to do on Saturday but maybe you be willing to do it Sunday. (DNR2)

My major one is flexibility and dates times and locations. (DFW2)

2. Organizational worthiness. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

The finding that the volunteer organization itself, as a functioning entity, can be a source of motivation is consistent with past research (e.g. Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). Focus groups indicated that they can be motivated to volunteer when they perceive the organization as being well run and organized. This sub-theme of cost-benefit appraisal is based on comments directed at assessing the volunteer organization in terms of perceived competence or worthiness. This assessment includes how upfront and honest (*honesty*) it is about volunteering opportunities, how supportive it is of their volunteers (*organizational supportiveness*), how well organized it is operationally (*well organized*), and whether the organization is providing its volunteers with evidence that validates (*validation feedback*) that their efforts are having an impact and making progress. Additionally, Ryan et al. (2001) had the variable of *feeling needed* as part of their project organization construct. This factor was similar to my finding of *feeling valued and appreciated* by the organization; however, for this research, I have identified an additional hedonic oriented theme as being separate from how focus groups were assessing the way the volunteer organization itself manages projects or events.

2.1. Be honest about my chances of participating (DNR: 0, DFW: 3)

DFW focus groups indicated having an interest in doing specific kinds of volunteering for the organization but felt that it was not being upfront with them about the likelihood that they would actually have an opportunity to participate in what they were really interested in doing. This theme did not emerge from DNR focus groups. This may be since much of the volunteering for DNR is in the form of open-to-all events where individuals can just show up at a volunteer event without pre-registering. In the case of DFW, much of the volunteering requires that an application be made to DFW in order to be granted a space at the event. Organizational honesty

is a new finding as a sub-theme of organizational worthiness motivation. Interviewees suggested that it would be best for the organization to be honest and upfront about volunteering opportunities so as to not create false expectations.

Well, they should be honest with them and their expectations when they're bringing somebody in this is what we want you to do. (DFW2)

Well, you know they need to understand that volunteers are precious commodity so regardless of what the entity is . . . volunteers are the backbone of many agencies and if they start to give them misleading information or they start to not take care of their volunteers. (DFW4)

2.2. Organizational supportiveness. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

Focus groups in both organizations indicated being motivated to volunteer when they perceived the organization as being supportive of its volunteers. This source of motivation was elaborated on in both organizations. Being supportive meant reaching out to people that have contacted the organization about volunteering and maintaining communication with them, sending out event reminders and answering questions, providing leadership and direction to help people make preparations and plans, and staff taking responsibility as the organization's representative.

. . . being able to be a club and work with the DNR and you guys do stuff for us when we say we'd like to come and do and E and E [education and enforcement] or go pick up trash. . . you know that's helpful for us because we want to because you're willing to help us help you help us does that make sense? (DNR2)

Um I think that like volunteer reminders are helpful . . . that's really important to know, oh and then also having an acceptable point of contact for a quick question

*because it's really helpful directly talk to the person that's involved with the project.
(DFW1)*

2.3. Be well organized. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

Interviewees expressed being motivated when they believed their volunteering time and effort was going to be used effectively and was not going to be wasted. According to interviewees, a well-organized volunteer program should be proactive at providing people with detailed information about the event, running the event efficiently, being clear on what the volunteer project is trying to accomplish and on project details, such as time, place location, what to bring, and directions to get there.

. . . you have to put my skills to good use, and you have to organize it so my time is isn't wasted. (DFW2)

If I go volunteer and it's fun and it's well organized and I enjoy myself and, on my drive, home that day I feel good about it I'll be back . . . but I'll tell you if I show up and it's not organized, and nobody knows what the hell is going on and I feel like I'm wasting my time I'm not going to be back. Other: you don't want to waste people's time. So that's what you need to avoid. (DFW3)

Definitely, I wouldn't show up somewhere that's like I'm saying if I don't know what I'm doing I'm not going to schedule something reschedule something to go up you know just because half the time they either change their minds or no one's showed up or who knows. (DNR5)

2.4. Validation feedback. (DNR: 0, DFW: 4).

Focus groups indicated that they can be motivated to volunteer by having their efforts validated by the volunteer staff reporting back to them about progress being made through their

efforts. This sub-theme was elaborated on by DFW focus groups but not for DNR. DFW focus groups indicated the importance of gaining feedback from staff to gain confirmation that their volunteer efforts are in fact making a difference, and are therefore, personally worthwhile. This element is similar to the *don't waste my time* element. The distinction here is that DFW focus groups were interested in actual, tangible evidence or proof of their efforts making a difference.

I think that's really important and underappreciated element of volunteering not just with DNR or Fish and Wildlife but anybody, you have to complete that, you have to finish that last step because you can get people to show up and sign up and do all kinds of stuff, but to get them to come back or benefit from their knowledge . . . but people just don't like throwing their efforts into a hat and say "oh okay see you next time" but having even something simple as an email or a report or something slideshow is that may feel like more of a completed something instead of left in a bleeping open-ended because getting people to show up is hard but getting them show up is like really good and to do that think that bottom part or the tail end of that [meaning the follow-through with feedback to the volunteer on outcomes] has to be reconciled at some point. (DFW2)

3. Personal match with the organization for benefits gained. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

This theme, which is also part of the over-arching cost-benefit appraisal theme, involves a number of sub-themes that suggest people are motivated to volunteer for an organization based on how well the volunteer organization is perceived as a fit or match with the individual. This includes an assessment or comparison of organizational goals with volunteers' personal values and interests in general, as well as identification of specific types of benefits served by volunteering. The sub-themes are *values served, user self-interests served, material incentives, and personal enhancement*.

3.1. Values served. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

I identified a range of personal values as sources of motivation for volunteerism. I found three general values themes in the data that reflect orientations described by Merchant (1992) as they relate to the natural environment. That is, knowingly helping the environment but in ways that allow a person to express or serve their personal values, these are: a) *anthropocentric* (valuing nature for the sake of humans); b) *eco- or biocentric* (valuing nature for its own sake); and c) *egocentric* (valuing nature for one's self-interests). My findings further suggest that people may be motivated by more than one personal value in a given volunteering context as evidenced by interviewees often describing more than one value being served by volunteering.

3.1.1. Anthropocentric (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

This values element was expressed by focus groups in terms of improving the outcomes for others in the future, such as maintaining access to recreation, hunting, and fishing areas, and helping to educate others to share knowledge and increase awareness of natural resource issues. This theme differs from the egocentric theme in that the goal frame is focused on the benefits for others in the future, versus the egocentric theme, where the emphasis is on near-term self-focused benefits gained by knowingly helping the environment.

Keeping you know things open for people to ride horses because more and more we're getting . . . less places to ride . . . so it's just trying to you know maintain what we have. (DNR4)

. . .we all talked about the time commitment we put in with a focus on conservation . . . I feel like if we were dedicating time and then in future years, we're seeing a look that steelhead our salmon populations are increasing and you know maybe

we've opened up more opportunity for recreation fishing because of the efforts that we've put in with our volunteering, you know that would be worthwhile. (DFW3)

3.1.2. Eco-centric (DNR: 0, DFW: 4)

This sub-theme was expressed by focus groups in terms of doing things to help the natural environment for its own sake, such as improving wildlife habitat and helping with scientific research. This value was elaborated on in the DFW context and was not discussed in the DNR context. This may be due to the make-up of DFW focus groups, where it appeared to have greater representation from a wildlife enhancement perspective, whereas members of the DNR focus groups may have had a greater interest in maintaining outdoor recreation areas (e.g., trails)

. . . I think science is the basis for how we make progress in protecting the environment and so to me that's really critical that we have the data that will support some of the decisions that are being made. (DFW1)

. . . helping conserve the environment doing like uh environment erosion repair or helping with biological studies. (DFW2)

3.1.3. Egocentric (DNR: 3, DFW: 1)

The egocentric values reflect the self-benefiting interests in volunteering to help the environment that emerged from focus groups in both organizations. Self-benefits include volunteering for near-term gains for the self, such as being able to engage in a favorite outdoor sport (e.g., hunting, horseback riding, off-road vehicle use). The other benefit was the symbolic motivation that comes with self-identifying as being a volunteer.

. . . yeah, there is fewer and fewer places that are legal for us to go and it's a struggle to keep those ones open so that's what to me that's what makes it worthwhile is having a place to play. (DNR2)

I've been volunteering since I could remember you know uh it's just part of my makeup the family makeup so um it's a good high to volunteer and what the rewards that you get back and enjoy that you see that to me is volunteering. (DNR4)

4. User self-interests served. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

The findings provide broad support for *user self-interest served* being a source of motivation for volunteerism. This theme includes being motivated by one's recreation interests, such as hunting (e.g., gaining privileged access and increasing game population), fishing (e.g., doing fishing as part of research, and improving sport fishing stocks), horseback riding (e.g., maintaining access to areas), and off-road vehicle use (e.g., maintaining access to areas). The findings support the more tangible sources of motivation reflected in other studies, such as personally important areas utilized for enjoyment (e.g. Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). However, the findings also suggest a non-place specific motivation, which is the desire to continue to enjoy their sport of choice in the future. For example, those participants in focus groups that were interested in hunting expressed a concern for maintaining a sufficient game population in general as opposed to being able to hunt in specific areas.

I drive all over the state to pursue fish and game, so I mean there is no limitation you know what I mean if it's going to benefit me to go to the east side of Washington to help out with the elk population . . . DFW3

Well, I generally consider if it's going to benefit the area that I use the most you know I do love volunteering like to say that I volunteer for the betterness of

everything as a whole but I'm somewhat selfish in the fact that you know I'm most passionate about what's going to affect me personally . . . DNR5

5. Material incentives. (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

Focus groups expressed being motivated to volunteer by material incentives, such as hats and tee shirts given to them from the volunteer organization with the organization's logos on them. Other material incentives mentioned by focus groups included receiving food at the event, having employers offer compensation to go volunteer, and being able to bring their pet to the volunteer event.

5.1. Employer support to take time off to volunteer. (DNR: 1, DFW: 0)

This element only emerged in the DNR context but represents a form of reward for volunteering in that some employers allowed them to take time off and, in certain cases, paid them for their hours spent volunteering.

. . . well, my company is really supportive of volunteering in general because they all give you up to 40 hours of time paid to go volunteer having said that they have these volunteers' things set up, my boss has always been supportive of "oh yeah you got a cleanup to do? Great!" (DNR2)

5.2. Hats, tee shirts and food. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

This element of the theme is about tangible incentives and rewards, such as hats and tee shirts with the organization logo on them, as a way for volunteers to symbolize their affiliation with the organization. Having food provided by the organization was also noted as an incentive. This element was elaborated on for both DNR and DFW.

And it's amazing what little things like that will little pieces of swag a shirt, hat pen, notebooks, whatever it's got something on it that and it and whether it just says Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife . . . everybody got a hat it was like "wow this is pretty cool" . . . and then the next time I went there were people showing up because they heard that their buddy got a hat . . . I mean they were there for two days and it was like I'm here for two days because I want to get a hat. (DFW1)

And I think have everybody come back and we have a big lunch you know. Other: right. And feed everybody. Other: yeah. (DNRI)

5.3. Having my pet with me. (DNR: 0, DFW: 1)

The theme regarding pets was only mentioned by one of the DFW focus groups but it was clearly a motivator for some to do more volunteering if they could bring their pets with them. There was no observable indicator as to why only DFW mentioned this versus DNR.

The only thing fun for me would be if I could bring my dog I would do so much more volunteering if I could just bring my dog. DFW4

6. Personal enhancement and understanding. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

This theme includes volunteering to enhance future career opportunities through gained work experience. It also includes learning new skills and learning more about the organization that one is volunteering with to better understand the reasons for various organizational actions and decisions. For example, learning why there are catch limits for certain fisheries.

6.1. Enhancing career opportunities. (DNR: 0, DFW: 3)

Enhancing career opportunities was a prevalent source of motivation only in the DFW context. This may be due to the nature of DFW volunteering, which provides opportunities to

learn skills that may be relevant for employment opportunities with DFW, such as collecting samples associated with research projects.

. . . so, I went and got my environmental science degree last summer and you need to have 900 million years of experience doing anything so I volunteer so I can get some experience . . . my goal is to know as much about everything is possible so I can just slide into any position anywhere. (DFW3)

6.2. Desire to gain new skills. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

The desire to learn new skills as a benefit of volunteering not related to career enhancement, was elaborated on in both organizations. This suggests that gaining new skills is an important source of motivation beyond enhancing future career opportunities, such a providing an opportunity for personal growth in one's abilities.

. . . you know I've learned a lot from DNR and also working on trails is how to do puncheon and how to move rock around landscape you know and hauling the stock . . .so that's a lot of reward in itself you know. (DNR4)

. . . personal education is also another reason why I've volunteered in the past for example on those rockfish tagging programs . . . I'm learning new techniques I'm learning how to target these fish that I've may not have the ability to fish for otherwise, so you know personal education you know for helping a game species that I target . . . (DFW3)

Knowledge the gaining of knowledge is why I'm giving [unintelligible] knowledge of subjects that I love you know that I'm really into animals, forestry, geology or gold. (DFW4)

6.3. Knowledge and understanding about the organization (DNR: 1, DFW: 4):

DFW focus groups elaborated on the desire to gain an understanding of the reasoning and justification behind some of the wildlife management decisions being made, such as fishing and hunting bag limits.

I also want to gain knowledge just the desire to learn you know what's going on inside the Department of Fish and Wildlife's head when you know when they decide to shut down salmon hatchery for or cut off you know like a steelhead spawn it's like why do they make these decisions and how it's how is that going to affect my fishing for the next season or down the road . . . and you know hunting why would they (meaning DFW) impose you know like a certain bag limit on an animal . . . (DFW3)

Another thing that I enjoyed about it is learning from you guys with the DNR as well uh learning more about the rules . . . (DNR2)

Preparatory Behavior: Gain Oriented Motivations (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

Planning Preparations (DNR: 3, DFW: 4). The source of motivation for engaging in planning as a preparatory behavior is gain-oriented and involves getting the most benefit out of personal time, effort, and other personal resources spent getting ready to volunteer. Having preparations as convenient as possible was expressed by interviewees for both DNR and DFW, and they included suggestions as to how the volunteer organization could make their preparations easier.

1.1. Get the most out of doing preparations. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

Interviewees indicated that doing preparations involved planning or thinking ahead about ways that their preparations could be fit in with other daily priorities and activities. This theme is

similar to the cost-benefit theme described for general motivation among focus groups when thinking about the personal costs of volunteering in terms of time and money.

I might start preparations a little bit sooner might go you know shopping the weekend before to get some of this stuff I just don't have time during the week I mean it's easy you know it's easy to put it in with your regular shopping that I do weekly so it's plan ahead a little bit. (DNR2)

. . . part of it just being able to plan that ahead and then like about two weeks prior is when I'm like probably kinda like pulling gear out being able to set it aside just to be like don't forget . . . and it's like if I don't just go and get it out forget about it until I'm halfway to where I'm going . . . (DFW1)

1.2. To get the most fun out of the time spent (DNR: 0, DFW: 2)

Interviewees in the DFW context described taking advantage of participating in the volunteer event to do other fun things that might be available at or near the location of the volunteer event. The prospect of doing things in combination with volunteering that are fun was a source of motivation to do preparations.

I might go out before and use that as extra time for me to participate in any recreation . . . I might go out the day before go ahead and fish off the jetty or doing crabbing from the boat basin or something like that just to give me a little something extra out of the trip. (DFW3)

Like I said I sort of think of it in terms of what I what else I might do as a result of going on this volunteer activity I've never volunteered for anything in the mountains but if I did, I want to have my stuff with me in case if there's an opportunity to do something. (DFW2)

Convenience – Make it Flexible and Easy for Me to Prepare (DNR: 2, DFW: 4).

Convenience was a source of motivation for both end-state and preparations. For preparations, interviewees in the DFW context commented that making it easy for them to inform the volunteer organization that they would like to volunteer was an important early step in preparations and in making a commitment to volunteer. Also, having flexible options for the time of day to attend volunteer events was seen as an aid to cope with other personal demands on time. For example, flexible scheduling helps people that work weekends and at night to find them time to rest and be with family.

Would be so easy to add one more section of "volunteer work" "here's what's available" [referring to the DFW volunteer registration website] here's what I want to do, sign up, someone calls you and it's done you know that to me the simplest easiest and would alleviate a lot of the concerns everybody here said about you know good planning and knowing everything going into it before you sign up . . . I mean everyone here probably has a smart phone if they had made a mobile version of the app for that matter then there's no barrier for anyone being able to go "oh yeah what's available this week here we go okay yeah I'm interested count me in". (DFW2)

. . . variable time schedules and Sundays too I mean sometimes you have things you want to do on Saturday but maybe you be willing to do it Sunday. (DNR2)

Summary Discussion on Gain-Oriented Motivations

Interviewees in both organizations appear to be thinking about how volunteering and preparing to volunteer may impact their personal resources, such as time, effort, and money (see Table 2 below).

For example, when volunteering is perceived as being convenient and easy to engage in, interviewees indicated that they are more likely to volunteer. Asah et al. (2014) noted close proximity as being a *convenience* factor. My research supports this finding, and also adds the elements of ease of gaining information, and the desire for flexible scheduling. Although

Table 2. Personal Resource Protection and Gain Motivational Themes

Table 2	
*Personal Resource Gain and Protection Motivations	
End-State Gain Motivations	Preparatory Gain Motivations
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cost-Benefit Motivations to Volunteer (6/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. <u>Convenient in time and effort</u> (3/4). 1.2. Organizational worthiness assessment (3/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.2.1. Be honest (truthful) about my chances to participate (0/3) 1.2.2. Organizational supportiveness (4/4). 1.2.3. Don't Waste My Time – Be Well organized (4/4) 1.2.4. Validation feedback of effort effectiveness (0/4) 1.1. Personal Match with the Organization for Benefits Gained (6/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1.1. Material incentives (6/4) 1.1.2. Value orientations (values are overarching and likely influence prep. behavior) (6/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1.2.1. Ego-centric (3/1): Volunteering for direct self-benefits 1.1.2.2. Anthropocentric (6/4): Volunteering to improve the outcomes for others in the future. 1.1.2.3. Eco-centric (0/4): Volunteering to help the natural environment. 1.1.3. Personal enhancement – career, knowledge, skill, learn about the organization (3/4) 1.1.4. User [recreation] self-interests served (6/4) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Get the most out doing preparations (3/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Planning in order to save time and effort getting ready (3/4) 1.2. Planning to get the most fun out of the time spent (0/2) 2. <u>Convenience</u> (2/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. Make it easy to register/sign-up to volunteer 2.2. Flexible start times
<p>*<u>Underlined constraints indicate that the theme was present in both end-state volunteering and preparations contexts.</u></p> <p>**The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.</p>	

organizations may not always have control over the location of a volunteer site, they may have a great deal of control when it comes to making information easily accessible (e.g., on websites) and when it comes to creating a flexible schedule that makes it easier for people to fit volunteering into busy schedules. For example, from a preparatory perspective, organizations should make it as easy as possible (in time and effort) to obtain detailed information about the volunteer event and how to prepare for it. This could prevent would-be volunteers from becoming frustrated (a constraint finding) with the organization if it becomes difficult to find information detailing how to volunteer. This may be particularly important for recruitment of first-time volunteers, where they are forming an impression about the organization and have not yet made a commitment to volunteer.

Additionally, interviewees in both organizations, appeared to be motivated to volunteer for an organization that is perceived as being worthy of their investment of personal resources. This overall worthiness appraisal, a preparatory cognition, involved elements of trustworthiness, supportiveness, being well organized, and giving feedback to validate one's personal effort. This appraisal also involved judgments of how capable the volunteer organization is at providing functional opportunities to express personal values, to enhance personal career aspirations and knowledge gains, as well as increased user benefits. The findings from this research are consistent with three other studies that identified the volunteer organization as a motivating factor. The source of motivation in these studies appears to be based on how the volunteer project or event is perceived to be well organized, has good leadership, and is clear with the volunteer about what is expected of them (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Knoke, 1981; Ryan et al., 2001). My findings further suggest that evaluations (i.e., positively or negatively) of the volunteer organization are part of the preparatory cognitive appraisals that can serve as sources for motivation (or constraint if negative) not only for engaging in the desired end-state volunteering, but also as sources of motivation to engage in preparatory behaviors. For example,

how the volunteer organization is perceived as using people's personal resources effectively (or ineffectively) can be a source of motivation (or constraint) on their preparations. The implication, from a volunteer recruitment and retention perspective, is that volunteer organizations may benefit from gaining an understanding of how effective would-be volunteers believe the organization to be at using their personal resources.

The finding of personal gain in the form of enhancement and understanding is consistent with two end-state motivational factors common in the literature on volunteerism; these are the desires to learn and to aid one's career goals. The desire to learn ranges from learning about plants and animals and nature in general (e.g. Caissie & Halpenny, 2003; Ryan et al., 2001; Miles, et al, 1998), to more of a focus on learning about the volunteer organization (Asah & Blahna, 2012). The theme of career enhancement as a source of motivation for volunteerism was identified by three studies. For example, Bruyere and Rappe (2007) identified variables such as: *get a foot in the door at a place where I would like to work, make contacts that might help career, and experience will look good on my resume*. Asah and Blahna (2012) and (Asah et al., 2014) identified variables such as: *to get my foot in the door for jobs, to learn job skills, and resume builder*. The findings here support this past research. Accordingly, natural resource management organizations should consider providing learning opportunities as part of their recruitment and retention strategy.

Personal values were elaborated on as a source of end-state motivation within both organizations. This commonly identified theme in much of the literature on volunteerism, and pro-environmental behavior more generally, and it was specifically identified as a source of motivation by two studies: Bruyere and Rappe (2007) and Asah et al. (2014). Other studies

contain factors and variables that can be interpreted as similar values, such as *helping the environment* (Asah & Blahna, 2013; Asah et al., 2014; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Ryan et al., 2001), and some of the variables in the factor of *meaningful action* (Miles et al., 1998), and *community and environment* (Asah & Blahna, 2012; Asah et al., 2014) respectively. For Bruyere and Rappe (2007), the values and esteem factor set of variables is not oriented toward a specific set of values, but rather is about the general source of motivation being the desire to express personal values through environmental volunteerism, whatever those values may be. However, another factor identified by Bruyere and Rappe (2007), labeled *help the environment*, appears to be an eco-oriented values motivation. Except for the community factor identified by Asah and Blahna (2012) that appears to reflect an anthropocentric-oriented motivation, all the other studies described values as being eco-oriented in nature. Where the findings from this current research differs from past research is in terms of how these values were being applied. Interviewees described their value-expressive motivations for volunteering in the form of a cost-benefit appraisal that places them into the context of a type of commodity where the interviewee is making comparisons between volunteering opportunities as a means of deciding which one will satisfy their value-expressive desires the most. Viewed as a commodity, where would-be volunteers might be comparison shopping with other volunteering options available to them, organizations may want to emphasize in their messaging to recruit and retain volunteers those values they understand to be specifically important to the target population.

The finding of *user self-interest*, as an end-state motivation, where ‘user’ means a volunteer who directly benefits from their volunteering effort is consistent with past research. For example, a volunteer that helps improve habitat for game animals that they may wish to hunt

in the future. Within the literature I found two different studies that identified similar variables which were also similarly labeled with the term *user*. Bruyere and Rappe (2007) describe the user source of motivation as coming from the desire to serve their own self-interests, such as volunteering at a site that they use, possibly in order to protect or improve their own experience. Donald (1997) also describes the “user” motivation coming from the personal use of an area, and that this motivation helped to account for volunteers who remained actively participating in volunteering events at locations of personal interest. However, my findings also suggest a non-place specific motivation, which is the desire to continue to enjoy their sport of choice in the future. For example, DFW interviewees that were interested in hunting expressed a concern for maintaining a sufficient game population in general as opposed to being able to hunt in specific areas. This suggests that user interest motivation can be effective at gaining participation beyond place-specific interests.

As an end-state motivation, interviewees indicated that material rewards or incentives can be a source of motivation to volunteer. My review of the literature on the motivations for volunteerism did not specifically identify material incentives as a source of motivation; however, within the broader domain of motivations for engaging in pro-environmental behavior, material incentives and rewards have been shown to be sources of motivation (e.g. Gardner & Stern, 2002). From my research, focus groups expressed receiving such items as hats and tee shirts from the volunteer organization with the organization logos on them as sources of motivation.

For preparatory behavior, my findings suggest that the desire to save personal resources in the form of time and effort is a motivation for planning behavior. Focus groups in both organizations talked about how to conserve the time and effort spent on preparing to volunteer,

by combining their preparations with their daily life routines, such as shopping for groceries. The importance of having the available time resources to make plans was evident when participants expressed concerns about not having enough time to make necessary preparations. DFW interviewees described their desire to get the most fun as possible from the volunteer experience as a motivation to make preparations. The source of fun extended beyond the volunteer event and was reflected in making plans to take advantage of the proximity of the volunteer location to do other fun things besides volunteering (e.g., to sightsee or go camping).

From a gain motivation perspective, volunteer organizations should provide notice of volunteer events well in advance of the event date(s) and provide detailed information related to the event and provide would-be volunteers information on what they should do to make preparations in order to allow people plenty of time to plan for participation. Organizations may also attract the attention of would-be volunteers by providing information about other opportunities to have fun in the local area of the volunteer event to help increase the motivation to both participate and make preparations. Lastly, convenience was also identified as important for preparations. For DFW interviewees this meant having an easily accessible and user-friendly interface on DFW's website to learn about volunteering opportunities and to have an easy registration process to sign-up for projects that interest them. For DNR interviewees, convenience was about having flexible start times to begin later in the day to allow for preparations related to health and rest, and to catching up on other priorities. The message to volunteer organizations is to make volunteering as easy as possible according to how the would-be volunteer may perceive it.

Interviewees in both organizations were clear that they value how their time is spent, both on doing preparations and end-state volunteering, and that they needed to be able to determine if the exchange, in the form of giving of their time volunteering, was going to produce a benefit to them (or something important to them), or at least not result in a personal cost/loss so great that it would serve as a barrier. In other words, volunteering that is perceived as being worth investing personal time, effort, and money appears to be an important motivation across both organizations.

Organizational differences.

There were some differences in the sub-themes for gain oriented motivations between organizations (see Table 1 above). For example, perceiving the volunteer organization as being honest and truthful and giving feedback to its volunteers was elaborated on in the DFW context but not for DNR. As noted previously, this may be due to frequent comments by DFW participants about the online volunteer application process that requires would-be volunteers to fill out applications to get accepted as volunteers for events. DFW interviewees indicated feeling misled by the way the event was being presented to them and expressed frustration at not hearing back as to whether or not they had been accepted into the event. DFW focus groups made it very clear that they were willing to shop around beyond DFW for opportunities to volunteer based on how they believed the other organization would treat them compared to DFW.

Value-based motivations to volunteer ranged from eco-centric, anthropocentric, and egocentric. For DFW, eco-centric was a motivation but not in the DNR context. This may reflect DFW's focus on wildlife enhancement and restoration volunteer projects. On the other hand,

ego-centric interests were present for both organizations and elaborated on for DNR. This suggests that being able to gain personally from volunteering experiences, such as having fun, or learning something new, is an important motivation in nature-based volunteering in general. Anthropocentric motivations were present in both organizations, suggesting that doing things that benefit people in general are important. Given that more than one form of value-base motivation was present for both organization, volunteer programs should consider a multi-values approach to recruiting and retaining volunteers.

Personal enhancement was important in both organizational levels, but it differed at the more nuanced level, with career enhancement being elaborated on only for DFW, while gaining new knowledge and skills was important in both levels. These differences illustrate that motivations for volunteerism can differ from one organization to the next, and this also supports past research that suggests that different forms of pro-environmental behavior are likely not predictable from a common set of variables (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 1995, p. 154). This further supports the use of focus groups as an important step in identifying motivation (and constraint) variables that are unique to a given volunteering situation.

The cost-benefit sub-theme of convenience was elaborated on in both organizations, as was having easy access to information about volunteering opportunities, geographic proximity, and having flexibility in when a person can schedule time to volunteer. This all suggests that organizations should be looking for every opportunity to make volunteering as convenient as possible, starting with making explicit information readily accessible regarding what and how to best prepare to volunteer. The cost-benefit sub-theme of material incentives in the form of receiving items from the organization that identified or symbolized the volunteer as being

affiliated with the organization was a motivation in both organizations. The motivation of having support from one's employer was present in the DNR context.

The general theme of organizational worthiness was present in both organizations. DFW interviewees elaborated on the need for the volunteer organization to be responsive and upfront about the chances people would have to be able to do the type of volunteering that was motivating them to commit in the first place. The desire to receive validation feedback, in the form of accomplishing meaningful progress by volunteering, was present in both organizations; both DNR and DFW interviewees were motivated to volunteer when they perceived the volunteer organization as being supportive, such as by being proactive in reaching out and keeping volunteers informed and engaged. Both organizations also indicated being motivated to volunteer when they perceived their time as being well spent and productive.

The sub-theme of user self-interest was present in both organizations. Although it reflects an egocentric value orientation, it differs in that volunteering behavior is motivated by the personal benefits or rewards to be gained, such as enhancing their own recreational experiences in the future (e.g., improved hunting and fishing opportunities). For such non-ecocentric motivations, the benefit to the environment is not a relevant motivation for volunteering and therefore benefits incidentally as a consequence of volunteering for other reasons.

For preparatory behavior, saving personal time and effort was a source of motivation for planning behavior in both organizations. The desire to have as much fun volunteering as possible was a gain-oriented motivation present in the DFW context. The reason for doing planning was to improve the likelihood that one would improve their chances of having as much fun volunteering as possible by being well prepared. Convenience was a motivation for

preparations for both DNR and DFW. For DFW, the focus was on having an easy-to-use interface on the DFW website when signing-up to volunteer and seeking information. For DNR, the motivation was in the form of having flexibility in event start times to allow volunteers to still participate, as well as being able to volunteer fewer hours at an event to allow time to take care of personal and family needs before volunteering.

Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Motivations

End-State Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Motivation Themes.

According to Lindenberg & Steg (2007), when a person's focal or salient goal frame is hedonic oriented, such as when making a decision as to whether or not to volunteer, they are particularly focused on how they will feel (both physically and emotionally) in that behavioral context. "People in a hedonic frame are especially sensitive to what increases and what decreases their pleasure and affects their mood" (pp. 119-120). Being motivated to improve how one feels, or may feel, in a given context, is reflected in actions to seek direct pleasure, improve self-esteem, and look for excitement; it also can motivate people to avoid effort, negative thoughts and events, and avoid direct uncertainty (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007).

Social satisfaction incentives - feelings of togetherness (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). The set of social motivations contained in this theme, which I have labeled social satisfaction includes the sub-themes of *fun with others* (social enjoyment), *to be with like-minded and camaraderie*, and *personal connection to organization staff*.

1.1. Fun with others. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4)

This sub-theme is centered around having fun in a social setting (social enjoyment) and differs from the sub-theme of like-mindedness (see below) where the motivation focus is on having shared values and project objectives with the other volunteers at the event.

. . . we also play at the same time that we volunteer you know . . . we don't just go up there JUST [their emphasis] to work. (DNR5)

. . . if you make it interesting four or five volunteers say, come with me this is a lot of fun [others are agreeing] you're going to get more people more people volunteering if you don't have that you're not going to get volunteers. (DFW4)

It's more of a social event. (DNR1)

1.2. To be with like-minded – camaraderie. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

The use of the terms like-minded and camaraderie reflects focus groups talking about volunteering with others that have interests in common beyond simply having fun. These commonalities included having similar views on hunting, horseback riding, off-road vehicle use, and habitat management. The terms of 'like-minded' and 'camaraderie' were sometimes used interchangeably by interviewees. However, in other cases, interviewees made a distinction between them. For example, camaraderie was used to refer to being with others having in common a particular goal for the volunteer project, such as improving fish habitat. And like-minded was used to describe being with people having the same values, such as the view that fish and wildlife should be managed as a natural resource to be harvested, versus to be protected and managed for non-harvest purposes.

1.2.1. Camaraderie.

It was just that sense of everybody coming together to do something that made a real impact on it and then the camaraderie afterwards everybody kinda going um patting each other on the back and feeling good about what you did that was a very important aspect so. (DFW2)

1.2.2. Like-minded.

I think for me what's worthwhile is this greater community we build again it's the like-minded folks who share some values about what's important within this part of the world that we create and live in um I feel very strongly that the club and the actions it takes has been a community that's positive and good to be around. (DNR2)

. . . well, I feel like if the people volunteering in these programs did not have some sort of a love for fish and wildlife, . . . so, when I say like-minded people it's people that care about the conservation of the fisheries and the wild game in this state. (DFW3)

2. Personal connection relationship with staff. (DNR: 2, DFW: 3).

Interviewees gave examples of how having a personal connection with the volunteer organization staff, formed through volunteering, can serve to retain them. Interviewees spoke positively about their volunteering experiences when describing having direct interactions with organization staff. For example, being relied on by DFW biologists to collect samples for specific research and monitoring purposes, or similarly being on a first name basis with DNR staff that manage recreation areas. Personal connection to staff involves friendship and feeling needed. Ryan et al. (2001) identified this relationship as an element of their *project organization* construct.

[She names a specific DFW person] she's the only one I know and she's fantastic I follow her [unintelligible] she's doing presentations on the data that come from these studies. Me: would you say that she has in your thoughts an influence on your volunteering activity? Absolutely, because I only did three cages the first time and then I went up to eight so it was because I could see the value of it and then talking with her, she just encouraged me to see if we could do more. (DFW1)

. . . you know how many times has Mr. B [DNR staff persons] come in there with a whole pile of stickers and maps and fresh these and fresh those in a few of these and "I'll bring you some firewood for the fire" and WOW REALLY! . . . you know just knowing you're going to work with us and hopefully make it good for both you guys and for us and then the people that are there. (DNR2)

Project enjoyment (DNR: 6, DFW: 4). Interviewees in both organizations indicated being motivated by the prospect that the volunteering project itself was going to be enjoyable, for example, having the positive feeling that comes with achieving something. The hedonic theme of *project enjoyment* consists of two sub-themes having to do with receiving direct enjoyment out of the volunteering experience, which are *achievement satisfaction* and *self-centered enjoyment*.

1.1. Achievement satisfaction (DNR: 6, DFW: 3).

This sub-theme involves the positive feelings of accomplishing something that is real or tangible, such as being able to see the product of the work at the end of a volunteer event and feeling good about the effort one has put into it; it involves having a sense of accomplishment from feeling productive.

It was a view of what we accomplished by seeing what was on the cameras after was edited to . . . where we saw the martin or the badger or whatever and then it was kind of in other words "this is what we accomplished". (DFW2)

Um just feeling good it's like an endorphin you know it's just a good feeling "wow I did something". (DNR4)

1.2. Self-centered enjoyment (DNR: 6, DFW: 4)

This sub-theme has more to do with having fun centered around the self and less about project achievement. This includes the elements of *just being outside* and *change in my routine*. The most elaborated element of this sub-theme was being outside enjoying nature.

1.2.1. Just being outside (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). The desire to be outside as a source of motivation for doing volunteerism was present in both organizations. Interviewees described being outside as an enjoyable and fulfilling experience.

I sometimes I look forward to just the process of being out outdoors working in nature. (DNR6)

I guess my one of my motivations is that I number one I like being outside. (DFW1)

1.2.2. Change in my routine (DNR: 1, DFW: 3) Having the opportunity to experience a change in one's regular routines in life can be a source of motivation for engaging in volunteerism. The theme reflects thoughts of doing things that are unique experiences and a welcome change. This theme was present in both DNR and DFW and was elaborated on by DFW.

*F**k it I'm going I'm going to Elbe [a DNR motorized recreation area] and I'm gonna fricken work 30 hours in three days or two days and you know everything else in the rest of the world can just kinda melt away because that's what I love to do. (DNR5)*

That's why I'm doing it it's a nice change [others are agreeing]. (DFW1)

. . . yeah, because I'm I need to do something besides what I'm doing now. (DFW4)

Guilt and Regret Avoidance (Ego Defense) (DNR: 0, DFW: 3). This emotion-oriented theme reflects the motivation to protect the self by avoiding experiencing negative feelings such as feelings of guilt and regret. This includes making amends or protecting oneself emotionally from personal past actions as a user of natural resources, or feeling responsible for generational past practices, such as overfishing resulting in depletion of the resource.

I would like to see things the way they used to be I would like to see the streams chock full of fish and I think that mankind and I was guilty as anybody else you know buying a house on in the suburbs and the runoff runs into the river the rivers flood every year and scour the eggs out and [sigh] trying to mitigate my part. (DFW3)

And I think it's probably something that I probably regret that I didn't do more when I was younger pursue it, but I just enjoy helping out and no I'm not associated with any group or anything. (DFW1)

Stewardship Pride (DNR: 4, DFW: 4). The form of pride identified here is motivated by the positive feelings of ownership and responsibility that may come from perceiving oneself as being a good steward. In this sense, stewardship is not just about taking care of a place, but also being a good steward toward protecting personal and group interests, such as recreation user interests in general.

I really enjoy the sense of ownership in a way that we've done put the work and time into this and so it's kind of like these are our trails . . .and pride you know we've when we do get out . . . (DNR2)

So, what I get out of it is I love to organize things and I am responsible on my island for seven sites plus another one and which is more than anybody else in the whole system I think has ever tried to do. (DFW1)

To Feel Committed (“sense of commitment”) (DNR: 0, DFW: 1). Emotional, or affective, forms of commitment were present only for DFW. This theme reflects the desire to feel committed to something, versus a normative form of commitment, such as feeling socially obligated to take part in a volunteer event that has been made known to others, such as to fellow club members or on a publicly viewed forum (e.g., organization website). This same motivation was present for preparatory behaviors; therefore, feeling committed may have influence for both end-state and preparatory behavioral stages.

. . . if they can find that same activity that fills their same void or whatever it is . . . and it gives you the same sense of purpose the same sense of commitment and you know you can do the same thing by going [volunteering] with someone else [other than DFW]. (DFW4)

Feeling Valued and Appreciated by the Organization (DNR: 5, DFW :4). This theme is about the need to be acknowledged and appreciated by the hosting volunteer organization. The elements for this theme include *acknowledgment as incentive* and *show your appreciation*. Interviewees expressed expectations for the volunteer organization such as being proactive in making contact (e.g., returning emails) with volunteers and would-be volunteers, and showing respect and appreciation. When the organization is meeting these expectations, interviewees

indicated a positive attitude about the organization. However, when interviewees indicated that expectations of this nature were not being met, attitudes toward the organization were negative and were expressed as feelings of frustration and resentment that also were identified in this research as a potential psychological constraint toward volunteering (see Chapter Four). This theme was also salient as a motivation for preparatory behaviors (see below for preparatory behaviors).

1.1. Acknowledgement as incentive. (DNR: 2, DFW: 4).

The element of *acknowledgement* involves the volunteer organization showing respect through actions such as being responsive and timely to offers made by people willing to volunteer. This emotional element suggests a form of reciprocation that produces a positive emotion for interviewees when they feel acknowledged in response to their actions toward the organization.

. . . might be one of the reasons [for volunteering] just acknowledging the fact that "hey you know we appreciate the fact that you've taken the time to contact us". (DFW4)

But I think just acknowledgment is probably the best incentive. (DNR3)

You know um simply that I think it would be it's something that makes me feel important like my opinion matters you can call it personal recognition you know someone says thank you know. (DFW4)

1.2. Show me your appreciation (DNR: 4, DFW: 4).

This element of the theme reflects the expectation from interviewees that their efforts as volunteers should be appreciated by the volunteer organization. For example, interviewees in

both organizations expressed the positive feeling gained by simply having the volunteer organization staff say “thank you” in simple verbal form and/or in modest material items (e.g., hats and tee shirts).

I think the obligation is after you've committed [other interviewees are indicating agreement] but before that it's we feel appreciated, so we are inclined to do it again. Other: yeah. (DNR4)

The one thing that I think for retention [retaining volunteers] assuming they got all these other things up and going for retention would be appreciation and acknowledgment in a lighthearted way and continual very regular way . . . Other: so, you learned to that we have to be appreciated, and then we expect you to follow through, an evaluation, and some sort of an email. (DFW2)

Thanks, and appreciation, yeah it really motivates some people to return that they were appreciated that their efforts their slopping around in the rain that somebody said “thank you for doing this and we'd like to have you back”. (DFW3)

Preparatory Behavior: Hedonic and Emotion Motivation Themes

A number of hedonic motivational themes that emerged for end-state volunteerism also appear to be sources of motivation for engaging in preparatory behaviors. These themes include the *prospect of fun with others*, the incentive of *project enjoyment*, the *need to feel valued and appreciated* by the volunteer organization, and the desire *to be in a positive mental state* (i.e., protect self-esteem or ego defense). Hedonic themes that appear to be unique to preparatory behavior include *protecting self*, *getting prepared is fun*, and the *need to have certainty (avoid uncertainty)*.

Protecting Self. (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). At the broader level of pro-environmental behavior, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) note that people are motivated by what are referred to as personal needs that include comfort and wellness. The source of motivation for this preparatory theme is hedonic in the form of the desire to avoid discomfort and personal harm, both mentally and physically. This theme includes three sub-themes: *protecting self-esteem, need to be physically comfortable, and protecting physical well-being – safety and security.*

1.1. Protecting self-esteem. (DNR: 1, DFW: 0).

The desire to maintain positive self-esteem was present only for DNR. Interviewees shared thoughts on being motivated to do preparations in order to avoid being a burden to others at the volunteer event or letting others down in some way. The desire to maintain a positive self-esteem (and avoiding negative self-esteem) was also present for end-state volunteerism.

I mean I feel like that's just my responsibility I said we are going to bring these things if I don't bring them, I feel like a schmuck Other: feel like you're letting them down, yeah. (DNR2)

1.2. Need to feel physically comfortable at the event. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4).

This sub-theme reflects interviewees' interests in attempting to make sure to avoid environmental situations such as getting wet, cold, hungry, and the uncomfortable prospect of not having a bathroom available. This desire appeared to be an important motivation for doing preparations to ensure personal physical comfort while volunteering. This theme was present for both DNR and DFW.

Well, I had the warmest clothes that I could find that I owned, and I still got quite cold . . . and I think I like B's idea just make it a shorter duration I'd still go just when you start to feel cold call it off . . . (DNR1)

What's the weather how to dress for, you know is it wet snow and ice whatever, do we need to bring a lunch, is there a bathroom facility if not, bring a small shovel to dig a cat hole and some wet wipes because you know when you're out there you gotta go you gotta go. (DNR1)

And I'll be situational depending on what the project is if I'm going to work out in the woods it's I'm gonna make sure I have appropriate clothing. (DFW4)

1.3. Protecting well-being--to feel safe, healthy and secure. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4).

This sub-theme emerged from both organizations and appeared to be driven by concerns for personal safety, health, and security, going beyond just personal comfort.

If you're working out in the woods get a medical list it doesn't matter if you're riding or hiking or on your quad or on your bike a list of your medications and a person to contact. (DNR1)

I have like a go pack a go bag it's got every gear emergency stuff in it you know food water shelter worst case scenario I'm probably good for a day or two I'm not going to die wouldn't be comfortable but I'm to make it home . . . (DFW4)

. . . and then also my own preparation like how much I need to know about what I'm going to be doing . . . like that's really important for me and if I don't have like a very clear picture of what it is sometimes, I don't want to push fate. (DFW1)

Prospect of Having Fun (DNR: 3, DFW: 4). Theme consists of three sub-themes: getting prepared is fun, self-centered project fun, and the prospect of having fun with others. Of

these sub-themes, knowing the volunteer event will be fun, and the prospect of having fun with others also emerged as sources of end-state motivation for volunteerism.

1.1. Getting prepared is fun. (DNR: 1, DFW: 3)

For some interviewees in both levels, the thought of doing preparations was viewed as something fun to look forward to doing for its own rewards. The types of preparations described include making lists and organizing and packing (and re-packing) one's gear and equipment that they intend to bring.

I enjoy making a list [of things to do to prepare] for G [her husband] [group laughter]. (DNR2)

I love it sometimes I unpack my gear just to repack my gear [group laughter] stay up late at night tying fishing leaders even though I have plenty you know, I'll set three alarm clocks just to make sure I wake up on time and I wake up 30 minutes before the first one goes off (more laughter) yeah, I love it. Other: I'm the same way, there is like maybe two days a month where I actually wake up to the alarm clock I enjoyed the whole logistics thing mapping out the trip and all that I pride myself on not making anybody wait on me because I'm late and also all the prep gear like J says and that's one thing that wasn't mentioned um some of these like well like the survey of the elk survey we had to bring GPS gear and a camera and a logbook and this that and that and making out your request requirements list and making sure it's (unintelligible) get out of sight out of mind if you don't set it out I like put things under my car keys make sure I got (he laughs a little) I have to have my car keys to go somewhere well then I'll remember that yeah the thing that's underneath the car keys I need to bring. (DFW3)

1.2. Self-centered project fun (versus fun with others). (DNR: 1, DFW: 3)

The motivation for doing preparations reflected in this sub-theme is about being motivated to engage in preparations based on the prospect of having fun later at the volunteer event. This theme was also present as an end-state motivation for volunteerism, suggesting it can persist as a source of motivation from initial commitment into facilitating making preparations. This sub-theme could be combined with the sub-theme of having fun with others, but I have kept it separate since the emphasis here is on the fun of doing the tangible aspects of the project (e.g., building a bridge), versus the social aspect of doing something with others. This theme was present in both organizational levels.

Yeah, it's fun. Me: and why is it pleasant and fun? Just because I know what I'm going to be doing you know why I'm gathering this stuff what I'm going to be doing using it for just anticipating the fun day. (DFW4)

1.3. Having fun with others. (DNR: 3, DFW: 1)

This theme is about the social motivation aspect of having fun with others that motivates interviewees to do their preparations. This theme was also present as an end-state motivation for volunteerism, suggesting it can persist or carry over as a source of motivation from initial commitment into facilitating preparations. This sub-theme was elaborated on in the DNR context. This may be accounted for by the social make-up of a number of the DNR focus groups which included fellow members of the same clubs.

I think volunteering is fun it's an exploration and adventure and so just sharing [on social media] that I'm going to be doing that and secretly hoping that they join me . . . (DFW2)

Me: so that reward [for doing his preparations] is when you turn that key on that means you? I'm free I'm on my way to this event and this experience seeing my friends having a good time I know how to do it or I'm thinking about it yeah that's the release as soon as I leave home. (DNR2)

To be in a positive mental state (avoiding negative feelings) (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). This source of motivation involves two sub-themes, and they both involve doing preparations out of a desire to maintain a positive mental state. One is the desire *to feel mentally prepared and committed*, and the other is the desire *to have certainty (to avoid uncertainty)* regarding making preparations.

1. To Feel Mentally Prepared. (DNR: 5, DFW: 3).

This sub-theme is about the desire to be in a positive mental state and to have a feeling of commitment to volunteer. One focus group member used the term “mindset” to describe getting into a positive mental state about the nature of the volunteer work they were preparing for. The elements for this theme include *getting mentally prepared*, and *feeling committed*.

1.1. Getting mentally prepared (DNR: 3, DFW: 3).

Interviewees described making a conscious effort to get themselves in a positive mental state as part of their preparations.

Also getting just mentally prepared the day before or the morning of saying that “I am going to get out of bed and make some coffee and get out of the house early and go to this event and get it done” rather than you know blowing it off. (DFW3)

. . . the mindset. Other: yeah, and the mindset. Me: and when you mean mindset how do you describe that? Um I'm preparing myself to do like a lot of like am I moving rock am I you know are we like cutting brush or you know that if I have an

idea of what I'm getting into on my way then I can either get kinda get psyched for what I'm doing you know and not be like "oh I was hoping were doing this".
(DNR2)

1.2. Feeling committed helps me to do my preparations. (DNR: 3, DFW: 0)

DNR interviewees expressed being motivated by their felt commitments to others, but this feeling of commitment, or affective commitment, was not expressed by DFW as a source of motivation for their preparatory activities. This theme was also present in my findings as an end-state motivation for volunteerism, suggesting it can persist as a source of motivation beyond initial commitment through doing preparations. For DNR, there were a number of focus groups made of up club members with various aligned interests ranging from equestrian clubs (i.e., Backcountry Horsemen) and off-road vehicle trail riding clubs. This club affiliation among interviewees may help to account for the presence of this theme for DNR.

You know no matter what we volunteer at because every one of us will probably be there if we say were going to be there to volunteer you know . . . we will try to do everything in our power to be there and so you know will do our all our homework ["homework" here means chores around their home] at odd times that you would normally do it to be able to go volunteer. (DNR4)

2. Having certainty about preparations (avoiding uncertainty). (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

This motivation element involves the need to have a sense of certainty (to avoid feelings of uncertainty) related to one's preparations. Interviewees indicated a preference for being in a state of certainty throughout, but being in a state of certainty at the preparatory stage, according to interviewees, means, for example, making sure not to forget an item or taking care of something, and knowing where to go and when to be there. Conversely, focus groups noted the

negative feelings associated with being in a state of uncertainty, such as stress and anxiety, due to feeling unprepared for the volunteer event. This theme was present for both organizations.

You know I think that when we agree we are going to volunteer that we know that you know that's just part of the package um you know it feels good to be prepared it feels good to go to sleep at night knowing when you get up in the morning that you have your act together always feels good to have your act together. (DFW4)

Yeah, I don't like being unprepared it makes me feel uneasy. (DNR2)

. . . I just think that well sure I got all my I's dotted Tees crossed all my ducks in a row in any other metaphor you can think of . . . I just have it firmly ensconced in my mind where you know what's going to be required to have a successful outing just make sure everything's in place that way I don't have to have discomfort. (DFW3)

Feeling Valued and Appreciated as a Volunteer (DNR: 1, DFW: 4). This theme was a motivation for both end-state volunteerism and preparations, and it was present in both organizations. While largely hedonic in nature, this theme may also involve normative expectations in the form of reciprocity, as in being motivated to engage in preparatory behavior by being recognized and appreciated by the volunteer organization for their efforts. The results of such appreciation may also promote feelings of self-esteem and self-worth. Interviewees described a range of expectations for how the volunteer organization should be treating the volunteers. The inverse of this is reflected in the hedonic form of behavioral constraints. For example, if individuals perceive that they are not being treated appropriately, such treatment may produce negative thoughts and emotions toward the volunteer organization. Accordingly, volunteer organizations should try to understand how volunteers feel about their treatment from

both a hedonic and normative expectation point of view. There are two sub-themes that comprise this main theme: *recognition*, and *maintain personal contact*.

1.3. Recognition. (DNR: 1, DFW: 4)

As a source of motivation for preparatory behavior, being recognized as a volunteer by the volunteer organization was present for both DNR and DFW. It was also present as an end-state motivation. This suggests that showing recognition and appreciation can be effective at motivating would-be volunteers to engage in their preparations, as well as retaining existing volunteers.

I still kinda like idea of having DNR representative visiting user groups at their meetings . . . it would give recognition to the groups . . . (DNR1)

. . . if you have a leader who wants to share back and give an incentive for the volunteers to come back you always want that closure and say "yeah we did this" in that way like C said we can share in everyone else's successes that should be always part of the follow-through because that is important. (DFW2)

1.4. Maintain personal contact and active engagement. (DNR: 1, DFW: 4)

Interviewees expressed the importance of having the volunteer organization respond and engage with them promptly once they have reached out to express their interest in volunteering. This personal contact emerged as an important action that may help to recruit and retain volunteers, and help to keep them motivated to do their preparations

So a great example is yourself [he's referring to me] you sent you solicited a response I responded and I think that next day or that night not sure you responded and you said amen thanks here's the program so a quick response and you know a

volley back to me saying here's what we're going to be doing, and so "yes I'm interested" "well then here's what you need to do" that was yours was good and you and you put me at ease with you know. (DFW4)

Keep your volunteers informed. Other: I would say the same thing. (DFW4)

Summary of Hedonic and Emotion Motivational Themes

Interviewees in both organizations indicated that they are thinking about how volunteering and preparing to volunteer will affect their feelings and emotional state (see Table 3 below).

The prospect of experiencing positive feelings and emotions appeared to be an important source of motivation. A new finding is that the prospect of experiencing positive feelings, both while engaged in preparations and as a consequence of being prepared while volunteering, are sources of motivation for engaging in preparations. For example, the very act of doing preparations can be a positive (fun) experience. Additionally, the need to be physically comfortable while volunteering as a motivation to prepare was elaborated on in both organizations as well as the need to look out for one's general well-being in terms of personal safety and health.

Given that positive feelings and emotions are sources of motivation for engaging in both preparations and end-state volunteerism, volunteer organizations should strive to make volunteering something that is fun to both prepare for and participate in.

Table 3. Hedonic and Emotion Motivational Themes

Table 3	
* Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Motivations	
**End-State Motivational Themes	**Preparatory Motivational Themes
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Social Satisfaction Incentive/Reward: Feelings of Togetherness (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. To be with like-minded with a common goal (4/4) 1.2. <u>Fun with others – social fun (5/4)</u> 1.3. Personal connection with organizational staff (2/3) 2. <u>Project Enjoyment (type of work is satisfying on its own) (6/4)</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. Achievement satisfaction (6/4) 2.2. <u>Self-centered enjoyment: just being outside, change in my routine and place, having my pet with me (6/4)</u> 3. Guilt and Regret Avoidance Ego defense (0/3) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1. Avoiding guilt later by doing something now (0/2) 3.2. Having regrets – making amends for past behavior (0/3) 4. Stewardship pride (4/4) 5. <u>To feel committed to doing something (0/1)</u> 6. <u>Feeling Valued and Appreciated: Treatment Expectations on the volunteer organization (5/4)</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6.1. Acknowledgment incentive (2/4) 6.2. To be appreciated (4/4) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Protecting self (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Need to feel physically comfortable at the event (4/4) 1.2. To Avoid Failure: Protect positive self-esteem – to not fail in front of others (1/0) 1.3. Protecting physical well-being to feel physically safe, healthy and secure (3/4) 2. <u>Prospect of having fun (3/4)</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. Self-centered: Getting prepared is fun (1/3) 2.2. <u>Self-centered project fun: Project enjoyment fun for me (1/3)</u> 2.3. <u>Prospect of having fun with others (3/1)</u> 3. Need to be in a positive mental state (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1. <u>Need To feel mentally prepared and committed (5/3)</u> 3.2. To have certainty (avoid uncertainty) about being prepared (3/4) 4. <u>Feeling Valued and Appreciated: Treatment Expectations on the volunteer organization (1/4)</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4.1. Recognition and respect of volunteers (1/3) 4.2. Maintain personal contact: Maintain active contact with volunteers between events (0/3)
<p>*Underlined constraints indicate that they were present in both end-state volunteering and preparations contexts. **The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.</p>	

Being in a positive mental state or mood about the prospect of volunteering appeared to be a source of motivation to do preparations. Interviewees emphasized that their mental state was helped when they had sufficient information about the event so as to avoid experiencing uncertainty, such as not knowing what type of work they will be doing. Interviewees indicated that being in a positive mental state about the volunteer event was a key factor in their decision

to participate. Accordingly, volunteer organizations should provide detailed information about volunteer events well in advance of an event to prevent feelings of anxiety and uncertainty about how and what to prepare for.

The theme of social satisfaction emerged from the interviews and includes the positive feelings one experiences when being with like-minded others and having a personal connection with volunteer organization staff. This source of motivation may serve as a mediating and/or moderating effect on other sources of motivation for volunteerism (Asah & Blahna, 2012). For example, having friends that also volunteer was a source of motivation (e.g. Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Donald, 1997), and being in a group environment was part of the construct that Miles et al. (1998) characterized as motivation for participation. Meeting people with similar interests and like-mindedness was also found to be a source of motivation (Asah & Blahna, 2012; Asah et al., 2014; Weinstein & Manzo, 1993). From a preparatory perspective, interviewees in both organizations expressed the prospect of having fun with important others as a motivation to engage in preparations. This suggests that the prospect of experiencing positive social interaction is an important motivation factor that volunteer organizations should include as part of a recruitment and retention strategy. For example, working with existing social groups, such as a club, where there is already in place a social connection between volunteers; this social connection may increase the chances that the event will be an enjoyable experience that will serve as a motivation for engaging in preparations.

Other sources of positive feelings and emotion themes found in both organizations had more to do with the self than with the social situation. These included feelings of achievement gained from completing something that is personally tangible, such as building a trail or

removing invasive plants from an area. Being outside and doing something different from one's regular routine were also important motivations. From the literature, doing something personally worthwhile has previously been identified, for example as *meaningful action* (Asah et al., 2014; Miles et al., 1998), *feeling of doing something useful* (Ryan et al., 2001), and *feeling of doing something worthwhile* (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Experiencing the natural environment has been identified as *reflective* (Donald, 1997; Roggenbuck, 2000), a *chance to be away* (Miles et al., 1998), *to feel connected to my surrounding landscape* (Asah & Blahna, 2012), and *get outside* (Asah et al., 2014). For the *change in routine* motivation theme that emerged from the interviews, only a few studies identified similar sources of motivation. Miles et al (1998) had a variable in the *chance to be away* factor labeled *breaking out of the routine*; and Asah and Blahna (2012) suggest the concept of a change in routine in the factor construct labeled *escape and exercise*. Interviewees talked about these motivations mainly in terms of why they volunteer more generally, as opposed to these being motivations for doing preparations. The one exception was the theme of *project enjoyment*; it was a source of motivation for both end-state and preparations. This highlights the importance of the emotional element of both the volunteering and preparatory experiences as a source of motivation that volunteer organizations should understand and try to address.

The emotion of pride in ownership or taking on responsibility for outcomes was an end-state motivation elaborated on by interviewees in both organizations. This theme included feeling positive as a result of taking care of a recreation site, or, more abstractly, taking responsibility for protecting access and use of natural resources from a broader management perspective, for example, protecting fishing and motorized access to natural resource lands in

general. The only specific mention of pride motivation in the literature came from Asah et al. (2014) and was identified as belonging to an *ego defense* theme. This orientation is similar to a finding from this research where the emotion of pride involved the positive feeling gained from being responsible for a place, where such feelings may also serve to guard one's ego. Being motivated to volunteer in order to resolve or avoid experiencing negative feelings and protecting one's ego was important in the DFW context. For example, avoiding the negative emotions of guilt and regret for personal past behavior in terms of how they have used, or misused natural resources appeared to be a reason to volunteer in the DFW context. The theme of enhancing self-esteem was reported as a general motivation by Bruyere and Rappe (2007) and Asah et al. (2014), and it also emerged as a theme in my research as both an end-state and a preparatory motivation. This finding also aligns with Clary et al. (1998) regarding motivations for volunteering at a more general level of volunteerism, which they termed a *protective* function that was described as a motivation to reduce negative feelings about oneself. In other words, to reduce feelings of guilt. Collectively, these findings suggest that people are more likely to volunteer when they believe it makes them feel good about themselves.

The volunteer organization as an entity appears to also be a potential source of motivation (and constraint) for both end-state and preparatory behaviors. Interviewees in both organizations described the desire to feel valued and appreciated by the volunteer organization. The prospect of experiencing this positive emotion may be a particularly important part of a strategy for retaining or sustaining participation. This finding differs from Katz and Kahn (1978), where they found the need to feel part of an organization was necessary in order to feel better about themselves. That is, the source of motivation is not so much about feeling like they were part of a team, but

rather, it was important that the volunteer organization recognized and appreciated them for their efforts. Additionally, this source of motivation was also present for preparatory behavior, which suggests it can help to both recruit and retain volunteers since it may be a key factor when people are making case by case decisions to volunteer.

The theme of feeling committed, as an end-state motivation, was present only in the DFW context as an emotional state, but it was present in both organizations for preparations. This theme reflects the desire to feel committed to something versus a normative form of commitment such as feeling socially obligated to take part in a volunteer event that one had signed up for previously. Asah and Blahna (2013) identified the factor of *affective commitment* from among a sample of conservation volunteers where social interactions and one's connection to community were significant predictors of that form of commitment. Findings from this research support the social and community affective elements of this form of commitment. Additionally, findings indicate that this form of commitment may also be a motivation for preparations. From a volunteer recruitment and retention perspective, volunteer organizations may find that emotional ties to one's in-group or community are likely important sources of motivation to volunteer and to do preparations. Accordingly, volunteer organization may benefit from identifying social groups, such as user groups, that have an interest in volunteering for specific types of volunteer projects as a way of utilizing the emotional commitments that may already exist among the group membership.

In summary, interviewees reported being motivated by a broad range of feelings and emotions that can motivate both end-state volunteerism and preparations. From a goal-oriented perspective, hedonic and emotional goals may be important drivers in the context of pro-

environmental behavior such as volunteerism (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). Given that positive feelings and emotions may be important motivators, one behavioral heuristic would-be volunteers may be using as a source of motivation is the peak-end rule (Fredrickson, 2000), which involves the influence of affective experiences, such as emotions, moods, pleasure and pain, on people's decisions and evaluations about the future. The term 'peak' refers to the point in one's prospect or recollection of the moment of greatest affective experience, and the 'end' affect is that which is experienced at the end of an event. For example, in a volunteering context, the peak experience may be meeting close friends at the start of a volunteer event (a positive peak affect experience) that produces the most intense affect experience of the entire event. Then at the end the volunteer event, one may receive a hat or tee shirt (or some other form of recognition and appreciation) from the volunteer organization (a positive end affect). The peak-end rule predicts that these peak-end affective experiences are used as a heuristic or rule of thumb as a decision aid about participating in similar volunteer events in the future. Given that feelings and emotions appear to be part of the preparatory experience, the rule may apply to that behavior stage as well. For example, interviewees described looking forward to activity of organizing and packing their gear for the volunteer event, but on the other hand, where volunteering and preparations are remembered as negative experiences, would-be volunteers might be less motivated to engage in preparations.

Organizational Differences

For end-state volunteerism, motivations in the form of social satisfaction rewards were elaborated on in both DNR and DFW organizations. The sub-theme of *having fun with others*

spanned both end-state and preparatory behaviors and was elaborated on in the DNR context. This may be due to a number of the DNR focus groups consisting of fellow club members where there may have been more of a social connection between participants. Enjoying the type of work or project was elaborated on in both organizations. Being able to do other forms of activity outside of their regular daily routine was elaborated on by DFW but less so for DNR.

The guilt and regret avoidance themes were only present for DFW. This may be due to the general differences in the orientations of recreation preferences and other interests reflected by the interviewees in each organization, for example, the DNR focus groups were primarily composed of non-take or non-harvesting recreational interests. However, the DFW organization included recreation and wildlife conservation interests that involved some form of take or harvesting, such as fishing and hunting of game, where the source of guilt involved concerns of over harvesting and not doing more to change harvesting behavior sooner.

Stewardship pride was present in both organizations. A related theme of feeling emotionally committed or having a sense of a purpose gained from doing something was only present for DFW. The theme of feeling valued and appreciated by the volunteer organization was elaborated on in both organizations and was also a source of motivation for preparatory behaviors; therefore, this appreciation may be something for volunteer organizations to frequently demonstrate to would-be volunteers as part of a strategy to retain participation.

The preparatory theme of protecting self was present in both organizations. This included the sub-theme of the desire to be physically comfortable while volunteering. Concern for one's own wellbeing (i.e., feeling safe and secure) while volunteering was expressed by both DNR and DFW. Protecting self-esteem (in the eyes of important others) was only present for DNR, which

may be due to some of the focus groups consisting of fellow club members, which could lead to possibly being more self-conscious about how important others from their own group may perceive them.

The prospect of having fun was a theme elaborated on in both organizations. Interviewees indicated that they are motivated to do preparations for both the immediate reward of feeling prepared (e.g., organizing one's gear the night before) and/or the prospect of having fun when volunteering. In other words, having fun during preparations can help sustain one's preparations toward successful completion, which facilitates engagement in end-state volunteerism.

As a general theme, the desire to be in a positive mental state or mood about the prospect of volunteering appeared to be an important motivation for preparations for both organizations. The sub-theme of feeling committed was present for DNR context but not for DFW. This difference may be due to the different nature of participants between these two organizations; the DNR organization involved multiple members from the same club, but that did not appear to be the case with DFW. Accordingly, the form of commitment may be to one's in-group rather than a commitment to being a volunteer for an outside organization. Additionally, having a feeling of certainty about the details of the volunteer event, and what they need to do to be materially prepared, was elaborated on in both organizations.

For preparatory behavior, the theme of feeling valued and appreciated was present in both organizations and elaborated on by the DFW organization. This may be associated with the perception that the DFW volunteer program could do a better job of being responsive and engaged with would-be volunteers. This theme was also a source of motivation for end-state volunteerism in both organizations.

Normative Motivation Themes

A number of normative-oriented motivational themes emerged from the interviews. Normative effects were present in both DNR and DFW organizations and for both end-state and preparatory behavior. It appears that people are motivated by both personal and social norms to engage in preparatory behaviors that can facilitate their volunteerism. These norms include expectations for themselves and for others.

End-State Normative Motivations

Normative Expectations for Self and Others (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). Interviewees in both organizations expressed their expectations for themselves and others to act in ways that meet perceived personal and social norms. Interviewees expressed the importance of following through on their own commitments to volunteer. This was especially important when the commitment is to one's group or club. In the case where focus groups believed others among them were meeting expectations, then those beliefs appeared to be a positive influence on their own motivation level to volunteer. This theme was elaborated on in both organizations. The normative expectation sub-themes are *expecting support from other volunteers* and *maintaining credibility with others*.

1.1. Expecting support from other volunteers to share the work. (DNR: 1, DFW: 0)

This social normative sub-theme represents comments expressed in just one DNR focus group (none from DFW) about the importance of having support from others while doing the volunteering. This may be due to the composition of this particular focus group being members of Backcountry Horsemen that were expressing concerns about other groups not volunteering.

For example, expecting other volunteers to help out and share in the effort to help maintain a hiking trail used by both hikers and horse riders. When this expectation is perceived as being complied with, it appears to have a positive influence on the perceiver's own motivation to volunteer.

I think it's the knowledge that the other those groups will be there we wouldn't go out and do it if we thought nobody else is going to be there so that would be a reason to say "no" I'm not going to do it. (DNR4)

1.2. Maintaining credibility with others. (DNR: 4, DFW: 4)

This normative sub-theme was present in both organizations and is about maintaining credibility with important others within the volunteering context (e.g., friends, club members, and the volunteer organization). Focus groups expressed feeling a strong bond or obligation to follow through on commitments made to others.

Well, there is that sense of commitment especially when the club as a club commits volunteer hours and somebody stands up and says "okay we volunteered X amount of hours were a little behind we really need to you know we want to keep our credibility" . . . (DNR2)

No, I just, I can't stand it when people don't keep commitments, I mean that's somebody gives me their word that you're gonna do something I expect that they will be there, and do it unless they break their leg and can't walk. Other: you expect them to be big boys and girls. Yeah, it's just a no-brainer for me. (DFW1)

Preparatory Normative Motivations

Maintain positive social relations with important others (DNR: 3, DFW: 2). This theme spans both end-state volunteerism and preparatory behavior. It is about maintaining positive relationships with important others by following perceived norms relevant to the situation. For preparatory behaviors, the important other mentioned was often a spouse or partner. For example, making sure one's spouse was consulted regarding any possible scheduling conflicts, and then seeking solutions to those conflicts in various ways.

Well, I took my wife for a ride I rode the Harley, she rode her Can-Am Spider and we had a nice ride yesterday so I could come here [to this focus group] today and that's you know those of the kind of trade-offs you do. (DNR4)

. . . my wife she's understanding if something came up and you know it conflicts with something you have to pay attention to that of course . . . (DFW1)

. . . and then I know that you know the "Queen Bee" [his wife] can be around to take care these if she wants to go with me then we have someone come in and take care of the pets that sort of thing. (DFW4)

Need to meet other personal obligations (DNR: 2, DFW: 4). This sub-theme is about being motivated by personal norms or moral responsibility to meet personal obligations. These perceived obligations included taking care of household pets, doing school homework, household chores, and taking care of obligations at work as part of the preparatory process. This theme reflects the importance interviewees assigned to the normative preparations that needs to be done in order to be able to volunteer, out of a sense of personal obligation or responsibility.

. . . so, someone to feed the stock at home that's left making sure the house and the property is taken care of, so you have to have someone come in and take care of, so there's a little bit of planning behind being able to volunteer. (DNR1)

. . . once I get up before I leave to make sure that the dogs have been out you know they've gotten their exercise. (DFW1)

. . . and then my school schedule so either have my homework done prior to or sometimes I have this idea that I can just take my laptop and then do my homework while I'm out there. (DFW3)

Summary Discussion of Normative Motivational Themes

Having expectations of the self was a theme in both organizations and for both end-state and preparatory behaviors (see Table 4 below). As a source of motivation for end-state volunteerism, living up to what one believes they ought to be doing is an important source of motivation. One example is volunteering because it is the right thing to do in a given context, such as when they are a member of a group that has made a commitment to volunteer. In such cases, this may also reflect the desire to protect one's self-esteem or to avoid feelings of guilt for not volunteering with their group. Cialdini (2007) has identified the principle of commitment-consistency wherein people are motivated to follow through on their commitments. This highlights the influence from important others, such as fellow members in a club, to follow through on their commitments to the group. For example, club members may feel more obligated to volunteer when they observe other club members volunteering.

Table 4. Normative Motivational Themes

Table 4 Normative Motivational Themes*	
**End-State Normative Themes	**Preparatory Normative Themes
1. Expectations for self and others (5/4) 1.1. Social norm: Expecting support from other volunteers to share the work (1/0) 1.2. Personal norm: maintaining credibility with important others within their non-family associations. (4/4)	1. Expectations on the self (3/4) 1.1. Maintain positive social relations with important others (e.g., family groups) (3/2) 1.2. Address other obligations with work, property, and pets (2/4)
<p>*<u>Underlined constraints indicate that the theme was present in both end-state volunteering and preparations contexts.</u></p> <p>**The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.</p>	

Expectations of the self as a source of motivation for preparations was especially apparent when focus groups were thinking about maintaining positive relationships with important others, such as spouses or partners (e.g., making sure family matters were taken care of). It was also important in regard to other obligations including one’s employer and personal property responsibilities (e.g., permission to take time off, and taking care of yard work, pets, and livestock).

A new finding in the context of volunteering in general was the social normative expectation that others should be sharing in work. This could be characterized as a fairness norm. This appeared to be important when one group had expectations that another group should also be contributing volunteer time. For example, believing that the work of maintaining a recreation trail that is available to a range of user groups, such as equestrians and mountain bikers, should be shared by those groups who are benefiting. When such a norm is perceived as being complied

with, it appears to serve as a source of motivation. Past research on motivations for pro-environmental behavior have identified the influence of social norms, but not in the form of an expectation being projected on others that must be complied with as a condition of their own participation. In this sense, it is a preparatory or pre-condition for participation on the part of group has the expectation that needs to be complied with in the form of other groups sharing the work.

Personal and social norms appear to be sources of motivation (and constraint, see Chapter Four) for interviewees in both organizations. The influence of important others in group settings, such as clubs, may be particularly important sources of motivation to volunteer. For example, establishing positive relationships with user group leaders that have influence on group memberships may be an effective strategy to increase and retain participation.

From the literature, normative influences on end-state behavior are important factors in a number of behavioral models commonly applied in the domain of pro-environmental behavior; these include the Norm Activation Theory of Altruism (Schwartz, 1977), the Value Beliefs Norms (VBN) theory (Stern, 2000), and the normative goal element of Goal Framing Theory (e.g. Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). Both personal and social norms are sources of motivation in the form of felt obligations to behave in various ways (Koger & Winter, 2010). Within the domain of conservation volunteerism, Asah et al. (2014) identified *altruism*, *community*, and *help environment* themes that suggest a felt normative obligation to act pro-environmentally. Findings from this current research suggests that norms are also impacting preparations, and that they are involved with social and personal factors other than and/or in addition to environmental factors.

Organizational difference

Expectations of other groups to contribute time volunteering on a project was present in DNR but not DFW. This may be due to the DNR focus groups having a large proportion of participants that recreate outdoors on trails that are shared with other user groups, and thus may have a higher expectation for others to share in the volunteering. Living up to one's perceived obligations to maintain personal credibility in the eyes of important others in non-family group contexts was elaborated on in both organizations. In terms of preparatory behaviors, the motivation to maintain positive relations with important others in family social situations was elaborated on in both DNR and DFW organizations, as was living up to other obligations regarding one's employer and personal property.

Chapter Summary Discussion

Preparatory behaviors and related motivations and constraints had not been explored in the context of volunteerism until this research. Interviewees in both organizations have indicated that they necessarily engage in preparatory behavior to enable themselves to engage in a desired end-state volunteerism. By examining the motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior in a given context, such as volunteerism, a deeper understanding about what may be facilitating and inhibiting end-state volunteerism can be achieved. Consequently, volunteer-dependent natural resource organizations may benefit from understanding the motivations and constraints on peoples' preparations and then applying that information to the design of volunteer recruitment and retention strategies. Additionally, exploring the motivations and constraints on preparatory

behavior may also have theoretical value for modeling pro-environmental behavior and behavior change.

The range of preparatory behaviors that I have identified through this research include preparatory cognitions that involve decision making, knowledge gaining, and planning. Other forms of preparations include physical activity, such as gathering and organizing equipment and supplies, and social interactions with important others to gain support, both psychologically and materially, for one's volunteerism.

In the early stages of preparations, interviewees described being engaged in a thought process that leads to either some level of commitment to volunteer or a decision to not participate. This decision-making process, which I have categorized as a type of preparatory cognition, was present in both DNR and DFW organizations. When talking about making a commitment to volunteer, interviewees described what they were likely (prospectively) to experience when doing their preparations in addition to their end-state volunteering experience. That is, how one imagines what their preparatory experience will be like appears to be an important consideration when deciding whether or not to make a personal commitment to volunteer.

This preparatory thinking may be a form of situational appraisal (Eysenck & Keane, 2015). Weick (1985) describes a form of situational appraisal that he termed 'sensemaking' which is a way of giving meaning to a person's experiences. Klien et al. (2007) applied the term 'anticipatory thinking' to a form of sensemaking that they define as 'the ability to prepare in time for problems and opportunities [where] people are preparing themselves for future events, not simply predicting what might happen' (p. 1). From a motivational and constraint perspective,

interviewees described how their appraisal of the volunteer organization, ranging from positive to negative, was an important factor in their decision to volunteer. They also described thinking ahead about their preparations, for example, in terms of the personal resources needed to make plans, and how they were expecting to feel physically and mentally. Gaining an understanding of what would-be volunteers are expecting their volunteering experience is going to be like may help volunteer organizations to focus in on specific motivations and constraints that may be unique for a given target population it is trying to recruit. For example, providing portable toilets in remote locations may remove an important barrier for some target groups.

It appears that all forms of preparatory behaviors (i.e., cognitions, physical activities, and social interactions) may be interacting and feeding back as positive and negative influences on the level of commitment to volunteer. In this sense, the concept of commitment is dynamic over time and can fluctuate in strength from when an initial commitment is made, up to, and including, actual engagement in the desired volunteerism. For example, interviewees noted that making a decision to volunteer (a type of preparatory cognition) may require new information, which initiates knowledge seeking, and if there is uncertainty due to lack of knowledge, then progress on one's preparations may be stalled. Furthermore, if others, such as the volunteer organization, are not responsive to requests for information, this may be perceived as a violation of the reciprocity norm (e.g. Cialdini, 2007). This, in turn, may contribute to a negative appraisal of the organization and be accompanied with negative feelings, such as resentment, toward the organization. The result could be dis-engagement in preparations and/or re-evaluation of one's initial commitment to volunteer, possibly leading to a decision not to participate. Future opportunities to volunteer with the same organization may then be subject to one's perception

(recall) of past experiences. How these experiences are evaluated, both positively and negatively, may have an impact on the decision whether or not to volunteer in the future. In this way, one's previous end-state experiences inform preparatory cognitions when it comes to evaluating future volunteering opportunities. Accordingly, it may be important and useful for volunteer organizations trying to recruit and retain volunteers, to understand what would-be volunteers do and think about their preparations, what serves as motivations (and constraints) on those preparations, and how the organization can increase the motivation for preparations that facilitate participation.

The motivational themes I have identified for preparatory and end-state volunteerism fit into three broad categories. These include a) gain and protection of personal resource themes that reflect a calculation or appraisal of personal costs and benefits; b) hedonic and emotion-oriented themes focused on the desire to seek pleasure and experience positive emotions; and c) normative-oriented themes in the form of perceived personal and social normative expectations that may be supporting engagement in volunteerism and preparatory behaviors. These general sources of motivations were present across both DNR and DFW organizations when discussing volunteering in general as well as when they were talking about their motivations for preparatory behavior.

Interviewees provided evidence that sources of motivation to engage in volunteerism can vary by organization. For example, while eco-centric oriented values emerged as a motivation for volunteering for DFW interviewees, it was not present in the DNR organization. Conversely, egocentric oriented values were elaborated on by DNR and relatively less so for DFW.

Interviewees also described being motivated to volunteer by sources in addition to helping the

natural environment. Although not a new finding in the context of volunteerism, it supports the argument that volunteerism is not just about being motivated to save the environment (Steg & Vlek, 2009), and that volunteer-dependent natural resource organizations should tailor recruitment strategies that serve more than altruistic and eco-centric sources of motivations. These findings suggest the importance of gaining an empirical level of understanding about the motivations within the context of a given target population and how the use of focus groups can identify nuanced differences that in turn can be used to identify, recruit, and retain different segments of a larger target population. For example, by identifying DNR user groups and interviewing them to understand their unique motivations for (or lack thereof) volunteering to help DNR.

Interviewees also provided evidence that would-be volunteers can have multiple sources of motivations in a given volunteering context. This finding is consistent with past research in volunteerism (e.g. Kiviniemi et al., 2002; Stern, 2000). Additionally, interviewees indicated that their motivations can differ in level of influence on one's decision to volunteer and may be additive or cumulative in influence. This cumulative effect finding supports the community-based social marketing concept that by increasing the perceived benefits (i.e., motivations) gained from engaging in the target behavior (along with reducing barriers to the behavior) the target population is more likely to engage in the desired end-state behavior (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011).

Focus group interviewees described a range of motivations for engaging in preparations, and these motivations can be unique and separate from their end-state motivations to volunteer. They include the desire for a positive emotional experience when doing preparations, being able

to live up to one's personal obligation outside of volunteering, and the need to take care of one's comfort and well-being by getting enough rest and nutrition. These are all sources of motivations that directed interviewees toward doing preparations that may also facilitate participation in the end-state behavior yet may not be accounted for and addressed if only the end-state reasons for volunteering have been identified. Accordingly, when it comes to designing strategies to recruit and retain volunteers, it may be important to know what motivates those preparatory behaviors that make it possible to volunteer.

Interviewees in both organizations made it clear that hedonic and emotional factors are important sources of motivation (and constraints). Models used to account for behavioral outcomes or to develop a marketing strategy to recruit and retain participants would likely be more effective by understanding and then addressing the nuances of these factors in the target population and how they serve to facilitate or inhibit participation

Chapter Four: Understanding Constraints on Volunteerism from a Preparatory Behavior Perspective Across Two Natural Resource Management Organizations

I conducted a series of focus group interviews within two volunteer organizations to understand the constraints (and motivations, see Chapter three) on both end-state volunteerism and associated preparations that may inhibit volunteerism; these were Washington State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) and Washington State Department of Fish and Wildlife (DFW). The interview transcripts were analyzed for constraint themes and for organizational differences between DNR and DFW. Understanding the organizational differences may provide nuanced insights into how these and similarly purposed volunteer organizations can tailor social marketing strategies aimed at recruiting and retaining different segments of volunteers. Based on these findings, I make recommendations that may improve the effectiveness of these strategies.

Literature Review

Behavioral constraints on behavior such as volunteerism can play a significant role in participation outcomes (Musick & Wilson, 2008). According to McKenzie-Mohr (2011), in order to successfully persuade people to change their social behavior, a change agent needs to not only understand what motivates members of a community to volunteer, but also what and how constraints may impact people's engagement in the desired behavior.

Constraints can be generally categorized as psychological, social, and structural (Raymore et al., 1993; Lee & Kotler, 2011). For example, psychological barriers, include negative attitudes and beliefs directed at the volunteer organization (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Structural barriers can include perceived lack of free time and lack of access to transportation

(e.g., Musick & Wilson, 2008), and social barriers might include conflicting family responsibilities (e.g., Craig-Lees, Harris, & Lau, 2008).

Behavioral constraints for a given end-state behavior may vary from person to person and also vary with the environmental or situational context; consequently constraints are not often generalizable from one behavior to the next nor from one situation to the next (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Additionally, individuals may experience multiple barriers to performing a socially desirable end-state behavior (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Constraints on volunteerism in general can play a significant role in participation outcomes (Musick & Wilson, 2008).

Accordingly, it is critical to gain an empirical understanding of the range of constraints for a desired target behavior, for a given target population, within a specific context (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 1995). Research in the domain of pro-environmental behavior, has identified barriers such as lack of personal knowledge, negative attitudes toward the desired behavior and external or structural barriers such as inconvenience and logistical challenges (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

Researchers that have recently explored the constraints on volunteerism have noted that there is a scarcity of research identifying types of barriers within that context (e.g. Gage III, 2012). However, there are numerous examples of specific barriers experienced by target communities to other forms of pro-environmental behavior. For example, lack of personal knowledge and negative attitudes toward the target pro-environmental behavior served as barriers among residents in King County, Washington, regarding the environmental effects from residential use of chemical pesticides compared with the use of natural pesticides (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). An effort out of Austin, Texas, to get pet owners to clean up their pet's waste

revealed structural barriers that included lack of convenient locations in public spaces to properly dispose of pet waste, and the prevalent attitude among pet owners that the amount of waste generated by their personal pet was insignificant compared to the perceived problem of city-wide pet waste management (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

In one of the few research efforts that examined constraints specific to volunteering, Gage and Thapa (2012) found that a sample of college students was most constrained by external elements such as limited free time, lack of awareness of volunteering opportunities, and lack of transportation to and from volunteer event locations. Second in overall importance were social constraints, such as not having friends that volunteer, having no one to go volunteering with, and never being personally asked or invited to volunteer; the least constraining dimension was a perceived lack of skills, concern for personal safety, and perceived poor health.

Research aimed at understanding what constrains pro-environmental behavior has focused on end-state behavior. I found no research that explored the influence of constraints on preparatory behavior nor how such a relationship may affect a person's engagement in a desired end-state behavior, such as volunteerism. It has been shown in other domains of behavior change (e.g., public health) that preparatory behavior can account for additional explained variance in the adoption of a desired end-state behavior (van Osch et al., 2010).

Findings and Discussion

I have organized these findings (and the findings on motivations) around three broad constraint themes that emerged from the final (fourth) cycle of transcript coding. These are: a) a range of loss avoidance-oriented constraint themes that reflect a rational appraisal of perceived

personal resource costs and benefits; b) hedonic-emotion oriented constraint themes focused on the desire to avoid or reduce negative feelings and emotions; and c) normative-oriented constraint themes in the form of perceived personal and social norms or expectations of the self and others that may be inhibiting one's engagement in volunteerism and preparatory behaviors. These three themes resemble goal-frames (e.g. Lindenberg & Steg, 2007) that, depending on the nature of the goal, can function as a source of motivation to volunteer and/or engage in preparations, or serve as a constraint on these behaviors. The constraint themes are presented below according to whether they apply to end-state volunteerism, preparatory behavior, or both.

Loss Avoidance Constraint Themes

End-State Constraints on Volunteerism

Focus group interviewees for both DNR and DFW commented on whether and how their personal resources, time, money, and efforts invested in volunteering were going to produce a gain in perceived benefits or, on the other hand, result in a perceived loss of resources. Focus groups described a number of loss-oriented themes that were perceived as possible constraints on their volunteering. These themes were *less fun than other options*, *higher priorities*, and *time and financial costs*.

People have a general self-interest or goal to protect and improve personal resources, including the resources of time, money, and status (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007, p. 124).

According to Lindenberg, people are especially motivated to avoid a loss to personal resources. Lindenberg terms this as the “goal of loss avoidance” (Lindenberg, 2006, p. 35). In other words, the desire to protect their own personal resources can be a constraint on their volunteering and

preparations if one perceives that engaging in such activities will result in a loss of personal resources.

Less Fun Volunteering Compared to Doing Something Else (DNR: 4, DFW: 4).

Interviewees in both organizations talked about other activities they like to do that compete with volunteering. Interviewees described situations where the decision whether or not to volunteer involved assessing how much fun the activity had to offer compared to doing something else.

. . . I have a sailboat I have a kayak I have a mountain bike I have a dog, but she goes with me when I take the horse and trail riding is my prime recreational event so all of those are competing with volunteer time. (DNR4)

. . . and then after June okay anytime we got an open time during the middle of the week we'll be probably gone camping or travel or something like that but beyond that I don't really have a big constraint. (DFW1)

. . . and then there may be other things like you know I much rather go fishing then go out on this you know so my personal preferences. (DFW4)

Personal Financial and Time Costs. (DNR: 3, DFW: 4). Focus groups described personal resource costs of volunteering in terms of personal time and money that could inhibit one's volunteering. This perceived loss/cost in personal resources was present in both organizations. This theme included two elements: *material costs* and *personal time costs*.

Material Costs (DNR: 2, DFW: 2). This sub-theme was present for both organizations. Examples include the general cost of living expenses, the cost of gas for one's vehicle and the concern that if something happens to their personal vehicle while volunteering, it could have an

impact on their ability to get to their place of work. Other perceived costs include the added expense of purchasing a Discover Pass to cover parking fee requirements at both DNR and DFW sites.

For me it's time and finances. (DNR2)

. . . I gotta add would keep me from going out and volunteering is if I had something come up at work I mean if I'm not working, I can't volunteer because you know I have to pay the bills . . . (DNR2)

But also, for like a financial commitment to it so because I budget everything I have and so I want to make sure that I can commit to this in all aspects. (DFW1)

Personal Time Costs – the Price Tag of Time (DNR: 2, DFW: 4). This theme represents how interviewees view their time as a personal value to be used like a commodity in the form of a limited personal resource. This theme was present in both organizations. Impacts on personal time perceived as a cost for volunteering included travel distance, and time spent traveling to and from a volunteer event location, and the amount of time the volunteer event may last.

Another constraint might be distance that I have to travel to volunteer so if it's further away than that's going to be probably less possible. Me: and is it just the overall distance issue? It's the time, it's the time factor. (DFW3)

. . . so, my Saturdays that I get off are very valuable and so I got uh really decide what I'm going to do that day and work parties are generally Saturdays. (DNR2)

Organizational Worthiness (DNR: 3, DFW: 4). This theme involved both a constraint element and was also present as a source of motivation (described in Chapter Three) for volunteering, where interviewees expressed a positive evaluation or attitude toward the volunteer

organization and/or staff. Interviewees in both organizations mentioned the importance of knowing that their time will be put to good use and feeling afterwards that their time spent volunteering was worthwhile. From a constraint perspective, interviewees expressed concerns about the prospect that their time could be wasted due to such things as a disorganized event and feeling that their time will not be put to good use.

. . . but I'll tell you if I show up and it's not organized, and nobody knows what the hell is going on and I feel like I'm wasting my time I'm not going to be back . . .
Other: you don't want to waste people's time. . . so that's what you need to avoid.
(DFW3)

. . . if you feel like you are being you know that your times being wasted you can get away with it once maybe twice, but you will lose the trust of your volunteers.
(DNR5)

Preparatory Constraints: Loss Avoidance Constraint Themes.

The theme of *not enough lead time* emerged as a constraint on preparations. The related preparatory behavior includes planning to make arrangements which also suggest that such arrangements may also include social interactions with important others (e.g., gaining support and approval from important others). This constraint theme was elaborated on in both organizations when making decisions about end-state volunteering. That is, personal time constraints to do preparations are being considered when making decisions about end-state volunteerism. For example, gauging whether or not they are willing or able to afford the time to make arrangements, take time off work, or to invest the time needed to travel/drive to and from a volunteer event.

Personal time costs - not enough lead time. (DNR: 0, DFW: 3). This theme represents how focus groups are viewing personal time as a scarce or limited commodity. For example, when faced with making decisions about spending time volunteering and preparing in cases where higher priorities are competing for that time, interviewees nearly always decided to not volunteer in favor of addressing higher personal priorities. Focus group participants described scenarios where they would receive short notice about a volunteer event and would think that they were less likely to be able to participate due to not having enough time to make arrangements. This theme may coincide with the personal normative constraint theme of the need to take care of other obligations and priorities before volunteering since time limitations were mentioned in that context as well.

. . . but like preparation time like you're saying definitely is a big contributor [to being able to volunteer]. DFW1

Yeah, so definitely just realizing that yourself and you know giving yourself the time to prepare you know whatever physical assets you need to get in a line and certainly like timeline wise before that. (DFW4)

Again, you know normally the more lead time I mean like these guys said, uh usually that's better because then you can set that aside so that I don't plan on doing something else right. (DFW1)

Summary Discussion of Loss Avoidance Constraint Themes

There has been limited research into understanding the constraints on volunteerism (Gage III, 2012), and I found no literature that examined constraints from a preparatory perspective, including the theme of loss avoidance. Within the general constraint theme of protecting

personal resources, my findings are consistent with Gage and Thapa (2012), where they identified structural constraints in the form personal cost or budget limitations and lack of personal time. At the broader level of pro-environmental behavior, the findings are consistent with Gifford (2011) in that sunk costs, in the form of perceived loss of income or financial risk and lost personal time, may be important constraints.

The present research adds new information about how such concerns for loss of personal resources can have a negative influence on engaging in preparatory behavior (see Table 5 below).

Table 5. Personal Resource Cost Avoidance Constraint Themes

Table 5: *Constraints: Personal Resource Cost\Loss Avoidance	
**End-State Loss Avoidance	**Preparatory Loss Avoidance
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Less fun compared to doing something else (4/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Volunteering for the organization is less fun compared to another organization (0/1) 1.2. Volunteering is less fun than doing other things (4/4) 2. Personal financial and time costs (3/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. Personal material cost impacts due to volunteering (3/4) 2.2. Cost in lost income from missing work and also incidental cost (gas, Discover Pass, food) (2/2) 2.3. The price tag of time – <u>personal time</u> as a commodity (2/4) 2.4. Proximity: Distance to travel to event too far (1/4) 2.5. Duration: Takes too much of <u>my free time</u>, and time away from prior commitments (1/3) 3. Perceived organizational worthiness (3/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1. Perceived as untruthful (0/3) 3.2. Perceived as non-supportive (4/4). 3.3. Perceived as unorganized and <u>waste of time</u> (4/4) 3.4. Lack of validation feedback of effort effectiveness (0/4) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Personal time costs</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. <u>Not enough lead time to plan around other priorities</u> (0/3)
<p>*<u>Underlined constraints indicate that the theme was present in both end-state volunteering and preparations contexts.</u></p> <p>**The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.</p>	

For example, perceived lack of time as a constraint on one's volunteerism, in general, has not been examined more deeply to reveal the underlying functional reasons. Interviewees elaborated on how they were taking into consideration the amount of time needed to do all the preparations in addition to the time spent volunteering. In other words, the amount of time spent doing preparations was an important consideration in addition to the time investment in actual volunteering. When people are making a decision whether or not to volunteer and their perception is that they don't have enough time to do all their preparations then such perceptions are more likely to inhibit participation.

From a recruitment and retention perspective, volunteer organizations should gain an understanding from their target populations of what their planning and perceived timeframes are and how the volunteer organization may be able to reduce or resolve any perceived items creating time constraints. For example, removing the need for volunteers to bring/prepare food by providing food and refreshments at the event could help reduce the perceived time constraints related to shopping for and preparing food for the event. Other actions, include relieving the would-be volunteer of any responsibility to collect and bring equipment and tools that they may otherwise think they need to spend time organizing. This suggests that the volunteer organization should make the effort to understand why would-be volunteers are concerned about not having enough time to prepare to volunteer in a given context and then do whatever it can to help the would-be volunteers reduce the time and effort involved in their preparations to volunteer. It also suggests that volunteer organizations should make a point of understanding how people assign value to their volunteering experience and attempt to enhance the value of the positive and reduce the negative aspects of the volunteering experience.

Interviewees also expressed being negatively influenced by how well the volunteer program was organized, and whether or not their efforts to volunteer for the subject organization was going to be a 'waste of time'. This is a new constraint finding in the context of natural resource management volunteerism. If the perceived costs or losses in personal resources expended during preparations are determined to be wasted and not worth the effort in a given context, then such perceptions can be a constraint on further preparations and inhibit volunteering.

In terms of sustained volunteerism, thoughts of potential resource loss appear to be part of preparatory appraisals the next time a volunteering opportunity in the same organization comes along. For example, interviewees referred to past experiences volunteering, including their preparatory experiences, when making decisions about future volunteering opportunities. Interviewees talked about how they were positively influenced when they perceived the volunteer organization as being well organized and not wasteful of their time. On the other hand, interviewees expressed being negatively influenced when they perceived the organization as not being productive and efficient with their time. From a recruitment and retention perspective, volunteer organizations should make the effort to understand any negative perceptions of the organization and how these may be inhibiting both preparations and end-state volunteerism then try to remedy them

Organizational Differences

The themes of less fun compared to doing something else was elaborated on in both DNR and DFW, as were the themes of personal financial costs, personal time costs, and organizational

worthiness. When describing their constraints doing preparations, DFW elaborated on how not having enough time before the volunteer event to make plans to avoid conflicts with other commitments was an important factor. This concern may be due to some of the DFW volunteering projects requiring more elaborate planning, such as making arrangements for multiple days away from home involving backcountry camping.

Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Constraint Themes

Interviewees in both DNR and DFW organizations described a range of negative feelings and emotions they associated with end-state volunteerism as well as for preparatory behaviors. The three main constraint themes that emerged from the focus group interviews were *the prospect of experiencing negative feelings and emotions* they associate with volunteering and/or preparations, *protecting self* from physical discomfort and threats to well-being, and having *negative feelings and emotions toward the volunteer organization and/or staff*. Interviewees suggested that the prospect or possibility of experiencing negative feelings and emotions can serve to inhibit their volunteering and preparations out of a desire to avoid experiencing them.

End-state hedonic and emotion-oriented constraints.

Prospect of Experiencing Negative Feelings and Emotions (DNR: 6, DFW: 4). This main theme consists of a set of sub-themes that include *feeling anxious due to uncertainty*, *avoiding uncomfortable social situations*, and *not in the mood*. The sub-themes for negative emotions and feelings directed toward the organization included the elements of frustration and resentment.

1.1. Feeling anxious due to uncertainty about the event (DNR: 0, DFW: 2).

When talking about making a decision to volunteer, only DFW focus groups expressed the prospect of feeling anxious due to having uncertainties about volunteering. Focus groups appeared to be reflecting on, or mentally searching for, reference points (possibly to use as a heuristic) such as thinking about past experiences volunteering to explain their uncertainty and feelings of anxiety.

to the extent that there's the amount of time in communicating with the event organizer if it's really long and I haven't heard from them I get more anxious . . . that relationship between that amount of time and my sensitivity towards anxiety is not the right word but uncertainty about the quality of it if it's closer it's less if it's further away it's more for me [meaning he has more anxiety]. (DFW2)

1.2. Prospect of uncomfortable social situations (DNR: 3, DFW: 2).

Avoiding social situations that could make one feel uncomfortable was present in both organizations. Interviewees indicated feeling uncomfortable along with a desire to avoid volunteer events where the sponsoring organization was promoting or emphasizing the event as a way to make new acquaintances. Other aspects for this sub-theme include avoiding interpersonal conflicts related to coordinating with other volunteers to do projects where there may be different personalities and interests.

It's interesting because I appreciate the social element, but it just occurred to me if I had saw a volunteering opportunity and one of the descriptors was "social environment" I'd say no I'm not interested in that which is weird because I'm not anti-social but it's just that Other: but the connotation. it was like that would just seem odd. (DFW2)

I don't like to be one of the Chiefs in the teepee no I mean if there's 20 Chiefs in the teepee it nothing's going to get so I prefer to linger back and not get involved as much especially if it's outside of my chosen area. (DNR5)

A big thing for me is the group of people to go with you know it's no fun to go out and volunteer with um you know like the northwest horsemen don't really like to go out with the Washington Trails Association people that ride the ATVs and UTVs stuff like that just because horses and quads don't get along so well so just kind of the demographic of people when you know I'm not out there to talk politics and talk about pocket gophers and land-use and stuff like that. (DFW4)

1.3. Feeling that preparations are not fun (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

This theme involves having thoughts about the prospect of doing preparations as being a factor in making a decision to volunteer. The prospect has to do with experiencing negative feelings associated with preparations. Having such negative prospects may serve as a psychological barrier to initiating and sustaining one's volunteerism. This theme was present in both organizations.

Well, it'd be great if I didn't have to, but you know it is what it is as far as packing yeah, I hate packing I hate making lists I hate packing uh I don't like any of that. (DNR2)

Yeah, I think listening to people that does bring up that if you have a lot of anxiety about prep then you need to integrate that into the next time and the next time until finally it becomes a calming thing . . . (DFW2)

1.4. Not in the mood to volunteer (DNR: 0, DFW)

Being in a negative mood was mentioned in only one DFW focus group. Though not elaborated on by other focus groups, it is part of the range of potential hedonic oriented

constraints on one's volunteering. This emotional form of constraint on volunteering reflects the preparatory behavior of getting into a positive mental state or 'mindset' about the prospect of volunteering.

Being honest with myself . . . I just might not be in the mood I really like being retired and having all kinds of flexibility so I just might not want to [volunteer].
(DFW4)

Protecting Self (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). This theme was present for both organizations and is about the prospect of experiencing psychological and/or physical harm and the related desire to avoid such situations. These prospects included perceived impacts to self-esteem due to not being able to perform the type of volunteer work required of an event (perceived lack self-efficacy), concerns for personal safety, and concerns for personal comfort. Interviewees also expressed concerns for personal well-being from such as disruptions in daily routines and experiencing discomfort while attending volunteer events.

1. Perceived threats of personal physical discomfort (DNR: 5, DFW: 3).

This sub-theme involves two elements: disruption in one's regular routines when preparing for the event and experiencing physical discomforts when at the event. *Disruptions in routines* include such issues as the prospect of waking up earlier than usual on weekends and possible impacts on personal medical conditions. Being physically uncomfortable while attending an event includes feeling cold or not being able to find a restroom. Concerns for routine disruptions and physical discomfort were present in both organizations.

1.1. Disruptions in routines (DNR: 2, DFW: 1).

I normally get up at 10 we go to bed at two in the morning and it's no different than someone else getting home at 6 or 6:30 . . . you sit down and enjoy your day you share with your spouse your family . . . I can go and lay down and toss and turn and toss and turn and I still won't fall asleep until two in the morning which means if I got a get up at 6 AM [to volunteer] I've got a whole four hours of sleep. (DNR2)

Well just that the short night's sleep for me is you know because it makes the next day's all the longer all the driving and you get tired and then physically tired at the end and driving some more so that's really about it though . . . (DFW4)

1.2. Perceived physical discomfort (DNR: 5, DFW: 2).

. . . the weather in this part of the world can get to a point where it's just like you know just isn't going to be a good deal at all you know. (DNR4)

I quit you know just say give it up because you know hypothermia hits you pretty fast and you can it can cause problems when you're handling equipment. (DNR1)

. . . I guess wouldn't sign up for those things that required me to stick my arm in freezing cold water anyway so probably isn't a factor because I just wouldn't choose those activities, I would choose more pleasant activities. (DFW3)

2. Perceived threats to one's personal safety/well-being (DNR: 4, DFW: 4).

This sub-theme of self-protection reflects interviewees expressing concerns for personal safety while volunteering, such as not trusting someone, and physical overexertion resulting in an injury or need for recovery time after volunteering.

I like to volunteer with trustworthy people, what I don't like is when like the negative side if you will for volunteering is going out with somebody if they're kind

of sketchy so if I always like to believe and having like a buddy system . . . because you just don't know what you're getting into. (DNR2)

. . . you know something and just really super harsh conditions that I know I'm not personally prepared for work comfortable to be out in or you know concern for my own well-being in the conditions. (DFW4)

3. Perceived threats to self-esteem due to self-efficacy concerns (DNR: 2, DFW: 2).

Interviewees in both organizations described volunteering situations they may avoid in cases where they feel they lack the ability or skill to do the type of work needed for the volunteering event. Being able to protect self-esteem through having a sense of self-efficacy, or ability, to do the volunteer tasks appeared to be an important condition for participation in both organizations.

Me: what's the first thing you do in your planning process? Hmmm try to decide from what their advertising what they're going to do and whether I'm you know going to be able to contribute to it. (DNR3)

The only other constraint would be do I have the skills to do whatever they're asking for volunteers for. (DFW2)

If it's something that requires specialized training . . . if something went wrong, would you be prepared to handle it so if that's something you do on a routine basis you know what you want to have a training to get to the point where you're comfortable doing that. (DFW4)

Negative Thoughts and Feelings Toward the Volunteer Organization (DNR: 5, DFW: 4).

Interviewees in both organizations elaborated on a range of negative feelings directed at the volunteer organization and/or its staff. The two main themes that emerged, were *frustration*, feelings of frustration toward the volunteer organization and volunteer staff in the field; the other theme was *resentment*, having feelings of resentment toward the organization and staff in response to how they believed they were being treated. For my use of these terms, resentment is a stronger emotion that can build from feelings of sustained frustration.

1. Frustration (DNR: 5, DFW: 4).

1.1. Frustration with the volunteer organization in general (DNR: 1, DFW: 4).

Frustrations toward the organization ranged from negative experiences with online registration user interface to difficulty getting detailed information about volunteer events.

. . . if I have to spend a lot of time digging around on the Internet or somewhere else and try to identify it that's going to prevent me from volunteering, if it's clean and sort of intuitive likely I'll be signing up for it but if it's not likely I won't. (DFW2)

. . . you gotta work at it to find a work party information in their because it's got a lot of information that we don't even need in there you know. (DNR3)

Uh J mentioned the the CERVIS website [DFW's online volunteer registration portal] it's just poor I mean it's just very difficult to use and it I think that certainly improving that experience and just being able to sort of say every time I go in there, I never quite find things that I'm actually looking for. (DFW1)

1.2. Frustration with volunteer organization staff (DNR: 5, DFW: 4).

Frustrations toward volunteer staff included feeling that one's volunteer time was being wasted, in part, due to poor leadership and organizational practices. This element emerged when interviewees were describing how they perceived what their volunteering experience was going to be like. This emotional state is reflected in the preparatory cognitive behavior involving the appraisal of the volunteer organization for worthiness and suggests that the interviewee is establishing a set of conditions under which they make their decision regarding whether or not to volunteer.

. . . you know all of a sudden, they just change the whole scope of what they were doing because poor planning, whatever they were planning didn't get here on time because somebody didn't order it until yesterday and that that is sometimes aggravating and that has happened with DNR Other: yeah. (DNR4)

. . . the individual you're dealing with if you've dealt with them before [he's referring to a staff person] if they're difficult you may choose not to go on that event if they're incapable of communicating to you uh things like that has effect on follow-up [volunteering again] you may go the first time but you may never return again as a result. (DFW1)

2. Resentment toward the volunteer organization (DNR: 2, DFW: 4).

Feelings of resentment toward the volunteer organization came in the form of comments about the organization not being supportive and appreciative of the work that volunteers do. They also expressed strong negative feelings toward the organization due to past policy decisions and management actions not directly related to volunteering, for example, fishing limits, loss of hunting and other recreation use access. This emotional theme may be connected with motivational goals such as the cost-benefit theme for gain oriented organizational supportiveness

and emotions of feeling valued as a volunteer in general. In other words, motivations for volunteering may be offset or countered by negative perceptions of the organization. This may be particularly concerning in cases where the volunteer organization is trying to retain volunteers for long-term, on-going participation, for example, where one's negative attitude toward the organization is so strong that it cannot be overcome despite having a positive attitude toward volunteering (e.g., Steg, et al, p. 186).

2.1. Resentment due to perceived negative treatment (DNR: 1, DFW: 3)

. . . yeah, but anyway I will not I'm not going to do it because they're not willing to make it better [referring to DFW data collection computer-based forms volunteers fill out]and so I won't. (DFW1)

Me; anybody else on whether or not the Discover Pass, a free Discover Pass is there an incentive there is there any positive element to this free Discover Pass? I kind of resent it in all honesty because I'm like R I mean I've got these pieces of paper supposed to be getting something and it's useless you know I don't send them in the whole Discovery Pass they need to simplify . . . (DNR4)

2.2. Resentment of the organization due to past policy actions (DNR: 2, DFW: 3)

Yeah, hate to say it but when they the whole way they handled Reiter Trails [an area used for off-road vehicle riding on DNR land that was closed] was I had to say really turned me off. (DNR3)

I mean we could have a whole other meeting on some of the thoughts of wildlife management that's gone on in this state that has been just bungled beyond all imagination. (DFW2)

. . . I know that if I can think of half a dozen people right now that would not volunteer for anything just because they don't want anything to do working with the state government. (DFW2)

3. Resentment toward organization staff (DNR: 1, DFW: 4)

Resentment aimed at volunteer staff was due to a perceived lack of responsiveness to inquiries by volunteers (and would-be volunteers). This resentment was expressed as feeling treated improperly. In one example below (DFW2) the comment illustrates how an individual may be motivated to volunteer for something they feel will be exciting, and when disappointment is experienced, the source of resentment is assigned to the organization staff, and then the negative emotion expands to a more general disdain for government. The participant concludes that future (sustained) volunteering may depend on how they feel they have been treated or impacted by the volunteer organization.

3.1. Not being treated properly by staff (DNR: 1, DFW: 2)

. . . but I'm not going to show up and be staff I'm not going to be ordered around by some moron that thinks I'm just not going to use my brain to do whatever it is I need to do today, and the agency is on probation from my point of view and if they don't perform the first time I'm probably not coming back. (DFW2)

3.2. Lack of respect (DNR: 0, DFW: 4)

DFW interviewees expressed negative feelings in response to behavior by the volunteer organization. For example, not receiving feedback or some other form of acknowledgement after filling out volunteer applications with the organization online, or not receiving timely responses to efforts to communicate with the organization. This lack of response, in the form of

reciprocity norm violation (e.g. Cialdini, 2007) appeared to create a feeling of being disrespected.

Oh I think you're hearing a lot of frustration [others laughing in agreement] with the lack of response on the part of in this case were talking about Fish and Wildlife for the most part and the different feelings your hearing are all you know just respect, not being recognized, and that doesn't feel good, and so I'm hearing A say "well even if I wasn't busy the next day I'm not going to go" (A laughs a little) well what's underlying that his feeling is he's kind of pissed you know "screw you" you know you didn't you ignored me "Heck with you". (DFW4)

Preparatory Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Constraints:

The two overarching hedonic/emotion oriented constraint themes for preparatory behavior that emerged from the focus groups were: *avoiding feelings of uncertainty* and *protecting self* (i.e., concerns for one's well-being and physical comfort). These themes are also reflected in the hedonic and emotion-oriented constraints for end-state volunteerism. Focus groups in both organizations described the prospect, or anticipation, of experiencing negative feelings and emotions related to their volunteer experience. Such negative prospects may have the potential to inhibit engagement in preparatory behaviors and thus, in turn, serve as a constraint on one's volunteerism.

Prospect of experiencing uncertainty (DNR: 0, DFW: 3). DFW interviewees expressed negative effects toward doing preparations when facing the prospect of feeling or experiencing uncertainty about how to prepare for a volunteer event. Uncertainties described by interviewees included not having sufficient information about the volunteering event (e.g., not knowing what to bring such as food, tools, etc.). Concerns about experiencing uncertainty were also present

when making the decision to volunteer (or not). This suggests a general constraint theme of prospective or expected uncertainty that spans both end-state and preparatory stages of behavior. This theme was evident in the DFW context for preparations but was not present for DNR. This may be due to the DFW volunteer projects sometimes involving overnight stays and remote sites that requiring more complex logistics and preparations.

Then also uh my own preparation like how much I need to know about the “what” I’m going to be doing so um like what exactly is my responsibilities will be so like a clear drawn out picture of what the event is going to be like this is really important for me . . . (DFW1)

Yeah, what is it I’m supposed I’ll show up and then what are we doing so there just needs to be a little more I don’t know focus I guess around the step between ‘I want to volunteer’ and ‘do something’ to get me into the thing that’s going to motivate me to get up and take my day off and go spend it out in the mud or whatever. (DFW2)

Protecting Self for Comfort and Well-Being (DNR: 4, DFW: 3). This sub-theme was also present for the hedonic oriented constraints on end-state volunteering, suggesting that it is a constant concern for would-be volunteers. Interviewees expressed having thoughts during preparations about the physical impacts the volunteer experience could have on them in terms of well-being and safety and physical discomfort. This theme was present in both organizations.

1.1. Avoiding threats to well-being (DNR: 2, DFW: 2)

. . . I sit there and I’m packing all this stuff and I’m like you know “I don’t even know what I’m getting into” and I get up there 8 o’clock in the morning and find

out were going to be doing you know something that's either going to put way too much stress on my body . . . you know think it's going to suck. (DNR1)

1.2. Personal physical comfort (DNR: 3, DFW: 2)

Interviewees in both organizations elaborated on how weather conditions could be a constraint due to concerns regarding physical comfort. This concern was present for both end-state and preparatory behaviors. Interviewees indicated that this concern could persist as an influence on decision making all the way up the last minute.

Because you know first, we look and see "what's the weather going to be like?" [laughing in a serious tone] sorry R [she's talking to fellow club member they volunteer with] we are "rain shy" yeah. (DNR6)

Um usually it the only thing it would be it be more like a disappointment knowing that yeah, the weather's gonna it doesn't look good and then yeah probably not going to go so more of uh it doesn't stress me out it's just think of something else I'll do with my time. (DFW4)

Summary Discussion of Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Constraints

Interviewees in both organizations described a range of negative feelings and emotions when talking about what constrains their volunteerism and preparatory behaviors (see Table 6 below). Past researchers have identified feelings of uncertainty that can inhibit end-state volunteerism. These uncertainties include lack of awareness of volunteering opportunities and social uncertainties such as the prospect of being in a socially uncomfortable situation (Gage III, 2012). Such uncertainties can discourage and prohibit participation (Knoke, 1981). The findings from my research are consistent with past findings when it comes to understanding

Table 6. Hedonic and Emotion Constraint Themes

Table 6 *Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Constraints	
**End-State Hedonic and Emotional Constraints	**Preparatory Hedonic and Emotional Constraints
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Negative prospects: having/experiencing negative feelings and emotions about volunteering event (6/4): <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. <u>Feeling anxious due to uncertainty</u> (0/2) 1.2. Prospect of uncomfortable social situations (3/2) 1.3. Simply not in the mood to volunteer (0/1) 1.4. <u>Not fun: the prospect that doing preparations are not fun</u> (3/4) 2. Protecting Self (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. <u>Perceived discomfort</u> (5/3) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1.1. Perceived disruption in daily routines 2.1.2. Perceived physical discomfort (5/2) 2.2. <u>Perceived threats to personal safety</u> (4/4) 2.3. Perceived Threats to self-esteem due to perceived low self-efficacy (2/2) 3. Negative emotions directed at the volunteer organization and staff (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1. Frustration (5/4) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1.1. Frustration with the organization (1/4) 3.1.2. Frustration with volunteer staff (5/3) 3.2. Resentment from how one has been treated (possibly due to violation of the injunctive norm or reciprocity) (3/4) 3.3. Resentment toward the organization (3/4) 3.4. Resentment toward staff (1/4) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Negative prospects: having/experiencing negative feelings and emotions about preparing for the volunteer event (4/3): <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. <u>Prospect of experiencing uncertainty</u> (0/3) 1.2. <u>Not fun: the prospect that doing preparations are not fun</u> (3/4) 2. Protecting Self (4/3) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. <u>Avoiding threats to personal well-being/safety</u> (2/1) 2.2. <u>Avoiding threats to physical comfort</u> (3/2) 3. N/A -negative emotions toward the organization and staff were raised in the context of deciding whether or not to volunteer rather than about one's preparations. However, such emotions may inhibit engagement in preparations.
<p>*<u>Underlined constraints indicate that they were present in both end-state volunteering and preparations contexts.</u></p> <p>**The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.</p>	

constraints on end-state volunteerism. However, the findings also suggest that there is a larger range of emotions than those found by past researchers that may be influencing both end-state as well as preparatory behavior.

According to Lindenberg and Steg (2007), when a person's focal goal is hedonic oriented, such as in the context of making a commitment to volunteer, they are particularly

focused on how they will feel (both physically and emotionally) in the behavioral situation or context, including the social atmosphere. Being motivated to improve how one feels, or may feel, in a given context is reflected in actions *to seek direct pleasure, improve self-esteem, and look for excitement*; it also can motivate people to avoid effort, negative thoughts, and events, and to avoid direct uncertainty (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007).

Three main feelings and emotion themes emerged from the interviews that were present for both end-state and preparatory behavior (see Table 5 below). These themes include *prospect of negative experiences, protecting self, and negative emotions toward the organization*. The negative prospect theme involves having pre-existing feelings and emotions focused on the volunteer event. The protecting-self theme involves feelings and concerns focused on guarding the self for reasons of physical discomfort, well-being, safety, and self-esteem. The negative emotions toward the organization involves a negative appraisal of the organization and staff based on preconceived notions or negative experiences.

Having pre-existing negative feelings and emotions towards the volunteer organization and staff can serve as a strong constraint on one's volunteering (e.g. Propst et al., 2003). Interviewees reported having strong negative feelings toward the volunteer organization that in some cases, reflect other aspects of the organization that go beyond the subject volunteering event and into past policy and management practices that interviewees disagree with. Whether or not such feelings are present and focal for the would-be volunteer population, it is important for the volunteer organization to be aware of and attempt to remedy them, if possible, in order to successfully recruit and retain volunteers. Strong negative feelings may not be easily changed, but volunteer organizations may be able to mitigate them by making a distinction between the

positive perceptions and goals people associate with volunteering and the negative perceptions they may have toward the organization. If the individual or group is more strongly motivated by the positive aspects of volunteerism compared to their negativity toward the organization, then there is a greater likelihood they will volunteer than if the reverse were the case.

From a preparatory perspective, new findings include negative hedonic/emotion-oriented themes that appear to be part of the preparatory cognitive appraisal process. Interviewees have indicated that a negative appraisal of what the preparatory experience will be like may lead to a decision to not volunteer. It also appears that negative feelings and emotions may also surface during preparations. Examples include feelings of uncertainty about the type of work or tasks involved and the appropriate tools and personal gear to bring, and the purpose or goal of the volunteer project. According to interviewees, these uncertainties can persist, and if not resolved, may result in a reconsideration of their original commitment to volunteer. Uncertainties that persist that are associated with other forms of preparations, as in physical and social, may also inhibit or prevent progress on those preparations and in turn also negatively impact participation. These findings suggest that it is important for the volunteer organization to stay engaged with, and available to, would-be volunteers during their preparations to answer questions, to resolve uncertainties, and help reduce the potential for negative emotions to develop toward the organization and the subject volunteering event in general.

Protecting self-esteem due to having doubts about one's self-efficacy or ability to do the type of volunteer work required can be a constraint on participation. Volunteering to enhance self-esteem has been identified as a motivation to volunteer (Miles et al., 1998), but concerns about negative impacts on self-esteem have not been identified as a potential constraint on

volunteerism. This concern for one's self-esteem was described by interviewees in the context of how they might be perceived by other volunteers should they not be able to perform well at the event. Such concerns may have a strong negative influence on participation and volunteer organizations should consider how task complexity and difficulty may inhibit participation when trying to recruit and retain volunteers. Volunteer organizations may want to provide for a range of task at events that can accommodate a range of abilities and comfort levels.

Another new finding in the area of preparatory constraints, involve the prospect of experiencing negative feelings and emotions while engaging in physical and social preparations where the desire to avoid such feelings and emotions may direct them to put off those preparations or simply not do them. Of course, if the preparation is a necessity for participation, then not doing it means not volunteering. Interviewees in both organizations mentioned that gathering and organizing their personal gear is not enjoyable in some cases. If people are not looking forward to doing preparations, then this can be a persistent or chronic constraint on participation. This may be particularly important for volunteer organizations trying to retain volunteers.

Collectively, these findings provide support for the argument that more attention should be given to understanding the range of feelings and emotions that would-be volunteers may be experiencing, or, expecting to experience, and the reasons for them. Focus groups indicated a desire to avoid negative thoughts and experiences they associate with their volunteerism and related preparations. One solution for avoiding such negative situations for the would-be volunteer is to simply choose to not volunteer. Accordingly, natural resource-based volunteer programs may be more effective at recruiting and retaining volunteers by understanding and

addressing, where possible, volunteering situations that may foster or sustain negative feelings and emotions.

Organizational Differences:

The prospect of experiencing negative feelings and emotions was present and elaborated on within both organizations (see Table 5 above). However, at the more nuanced sub-theme level, the prospect of feeling anxious due to experiencing uncertainties about volunteering (e.g., lack of information, event unknowns) was present only for DFW, as were concerns about not being in a positive mood toward volunteering. This may be due to the negative experiences expressed by DFW interviewees about the user-interface DFW has for volunteers to register and the lack of response by DFW to would-be volunteer inquiries. The prospect of experiencing uncomfortable social situations was present in both organizations and elaborated on by DNR. This may be due to DNR's focus on using volunteers to maintain recreation sites and/or interviewees who have had conflicts with other user groups. Perceiving preparatory activities as not being a fun or enjoyable experience was expressed by both organizations. Perceived physical discomfort and concerns for personal safety and well-being were also elaborated on by both organizations.

Feelings of frustration directed at the volunteer organization and staff were present in both organizations as were feelings of resentment (coded as a stronger negative emotion than frustration). There were nuanced differences to the resentment theme between organizations. The DFW interviewees noted resentment toward staff when they were not being responsive to inquiries and requests. Both organizations expressed resentment toward the organization, but for

DFW, the resentment also came from such issues as how DFW was managing the hunting or game resources in the state, and how the online registration process was overly burdensome. For the DNR interviewees, the resentment involved limiting access to areas to recreate and not being credited hours towards a free DNR parking pass for doing work at unofficial recreation sites.

For preparations, the prospect of experiencing negative emotions due to uncertainties, such as not knowing what type of volunteer work to prepare for, was present in both organizations. The theme of protecting self was elaborated on in both organizations for both preparations and end-state volunteerism. For example, the sub-theme of perceived threats to one's well-being that involved personal safety and not having access to a toilet was a potential constraint on volunteering and also appeared to have an influence on preparations, such as changing one's routines to reduce the need for a bathroom by not having their usual morning coffee.

Normative Oriented Constraint Themes

End-State Normative Constraints

The main themes for normative constraints on end-state volunteerism that emerged for both organizations were in the form of perceived personal normative constraints focused on living up to personal obligations or commitments. The other theme was having normative expectations of others. For example, interviewees expressed the importance of fairness, such as expecting others who also benefit from the opportunities that volunteering produces to do their fair share and to take some responsibility by volunteering. When such norms are perceived as not being complied with, it may result in reduced participation on the part of the perceiver.

Expectations on the Self (DNR: 5, DFW: 4). Personal obligations can prevent or serve to limit making commitments to volunteer where those commitments are perceived to be in conflict with more important obligations. The sub-themes include *obligations to family and friends, obligations to work, commitments as a student in school, and personal property obligations.*

1. Family and friends come before my volunteering (DNR: 5, DFW: 4).

Meeting obligations to family and friends was consistently a higher personal priority compared to volunteering. This sub-theme was present in both organizations and appeared to have priority over all other obligations.

. . . my personal responsibilities to my family and you know myself my family my larger family my friends all of that stuff has to be taken into consideration when I make a commitment for time [to volunteer] . . . (DNR2)

. . . and then again, my biggest constraints are every weekend there is an activity that my sons involved in . . . so most weekends are you know there dedicated to my son. (DFW3)

2. Obligations to one's employer (DNR: 4, DFW: 4).

This sub-theme was present in both organizations and may reflect both a personal normative commitment and a loss avoidance consideration in the sense that personal commitments to an employer besides income concerns are important considerations. Interviewees in both organizations expressed that obligations to their employer were consistently given higher priority than their commitment to volunteering.

The only thing that would slow me down on that, would be work if I got called into work for a situation . . . (DNR1)

. . . if I double booked myself with work is going to come first. (DFW3)

3. Commitments to other volunteering organizations (DNR: 2, DFW: 4).

This constraint sub-theme was present in both organizations and reflects other volunteering commitments that may compete with the volunteer offerings from the subject organizations. This suggests that it is important for organizations to understand why people choose to volunteer for one organization over another, as it may point to ways of improving the volunteering experience offered by the organization which may, in turn, help efforts to recruit and retain volunteers.

Well, you know every what everybody says you know my thoughts too we have a lot of choices . . . so sometimes you have to weigh that in your mind what am I doing to help people and course that you we all want to give back in some way. (DNR1)

I was just thinking, I actually do similar projects for three different entities: UW Sea Grant, we're doing a green crab monitoring and we have a team for that, and then for um it's an international sea star wasting disease study and I have two sites on the island for that. (DFW1)

4. Commitments as a student in school (DNR: 0, DFW: 1).

This theme was only present in the DFW organization. This may be due to not having many interviewees who were also students. Obligations as a student can serve as a constraint on volunteering, but not necessarily on other behavior options that have a greater hedonic reward. This suggests that there is an impact that hedonic (pleasure) rewards have on facilitating a behavior.

. . . my school schedule I'm also full-time student so have to consider not only the days I have school but what homework I have to do sometimes hunting and fishing comes before that, but you know [group laughter]. (DFW3)

5. Personal property obligations (DNR: 3, DFW: 4)

This sub-theme was present in both organizations. Focus groups described obligations to daily activities at home, such as taking care of pets and livestock, as well as taking care of home and property. These obligations appeared to have an influence on decisions about whether or not to volunteer. This set of obligations provides an indication of how interviewees are ranking their priorities in life, and it seems that volunteering is consistently ranking at or near the bottom in relation to other personal obligations and other interests. Interviewees from both organizations perceived their lives as being very busy, with many obligations having a higher priority over volunteering.

. . . just the amounts of your own personal life that might get in the way um whether it has to do with the maintenance of your home. (DNR1)

. . . and then what's going on around the house right I had to take time off to put a roof on last year right so that took time away from me doing anything else that had to take priority . . . (DNR2)

Also, we have a dog and so it's something of balancing you know . . . I will volunteer the weekend watching him rather than anything else. (DFW1)

Social Norm Expectations Violated by Others (DNR: 5 DFW: 4). Interviewees indicated that they have expectations of others within the context of volunteering. These expectations were for both the volunteer organization and staff, as well as other volunteers. Interviewees

expressed emotional responses to those that, for example, are perceived as not following through on their commitments, or other groups not sharing in the volunteer work needing to be done. This suggest that would-be volunteers can be influenced by how they perceive others complying (or not) with social normative expectations.

1.1. Lack of volunteer participation by others (DNR: 0, DFW: 1).

Negative perceptions of others due to lack of participation and not sharing in the volunteering effort may serve as a constraint on one's participation – including deciding to not participate.

I think it's the knowledge that the other those groups will be there we wouldn't go out and do it if we thought nobody else is going to be there so that would be a reason to say "no" I'm not going to do it. (DNR 4)

1.2. Normative expectations not met by the volunteer organization (DNR: 3, DFW: 3).

Interviewees described forming negative attitudes toward the volunteer organization when perceived as not being in compliance with expectations they had for the organization. For example, interviewees described how they felt when they did not get a response from DFW staff after they made a public commitment to volunteer by registering on-line. These emotional responses suggest that commitments made by one party can create for them a reciprocal normative expectation that is directed at others, in this case, DFW, to follow through on the perceived responsibility to be responsive. The statements below suggest that when commitments are not acknowledged by an organization, it can negatively influence attitudes toward the organization, which, in turn, can serve as a psychological barrier to future participation.

When you go and fill out your profile [on-line DFW volunteer registration to volunteer] or whatever it is in a perfect world I think I'd get an email back (DFW2)

I was hoping for the most is that you at least carry back to them that they could communicate better to people who have signed up to volunteer because it's like pulling teeth trying to find anybody that's going to say "hey we've got these positions available at this time we want this" . . . (DFW 2)

I think the obligation [of the volunteer organization] is after you've committed [others are agreeing] but before that it's we feel appreciated, so we are inclined to do it again. Other: yeah. (DNR4)

Preparatory Personal Normative Constraints (DNR: 3, DFW: 1)

Personal expectations of the self toward family can interfere with preparations. At the preparatory stage, interviewees reported the importance of meeting family obligations taking priority over preparatory activities.

my wife does foster care . . . you know I really have to make sure that she is safe and in a good place before I can go volunteer for these things . . . (DNR5)

. . . could be a health issue with one of my dogs . . . (DFW4)

. . . okay for instance, the work parties don't start till Friday well you have to wait for the kids to get out of school before you can take off. (DNR5)

Summary Discussion of Normative Constraint Themes

Interviewees in both organizations expressed the importance of behaving in ways consistent with their personal norms in the form of expectations and obligations (see Table 7 below). Such personal obligations reflect the commitment-consistency principle, where the

desire to follow through (i.e., to be consistent) on personal commitments that have been made comes out of the strength or influence the original commitment has on a person (e.g. Cialdini, 2007). Competing personal expectations can be a constraint on one’s volunteerism and preparations when they are focused away from volunteering and toward other aspects of life, such as living up to other personal commitments made to important others (e.g., family and friends), pets, livestock, and other responsibilities. On the other hand, personal obligations can

Table 7. Normative Constraint Themes

Table 7	
*Normative Constraint Themes	
**End-State Normative Constraint Themes	**Preparatory Normative Constraint Themes
1. Expectations on self to meet other obligations (5/4) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Obligations to Family and friends come before my volunteering (5/4) 1.2. Obligations to one’s work/employer (4/4) 1.3. Prior commitments to other volunteering (2/4) 1.4. Commitments to school as a student (0/1) 1.5. Personal property obligations (3/4) 2. <u>Social norm expectations of others (5/4)</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. Perceived lack of volunteer participation by others (sharing the work that needs to be done) (0/1) 2.2. <u>Normative expectations not being met by the volunteer organization. The Organization is not being proactive and reaching out to me. lack of respect and acknowledgement. (5/4)</u> 	1. Expectations on self during preparations that can be a constraint on volunteering. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Obligations to family (e.g., a family emergency) (3/1) 2. <u>Social norm expectations of others (5/4)</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. <u>Normative expectations not being met by the volunteer organization. Not responding to my inquiries.</u>
*Underlined constraints indicate that they were present in both end-state volunteering and preparations. **The number in parenthesis are the same elaboration of themes across focus groups presented in the body of findings with the first number representing DNR and the second representing DFW. For example: (3/4) means the same as (DNR: 3, DFW: 4), or 3 DNR focus groups discussed the topic and 4 DFW groups discussed the topic.	

also direct one toward volunteering and preparations if those activities help facilitate meeting those obligations, such as personal commitments made to fellow recreation club members to help with a volunteer project.

From a preparatory constraint perspective, personal norms, in the form of personal obligations to family, was a focal norm that could inhibit or prevent engagement in preparations. This norm also appeared to be a constraint on end-state volunteerism in both organizations. In other words, it is a form of constraint that spans both end-state and preparatory activity. Other forms of personal normative constraints that emerged as having direct impacts on end-state volunteerism included obligations to an employer, other volunteering commitments, obligations as a student, and personal property obligations.

Interviewees appeared to project their personal normative expectations onto others in the volunteer context. For example, interviewees reported expecting others who were benefiting from volunteer efforts to also volunteer to do their fair share of the work. If perceived as not contributing and living up to expectations, then the perceiver may in turn be less inclined to volunteer out of a sense of unfairness. This perceived unfairness may reflect the reciprocity norm (e.g. Cialdini, 2009) being violated where one has an expectation that others should return in kind the effort, from which that they have benefited. Interviewees indicated that they are more likely to volunteer when they observe others donating their time and effort.

Expectations of others, in the form of social norms, when perceived as not being complied with, may also be a constraint on one's preparations. For example, DFW interviewees described situations where the volunteer organization was not responding to their inquiries during their preparations (e.g., not responding to emails). This lack of response appeared to

generate negative emotions toward the volunteer organization and a weakened interest in volunteering. This points to the importance of volunteer organizations paying attention to, and complying with, the expectations of the would-be volunteer where appropriate. For example, volunteer organizations should be responsive by maintaining contact with would-be volunteers during their preparations. This finding also highlights the potential impact that the behavior change agent, in this case the volunteer organization (represented by staff), may have psychologically on gaining behavioral compliance (i.e., volunteerism). Models of behavior change, in the context of pro-environmental behavior, do not explicitly take into account the influence that the change agent's behavior may have on inhibiting engagement in the desired behavior and related preparatory behavior (e.g. Steg et al., 2007). Understanding and being responsive and actively engaged with would-be volunteers may improve the efforts to recruit and retain volunteers.

Personal norms serving as a constraint was not identified in the literature on volunteerism. However at the broader level of pro-environmental behavior, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) have suggested that personal "responsibility and priorities" can serve as behavioral barriers (p. 256). The norm activation model (Schwartz, 1977) and the values-belief-norm theory of environmentalism model (Stern, 2000) employ normative factors to account for behavior. However, those norms are focused on the subject individual(s) (e.g., personal morality and guilt) whereas interviewees have described having normative expectations for others (e.g., expecting others to share in the work), and if they are perceived as being violated, it may form a psychological constraint on their own volunteerism. I found no previous research examining personal norms as barriers in the context of preparatory behavior and how they may affect end-

state volunteerism. However, the findings from this research suggest that normative expectations can serve as a constraint on preparations.

Organizational Differences

When talking about their constraints on end-state volunteerism, personal norms in the form of meeting personal obligations was a theme elaborated on in both organizations. At the more nuanced level, meeting one's prior commitments to volunteer elsewhere was elaborated on in the DFW context but not present in the DNR context. The reasons for this were not apparent but may be due to interviewees in the DNR context being less engaged in other forms of volunteering in general. Commitment to school was a theme for only the DFW context and this may be due to a lack of students participating in the DNR focus groups.

Perceived failure by others to meet social normative expectations was present as a potential constraint on volunteerism in both organizations. Not meeting expectations, such as lack of reciprocation by the volunteer organization (elaborated on by DFW focus groups) to one's efforts to volunteer (e.g., lack of acknowledgment or appreciation), appeared to generate negative feelings toward the organization. Interviewees indicated that such negative feelings could reduce or prevent participation. Elaboration by DNR interviewees focused on the lack of volunteerism coming from other groups that were perceived as benefiting from the efforts of others but not sharing in the work. This expectation may have been due in part by the high proportion of focus group members coming from Backcountry Horsemen chapters that volunteer to maintain trails that are used by a range of other recreation interests.

When talking about their preparatory behavior, the normative theme of obligations to family was present in both organizations. The theme was also elaborated on as an overarching constraint on end-state volunteering. In other words, concerns about meeting personal obligations have broad potential to inhibit one's volunteering at any point in time in the volunteer experience in terms of both doing preparations and sustained volunteerism.

Chapter Summary Discussion of Constraint Findings

Preparatory behaviors, and related motivations and constraints, had not been explored in the context of volunteerism until this research. Interviewees in both organizations have indicated that they necessarily engage in preparatory behavior to enable themselves to engage a desired end-state volunteerism. By examining the motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior in a given context, such as natural resource management volunteerism, a deeper understanding about what may be facilitating and inhibiting end-state volunteerism can be achieved. Consequently, volunteer-dependent natural resource programs may benefit from understanding the motivations and constraints on peoples' preparations and then apply that information to the design of volunteer recruitment and retention strategies. Additionally, exploring the motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior may also have theoretical value for modeling pro-environmental behavior and behavior change.

The range of preparatory behaviors that I have identified include preparatory cognitions that involve decision making, knowledge gaining, and planning. Other forms of preparations include physical activity, such as gathering and organizing equipment and supplies, and social

interactions with important others to gain support, both psychologically and materially, for one's volunteerism.

In the early stages of preparations, interviewees described being engaged in a thought process that leads to either some level of commitment to volunteer or a decision to not participate. This decision-making process, which I have categorized as a type of preparatory cognition, was present in both organizations. When talking about making a commitment to volunteer, interviewees described what they were likely (prospectively) to experience when doing their preparations in addition to their end-state volunteering experience. In other words, how one imagines what their preparatory experience will be like appears to be an important consideration when deciding whether or not to make a personal commitment to volunteer.

This preparatory thinking may be a form of situational appraisal (Eysenck & Keane, 2015). Weick (1985) describes a form of situational appraisal that he termed 'sensemaking' which is a way of giving meaning to a person's experiences. Klein et al. (2007) applied the term 'anticipatory thinking' to a form of sensemaking that they define as 'the ability to prepare in time for problems and opportunities [where] people are preparing themselves for future events, not simply predicting what might happen' (p. 1). From a motivational and constraint perspective, interviewees described how their appraisal of the volunteer organization, ranging from positive to negative, was an important factor in their decision to volunteer. They also described thinking ahead about their preparations, for example, in terms of the personal resources needed to make plans, and how they were expecting to feel physically and mentally. Gaining an understanding of what would-be volunteers are anticipating their volunteering experience to be like may help

volunteer organizations understand what motivations and constraints are influencing decisions to participate.

It appears that these preparatory behaviors, in the form of cognitions, physical actions, and social interactions are all in play during preparations that are continually interacting and feeding back as positive and negative influences on a person's level of commitment to volunteer. In this sense, the concept of commitment is dynamic over time and can fluctuate in strength from when an initial commitment is made, up to, and including, actual engagement in the desired behavior. For example, interviewees noted that making a decision to volunteer (a type of preparation) may require new information that initiates knowledge seeking, and if there is uncertainty due to lack of knowledge, then progress on one's preparations may be stalled. Additionally, if others, such as the volunteer organization, are not responsive to requests for information, this may be perceived as a violation of the reciprocity norm (e.g. Cialdini, 2007). This in turn may contribute to a negative appraisal of the organization and be accompanied with negative feelings, such as resentment, toward the organization. The result could be disengagement in preparations and/or re-evaluation of one's initial commitment to volunteer and possibly deciding to not participate. Future opportunities to volunteer with the same organization may then be subject to one's perception of past experiences. How these past experiences are evaluated, both positively and negatively, may have an impact on his/her decision whether or not to volunteer in the future. In this way, one's previous end-state experiences serve as preparatory cognitions when it comes to evaluating future volunteering opportunities.

This evidence supports the notion that it is important and useful for volunteer organizations trying to recruit and retain volunteers, to understand what would-be volunteers do and think about their preparations, what serves as constraints (and motivations) on those preparations, and how the organization can alleviate or remove such constraints to help facilitate participation.

The constraint themes I have identified for preparatory and end-state volunteerism fit into three broad goal-oriented themes that are consistent with goal-framing theory (e.g. Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). These include: (a) loss avoidance-oriented constraint themes that reflect a calculation or appraisal of personal costs and benefits; (b) hedonic and emotion-oriented constraint themes focused on the desire to avoid displeasure and negative emotions; and (c) normative-oriented constraint themes in the form of perceived personal and social normative expectations that may be inhibiting engagement in volunteerism and preparatory behaviors. These general forms of behavioral constraints were present across both DNR and DFW organizations when discussing volunteering, as well as when they were talking about constraints on their preparatory behavior. At the more nuanced level, there were cases where one focus group elaborated more than the other on a particular form of constraint (e.g., concern for physical discomfort).

The preparatory experiences described by interviewees included a range of behavioral constraints, including experiencing personal resource costs, negative feelings and emotions, and normative conflicts and expectations for the self and others. Protecting the self was a theme elaborated on by interviewees in for both organizations. Perceptions of discomfort in the form of disruptions in one's daily routines, physical discomfort, and threats to one's safety and well-

being, and perceived threats to one's self-esteem were themes that emerged in both organizations. My review of the literature suggests that these factors have not been examined as barriers in the context of natural resource management volunteerism. Interviewees in both organizations made it clear that hedonic and emotional factors can serve as psychological barriers to engaging in both end-state volunteerism and preparations. Models used to account for behavioral outcomes or to develop a marketing strategy to recruit and retain participants (e.g., volunteers), would likely benefit from taking into consideration the hedonic and emotional aspects that the target population may be anticipating and how they may serve to facilitate or inhibit participation.

Chapter 5: Recruiting and Retaining Volunteers: Extending the Community-Based Social Marketing Model to Include Preparatory Behavior

In this chapter, I present a version of the social marketing model that is widely used to promote pro-environmental behavior described as community-based social marketing (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). I then present a novel approach to applying this model by extending its concepts to take into account the motivations and constraints on preparatory behaviors as a means of enhancing the model's effectiveness for developing a social marketing strategy. I use the results from Chapters Two, Three, and Four to make suggestions for the design of strategies for the purpose of recruiting and retaining volunteers. These suggestions, or management implications, take into account the nuanced differences between DNR and DFW organizations, or social marketing segments.

Social Marketing Application Questions:

1. How can principles of social influence be matched with motivations and constraints for engaging in preparatory and end-state behaviors in order to design an effective social marketing strategy?
2. Given the organizations examined (i.e., DNR and DFW), what kinds of social marketing strategies could be effective at recruiting and retaining volunteers?
3. How can motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior be incorporated into a social marketing model to potentially increase the effectiveness of the model to guide the development of social marketing strategies.

The Social Marketing Model for Behavior Change

Both Geller (1989) and Lee and Kotler (2011) date the origin of social marketing to the early works of Philip Kotler and Gerald Zaltman (1971). Since then, social marketing has been applied broadly in the domains of public health and safety (e.g., HIV/AIDS prevention), sustainable environmental behavior (e.g., recycling programs), social welfare programs, and other social domains (Lee & Kotler, 2011). However, I have not found in the literature examples of the social marketing model being applied to a natural resource-based volunteer recruitment program.

My review of the social marketing model literature on pro-environmental behavior indicates that these models do not address or take into account the role of preparatory behaviors nor how engagement, or lack of engagement, in them can impact people's successful engagement in the target or desired end-state behavior. By introducing preparatory behaviors and their related motivations and constraints into the social marketing model, it may be possible to increase the effectiveness of behavior change strategies, such as to recruit and retain volunteers. For example, by increasing people's motivations to do things that help them prepare to volunteer and by reducing their constraints, it may be possible to recruit higher levels of participation and retention of volunteers in a given target population.

The Community-Based Social Marketing Model

Social marketing models that focus on a specific segment or community of individuals and integrate applied behavior analysis, psychology of persuasion, and social influence principles into marketing strategies are what McKenzie-Mohr (2000) characterizes as

“community-based social marketing”. The community-based social marketing (CBSM) model incorporates functional theory (Katz, 1960) with its focus on determining the underlying motivations for behavior (Tabanico et al., 2015). The model also relies on the theories of social exchange (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and normative social influence (Cialdini, 2007). Social exchange theory posits that people assess the costs and benefits of engaging in a behavior and tend to adopt the behavior where the benefits of doing so outweigh the costs. Normative influence involves social norms that one perceives to be acceptable and appropriate by their social group. The community-based social marketing model is a two-factor, benefits and barrier, model of behavior where people are more likely to adopt a target behavior where the benefits or rewards (positive expected outcomes) for doing the behavior are relatively high, and the barriers or constraints (negative consequences) are low. Conversely, people are less likely to adopt the desired or target behavior when the rewards are low and the constraints are high (Schultz, 2014).

The CBSM model incorporates *behavior-change tools*, or principles of influence; these tools include the use of commitment, social norms, social diffusion, prompts, communication, incentives, and convenience (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). The CBSM model differs from behavior change models in the arena of pro-environmental behavior that are still largely based on information campaigns focused on education and awareness. Such a focus does little to address the multitude of barriers beyond basic knowledge and awareness that prevent broad adoption of target behaviors (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011).

A social marketing strategy is the product of a planning process where each step in the process builds on the results from the previous steps (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011; Lee and Kotler, 2011). The CBSM model involves five steps: 1) selecting a target behavior to persuade the

target audience to adopt, 2) determining the barriers and benefits associated with performing the target behavior, 3) designing a strategy intended to reduce the barriers to performing the target behavior and increasing the perceived benefits to be gained by performing the behavior, 4) piloting the strategy to determine effectiveness and allow for modifications to the approach, and 5) conducting broad scale implementation and continuous monitoring and evaluation. The novel addition from my research to this model is extending concepts of increasing the benefits and reducing the barriers to include the constraints and motivations on preparatory behavior as a way to increase the effectiveness of strategies to promote and sustain pro-environmental behavior, such as volunteerism.

In the case of this research, the target behavior (step 1) was established as volunteerism, where the nature of this behavior involves working outdoors in the natural environment doing tasks that typically involves some level of physical labor. Step 2 involves identifying the benefits and barriers; this has been accomplished within the scope of Chapters Three and Four, with the addition of identifying the benefits and barriers for preparatory behavior. Step 3 will be the focus of this chapter, which will be to develop a social marketing strategy that takes into account motivations and constraints that are unique to DNR or DFW segments. The marketing strategy will utilize relevant principles of persuasion that are likely to be an effective behavior recruitment tool given the unique set of preparatory behaviors, motivations, and constraint factors that characterize a given segment of volunteers. Steps 4 and 5 are important steps in practice but are outside the scope of this research project, as they involve piloting, implementation, and monitoring phases of the model.

Segmentation of the target population, according to the CBSM model, involves the process of understanding the target audience's set of perceived barriers and benefits to their performing the desired end-state behavior (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). Additionally, barriers and benefits may also differ by sub-populations that serve to further segment the target population. Knowing the unique sets of benefits and barriers that are associated with different population segments allows for a more focused and effective behavior change strategy (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). The two segments examined for this research were the DNR and DFW organization interviewees. There were situations where DNR interviewees described sources of motivations and constraints that differed, sometimes in very nuanced ways, compared to DFW interviewees. For example, negative feelings directed at the volunteer organization were present in both segments, but the reasons for those feelings differed between segments. The use of focus groups was useful in identifying the nuanced differences between these two segments of volunteers.

Behavior Change Tools in a Social Marketing Context

Presented here in more detail are the set of *behavior change tools*, or principles, typically used in the CBSM model to develop a social marketing strategy, they include commitment, prompts, social norms, social diffusion, goods and services, communication, convenience, incentives, goal setting, and feedback (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014)

The use of commitments (Freedman & Fraser, 1966) as part of a behavior change strategy is particularly relevant to this research proposal, as it may be particularly effective where cohesive groups, such as clubs with common outdoor interests (e.g., hiking, hunting), are part of the target population (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Being consistent or following

through on one's commitments increases in likelihood where the membership of a group has close ties, and where consistency is viewed as an important social trait (Cialdini, 2007).

Prompts are useful strategies simply because people can forget to do things. Prompts can be things one sees and/or hears. To be effective, prompts need to be easily noticed, self-explanatory, in close proximity to where the behavior takes place, and used to promote positive behavior (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

Social norms (Asch, 1951) have been used relatively little in social marketing strategies (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Social or community norms can be very effective tools that can offer essential support for target populations attempting to adopt a desired behavior. For the greatest potential impact, norms need to be observable (descriptive) by the target population; that is, the target population needs to see significant others involved in the target behavior (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Norms require direct personal contact in the form of positive reinforcement if people are to internalize (i.e., norm) the behavior (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

Social diffusion (Rogers, 1983) involves having key members of the target audience, or community, publicly promote (support) and model the behavior, such as widely-known and respected others (e.g., elected officials and club presidents) (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Successful diffusion requires acceptance and adoption of the observed behavior among the target community (Dearing, 2015).

Goods and services involve making sure the target community has the tools and supplies (goods) necessary to perform the desired behavior along with providing a supportive and productive work environment (services). For example, organizations may be responsible for providing volunteers with the proper tools and supplies to do the work they are being asked to do

along with presenting a well-planned and organized volunteer work project. The example provided by McKenzie-Mohr et al. (2012) is curbside recycling as a new service that, by providing users with the necessary recycling containers (product), will likely increase performance of the desired behavior.

Communication, in the form of information-intensive practices, has a long history in social marketing as it has been a key component in education and awareness social marketing campaigns. The goal of communication is getting the attention of the target audience (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Effective communication strategies include the following: a) whenever possible, communicate through sources that the target population considers credible and legitimate, and frame the message strategically. For example, emphasize the losses that could happen by not adopting the behavior but also mention the savings of doing the behavior; b) messages should be easy to remember and be challenging but achievable personal or community goals; c) personal interactions can have great impact on the target population's attitudes and behaviors; and d) provide feedback and use communication channels that are part of the target population's information network (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

Convenience means making the target behavior as easy as possible to do (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000). One example from the interviews was the idea of providing transportation (e.g., carpooling) to volunteer events. Engagement in a target behavior can be quickly extinguished if the structural barriers make doing the desired behavior inconvenient (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012). Knowing what the convenience barriers are prior to implementing a social marketing program, and confirming that a change agent's organizational resources are sufficient to

overcome such barriers to a successful outcome, are essential steps in the feedback process of developing a social marketing strategy (McKenzie-Mohr et al., 2012).

Incentives can help get people motivated to engage in the desired behavior (Gardner & Stern, 2002). Incentives should match or pair (i.e., in value) with the target behavior and be visible and symbolically vivid. McKenzie-Mohr et al. (2012) cautions that once incentives are in place, removing them may also remove the motivation to perform the behavior; incentives can be nonmonetary, such as social approval (McKenzie-Mohr, 2012). An example of an incentive that emerged from this research is the Washington State Discover Pass volunteer voucher program. This program allows volunteers to obtain an annual Discover Pass in exchange for donating 24 hours volunteering time to help at DNR recreation sites.

Goal setting: Goals are mental constructs of a person's desired future state, and goal setting occurs when a person has a strategy that includes setting performance targets to help them achieve their goal (Steg et al., 2007). People tend to be more motivated to achieve a personal goal when it is challenging but obtainable (Steg et al., 2007). The likelihood of achieving a goal increases when goal setting is combined with implementation intentions that follow an if-then plan-making approach that details the when, where, and how one will go about achieving a goal (Gollwitzer, 1999). For example, goal setting can be activated in an individual by asking or otherwise getting the person to think about when they plan to participate as a volunteer. This puts in motion a planning process (which is a form of preparatory behavior) to figure out how they will achieve their behavioral goal (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014).

Feedback: Providing individuals with feedback on their progress toward a goal may also improve the effectiveness of goal setting (Steg et al., 2007). People are more likely to stay

engaged in a goal pursuit when they receive feedback on how they are progressing toward their goal. For example, providing volunteers with evidence that their efforts are making a difference in such things as habitat restoration or increasing recreation user enjoyment can help to sustain goal pursuits. Feedback is more likely to be effective when it is done in support of a desired personal goal. For example, it can be improved by incorporating a normative referent (e.g., important social group one belongs to) or a personal resource cost-benefit referent (e.g., tangible outcomes from time spent volunteering) (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014).

In addition to the standard CBSM model, behavior change tools that are relevant to my research findings include: social proof, social liking, and authority (Cialdini, 2007). Social proof (i.e., Social Modeling) influence involves situations where an individual does not know what the correct or appropriate behavior is in a given situation and looks to others to help them understand what is (and is not) the correct behavior. For example, observing that others in their in-group are doing volunteer work would suggest that it is something they should be doing as well.

Social liking involves how people feel about others in a given context. When a person likes another person, they are more likely to do things that person asks of them. A number of factors can produce liking (Cialdini, 2007), these include *similarity* (e.g., being with like-minded others), *physical attractiveness*, *compliments* (e.g., showing appreciation and recognition to volunteers), *contact and cooperation* (i.e., gained familiarity and cooperation through direct personal contact), and *association and conditioning* (i.e., people can be influenced by others, positively or negatively, based on their evaluation of the focal object they associate with that person. For example, would-be volunteers that have a negative opinion of the volunteer

organization at the policy level may consequently have a negative evaluation of volunteering for the organization as well as towards the organization's field staff that coordinate volunteer projects.

Authority influence happens when people are willing to follow others because they are viewed as an authority figure (e.g., expert, group leader, volunteer coordinator, agency representative). Examples from this research include viewing volunteer organization staff in the role of supervisor and expert directing the volunteer event and helping volunteers to be productive.

Management Implications and Recommendations for the Design of Strategies for Recruiting and Retaining Volunteers

In this section, I apply the findings presented in Chapters Two, Three, and Four to the community-based social marketing model by extending the model's concept of increasing benefits and reducing barriers to include preparatory motivations and constraints. I use the set of principles of behavior change outlined above and match them with the forms of motivations and constraints that emerged from the two organizations or market segments and make recommendations for strategies that could increase the effectiveness of efforts to promote and sustain volunteerism for these segments.

Strategy Implications from a Motivation Perspective

Interviewees in both organizations described a wide range of cost-benefit considerations regarding how their personal time and effort would result in some form of gain in return for their

engaging in end-state volunteerism. For preparatory behavior, the cost-benefits were about how to save personal time and effort when doing preparations.

Gain Oriented Strategies

Preparatory Gain Oriented Motivations. From a gain-oriented perspective, when it comes to preparations, interviewees in both segments were focused on finding ways to save on time and effort spent in getting ready. Planning was the way these personal cost savings were achieved. The use of prompts and information being delivered through direct (e.g., personal contact messaging) and indirect (e.g., announcements on websites) may help to initiate and sustain these planning efforts to completion. For example, these can be achieved by providing examples or lists suggesting items for people to bring with them to volunteer events, such as food, gear, etc., and informing individuals about what will be provided by the volunteer organization to reduce uncertainty about what to plan for ahead of time. This information should be readily and conveniently available and be provided as early as possible prior to the scheduled event(s) to allow for the planning lead time that focus groups indicated they needed to complete preparations. Providing organization staff contact information (e.g., email, phone numbers) to answer questions may serve to create a more personal connection (i.e., social liking) and may reinforce any commitments made by the would-be volunteer. Additionally, arranging for other experienced volunteers to be available to help new or less experienced participants by giving advice (i.e., social proof) can also reinforce commitments. By staff and others providing help, the social norm of reciprocity may also influence the would-be volunteer to follow-through on commitments out of a sense of repaying the favor for the help and support (Cialdini,

2007) and may also promote social liking between volunteers and organization staff. Involving fellow volunteers as role models can also provide social proof (Cialdini, 2007) where the new volunteer is observing and learning from other more experienced volunteers. Gaining a public statement of commitment, in the form of an implementation intention (i.e., goal setting), to volunteer early on, or before, the planning process begins may help people stay engaged in the planning process in ways that will enable them to successfully attend the volunteer event.

Convenience was important for both preparations and end-state volunteerism. For the DFW segment, convenience also included making it as easy as possible for people to learn about volunteering opportunities and having it as easy as possible to register or sign-up to volunteer for a scheduled event. For DNR interviewees, convenience included having a flexible time schedule that allows them to start at later times in the day to be better able to engage in important preparations such as taking care of personal health and wellness and personal obligations before leaving home to volunteer.

End-State Gain Oriented Motivations. Convenience was also a source of motivation for end-state volunteerism in both DNR and DFW segments. Convenience can also be viewed as an incentive in situations where individuals have different volunteering options to choose from, and they perceive one option as more convenient compared to the other choices. Accordingly, the information element of a recruitment strategy should make it as easy as possible for prospective volunteers to access detailed information about volunteer events. Proximity to volunteer event locations and having scheduling options in order to tailor volunteering to fit with other personal time constraints were issues raised in both DNR and DFW organizations. In general, making volunteering as convenient as possible may improve recruitment and retention efforts, especially

in cases where the individual is lacking in other sources of motivation to volunteer (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014), for example, where the target activity is not something that is viewed as being fun or rewarding in other aspects of the volunteer experience.

Perceived organizational worthiness, in the form of a positive appraisal that the volunteer organization is worthy of a person's time and effort, was a source of motivation for both DNR and DFW segments. To achieve and/or maintain a positive appraisal by would-be volunteers, tools to consider include a communication program that manages would-be volunteers' expectations by not over promising or suggesting that they will get to do certain types of volunteering when the likelihood is small. This can create false expectations, that in turn, can generate a negative perception of the organization as being untruthful or misleading should those expectations not be met.

Providing feedback was also an important element of perceived worthiness for the DFW segment. DFW focus groups indicated the need to have their volunteering efforts validated by the organization as being effective in the long-run and as making a positive difference. For example, validating efforts by volunteers to remove invasive plant species from a wetland by follow-up communications reporting on how well the wetland has recovered due to their efforts can serve to reinforce a positive perception of the organization being worthy of their time and may help instill a continued commitment to volunteer.

For both DNR and DFW segments, the volunteer organization should demonstrate its worthiness by making sure the volunteer project is well organized and executed so that participants get the real-time impression that they are receiving good value from their investments of personal time and effort. The nuanced difference from the validation feedback is

that the return here appears to be immediate during the event. For example, experiencing being productive as a volunteer, versus standing around doing nothing at the event, was noted as motivation in the DNR context.

Being able to express one's own values through volunteering was a source of motivation for both segments. Accordingly, a volunteer recruitment and retention strategy should include gaining an understanding from targeted populations as to what those values are and then provide opportunities for volunteers to express them through the volunteering experience. For example, both segments reported having egocentric and anthropocentric reasons for volunteering, but only the DFW segment expressed eco-centric motivation. This suggests that having opportunities to serve eco-centric values may be more effective in the DFW context than in the DNR context. Behavior change tools that may be useful in a social marketing strategy include the use of communication pathways (e.g., websites, and direct contact) to create an awareness or salience of value-expressive volunteer opportunities and to use the tool of feedback to let volunteers know that their value-expressive efforts are having an impact. In cases where one's values are reflective of her/his self-perception (Bem, 1972), the principle of commitment may be particularly effective. For example, where the volunteer sees themselves as someone who cares about the natural environment for its own sake (i.e., an eco-centric value orientation), securing a commitment to volunteer will create the need to follow through (to be consistent) on that personal commitment (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014). Securing a written public commitment (such as registering for a volunteer event) has been shown to be more effective than verbal or non-public forms of commitment (Cialdini, 2007).

For both segments, volunteer organization recruitment strategies may benefit from the use of incentives. This could take the form of incorporating ways that volunteers can gain direct personal benefits as users of eco-system services (e.g., hiking, hunting, fishing). For example, providing opportunities during or following the day's event for volunteers to engage in personally rewarding activities, such as hiking, off-road vehicle riding, fishing, etc., that are available in the area. Providing material incentives in the form of hats and/or tee-shirts with the volunteer organization's logo may be useful as a symbolic source of motivation for recruiting new volunteers (Dittmar, 1992). The use of material incentives may also be effective in situations where other sources of motivation are low (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). However, once rewarded with the hat, tee shirt, or similar symbolic item, the incentive will likely be extinguished, and hence may not be effective for retaining volunteers over the long run. Incentives that may have longer term application could be annual parking or visitor passes that last for a year and then need to be renewed. Such incentives that remain desirable over the long run for volunteers could help to retain them. Creating or expanding career enhancement opportunities that can be gained through volunteering, as a form of incentive, is likely to improve recruitment efforts in the DFW context. For example, DFW interviewees expressed the need to build up their resumes such as learning how to use field data collection instruments. For both DFW and DNR, being presented with learning opportunities that serve personal interests was desirable, such as learning how to build structures, and trails. Interviewees in the DFW segment expressed the desire to gain a better understanding of how the organization functions and makes decisions, such as how policy actions that affect public access to recreation are determined. As an incentive, the volunteer organization could make time at the end of a volunteer event to have

guest speakers from the organization talk with participants and answer questions about various aspects of the organization. Having one's recreation self-interests served through volunteering was viewed in both segments as a worthwhile gain in exchange for volunteering. For example, DFW interviewees were motivated to improve wildlife habitat to improve their hunting and fishing activities. For DNR interviewees, it was about improving trail riding experiences (e.g., horseback and off-road vehicle use). For both segments, maintaining access to public lands for their user interests was an important source of motivation.

Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Strategies.

Interviewees in both segments described a broad range of hedonic and emotional themes for both volunteering and preparatory behaviors. Relative to the other two over-arching themes of gain-loss and normative expectations, the hedonic and emotion theme had the greatest diversity in sub-themes. This suggests that it is important to empirically establish for the target community what those feelings and emotions are that current and would-be volunteers may be acting on in the course of their volunteerism and preparations.

Themes in Common Between Preparations and End-State Volunteering. There were a number of similar hedonic and emotion themes that were present for both end-state volunteering and preparations, and these have been combined here for discussion clarity purposes. These common themes involved *social satisfaction and enjoyment* from being with others, *personal satisfaction and enjoyment*, the *need to feel mentally prepared and committed*, and the *need to feel valued and appreciated*.

Social Satisfaction and Enjoyment. Interviewees from both segments expressed that the prospect of social engagement with others having common goals and interest (e.g., like-minded, comradery), was a source of motivation. For example, in cases where volunteers are part of a group or club, a strategy that involves organization staff working with group leadership to create a socially rewarding project environment that is tailored to a particular group's value-orientations (e.g., habitat enhancement for DFW, or recreation trail maintenance for DNR) may be effective at recruiting and retaining participation. Additionally, creating incentives in the form of opportunities where people can work near each other and interact during events may increase the incentive to engage in preparations and participate. By volunteer organization staff working with volunteers to tailor these projects, such direct contact and cooperative interactions may produce social liking between both parties and increase the desire to continue to work together.

Personal Satisfaction and Enjoyment. Providing opportunities for volunteers to feel like they have accomplished something worthwhile appears to be an important form of reward for interviewees in both segments. For example, volunteer organizations should design volunteer events so there is some form of accomplishment or goal (goal setting) that is achievable and made known or salient (i.e., via feedback) to the volunteer. This could involve segmenting larger projects into a series of smaller projects so that there are more opportunities for goal achievement rewards that volunteers can celebrate and appreciate.

At the more nuanced level of personal enjoyment, interviewees in both segments noted that they enjoy getting prepared to volunteer, as in collecting and preparing their gear. The volunteer organization can prompt this behavior with a communication strategy that includes email and other media that provides tips about what equipment to include and how to use it.

The opportunity to be outside appeared to be a strong motivation for the DFW segment. The use of messaging that communicates and emphasizes the opportunities to experience the outdoors when volunteering may be particularly effective for this segment.

Personal obligations related to taking care of one's household pet and not being able to bring their pet to volunteer events were identified as potential constraints. For some DFW interviewees, this appeared to be a very strong constraint on their ability and desire to volunteer. Designing and advertising events that are 'pet friendly' so that volunteers can be outside and with their pets may be an incentive that has both recruitment and retention functions since pet ownership can be a long-term commitment that volunteers must contend with.

To Feel Committed and Mentally Prepared. Interviewees in both segments indicated that they were motivated by feeling committed. To foster this positive feeling, the volunteer organization could provide feedback by showing appreciation for their volunteer contributions. Rewards, such as hats, parking passes, etc. could be forms of appreciation to foster continued commitment. Gaining a public commitment (e.g., registering to volunteer) as part of the strategy may reinforce one's feeling of commitment to volunteer.

Interviewees also expressed being more motivated when feeling mentally prepared to to volunteer. They also indicated that their apprehensions and feelings of being unprepared increased when there were large gaps of time between communications from the volunteer organization. Accordingly, part of an organization's recruitment and retention strategy should include maintaining frequent contact with would-be volunteers in an effort to avoid or alleviate negative feelings that might foster a negative mental state about volunteering. Such communications could include detailed information updates about upcoming volunteer events to

help people manage their expectations, and thus, potentially avoid disappointment or dissatisfaction from their experience. Interviewees indicated that their past experiences volunteering for an organization, both positive and negative, had an influence on their future decisions to volunteer.

Need to Feel Valued and Appreciated. Interviewees in both segments expressed being more likely to volunteer when they felt they were being treated well, such as being recognized and respected. These feelings may also have an influence on peoples' evaluations or attitudes toward the volunteer organization more generally in terms of whether they view it as an organization worthy of their volunteerism. Feeling valued as a volunteer may be a particularly important source of motivation in terms of retaining volunteers as people are less likely to stay involved if they feel they are being treated poorly. The social norm of reciprocity may be effective in these situations. For example, the volunteer organization could show its appreciation toward volunteers through frequent communications expressing gratitude and making recognitions public (e.g., website postings) as part of standard practice. Public recognition may also help to recruit volunteers from those that observe how the organization treats its volunteers in positive ways. Volunteer organizations are advised to seek feedback about how participants feel they are being treated and make program adjustments accordingly.

Preparatory Hedonic and Emotion Motivations

Protecting Self. Physical comfort was important for both segments and may be an important mediator or moderator of other motivations. For example, the prospect of uncomfortable weather conditions may be a difficult factor to overcome for many volunteers in cases where other sources of motivation to volunteer are low. As part of the communication

element of a recruitment and retention strategy, volunteer organizations may want to prompt would-be volunteers frequently with tips on how to stay comfortable and safe during a volunteer event. For example, recommending the types of clothes to bring, as well as water and food should be standard practice. Providing assurances to prevent negative feelings of uncertainty, before and during the volunteer event, that personal safety is being addressed for first-aid and emergency situations, may reduce concerns and increase motivation to continue with preparations. Providing options to stay warm and dry, such as providing canopies to work under and a campfire, may serve as incentives. One DNR interviewee provided a hot soup meal at the end of the day for their group members as a form of reward and to create a friendly social connection with new and returning volunteers (i.e., social liking). Providing a meal at the event may also alleviate the need for volunteers to prepare their own food for the event, thus saving them time and adding convenience. Scheduling volunteer events during drier and warmer times of the year may be an attractive incentive to engage in preparations, as it may require less preparation for gear and food.

End-State Hedonic and Emotion Motivations

Guilt and Regret Avoidance. Unique to the DFW segment was the desire to avoid or reduce feelings of guilt and regret by volunteering. This may be due to the role DFW has in producing sources of fish and game for both recreation and commercial harvesting. Such feelings were expressed in terms of people's thoughts about past overuse and exploitation of natural resources, both personally and as a society, such as over-fishing. A communication strategy that includes appeals about how the volunteer projects can serve to recover depleted natural resources may be effective for those seeking to reduce or avoid experiencing these negative feelings.

Providing feedback on progress made by volunteers toward recovering species populations and restoring habitat function may help to sustain motivation from the goal of guilt avoidance or relief.

Stewardship Pride. Interviewees in both segments expressed being motivated by a sense of personal pride gained by taking care of natural resources and related recreation areas that they use. Volunteer organizations may benefit from employing adopt-a-site programs that require a public commitment (written contract) in cases where there are users expressing an emotional attachment to an area, such as a favorite hiking a favorite trail or fishing area. Adopt-a-site agreements that are sponsored by a club or user group can serve as a group goal where members can coalesce. This may require the volunteer organization to give up some control over managing a site; however, this may also create a socially collaborative working situation with volunteers that reinforces social ties in the form of social liking between volunteers and the organization staff.

Normative Motivation Strategies.

Interviewees in both organizations described being affected by both social and personal norms. Taking care of personal obligations to important others appeared to have a strong influence on engaging in preparations. Being in good standing with one's in-group, such as taking part in one's own club-sponsored volunteer project appeared to help facilitate preparations and end-state behavior. Projecting personal norms onto others and expecting them to behave in like manner (as a measure of fairness) was also mentioned as a motivational factor when complied with, and as a constraint factor if not.

Preparatory Normative Motivations.

Maintaining Positive Relations with Others and Meeting Personal Obligations. Both DNR and DFW interviewees described being motivated to do preparations out of desires to maintain positive relations with important others, including family members and employers. Personal norms were also present in the form of taking care of obligations to personal property such as their house and pets. As part of a social marketing strategy, volunteer organizations could use communication channels to deliver prompts (i.e., reminders) to keep would-be volunteers informed of future volunteering opportunities well ahead of the scheduled dates to allow for plenty of time to address their personal and social obligations. This may help to prevent situations where the would-be volunteers start thinking about volunteering with default or initial perception that they do not have enough time to take care of their obligations in ways that avoid negative feelings (e.g., guilt), or negative social interactions (e.g., conflicts with a spouse or employer). Gaining commitments well in advance of volunteer events may also help would-be volunteers to take preparatory action sooner than later to satisfy their normative obligations.

End-State Normative Motivations.

Expectations of Self and Others. Interviewees in the DNR segment expressed feeling personally obligated to help their club or group to contribute volunteer hours that were promised to an organization. Accordingly, a strategy of working with groups where the membership has a shared interest in, for example, maintaining access to a favorite recreation area, to gain group commitments of volunteer time may be more successful than trying to recruit individuals outside of these groups. When volunteer organizations are working with clubs or other organized groups,

the social norms within those groups can have a strong influence on its members (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011).

DNR interviewees expressed being motivated when others, such as other user groups, also volunteered to help. Interviewees expressed the perception that other groups that are benefiting from the volunteer work of others, should also be volunteering to help in similar ways. As a proactive measure to avoid or resolve such perceptions, the volunteer organization could seek commitments from the other groups to volunteer. These commitments could then be advertised to other groups that have previously volunteered to help sustain their participation. This could even take the form of a friendly competition among groups to see, for example, which one can maintain the most miles of trail in a given year, with the winning group receiving some form of material reward and recognition (with the other groups being recognized as well to avoid a negative feelings).

Strategy Implications from a Constraint Perspective

The set of strategy suggestions below follow the CBSM concept that engagement in the desired end-state behavior is more likely when as many of the constraints, or barriers, are removed or reduced. Accordingly, strategies that are targeted on removing barriers to preparations that facilitate people's engagement in end-state volunteerism may, in turn, increase recruitment and retention of volunteers.

Personal Resource Protection and Loss Avoidance Strategies.

Findings from this research suggest that people are concerned about how their personal resources will be impacted by volunteering and the time and effort needed to do preparations.

Reducing or removing personal costs and losses of resources may have a significant positive impact on increasing volunteerism.

Preparatory Loss Avoidance Strategies.

Not Enough Lead Time to Make Plans. From a preparatory perspective, the importance of not having enough lead-time to make plans was elaborated on in both segments and was the only theme that emerged as a resource loss avoidance constraint on preparations. This theme was a source of motivation when the perception was that there was enough time to plan and make arrangements to volunteer, but a constraint when the time needed for making plans was perceived as being insufficient. From a recruitment and retention perspective, communicating with would-be volunteers and providing as much advanced notice as possible about future volunteer events may help to increase participation. Follow up reminders as the volunteer event approaches serve as prompts to keep the would-be volunteer engaged. Also, understanding how much and why would-be volunteers need time to make plans can inform the design of a strategy. For example, it may be that the volunteer organization can reduce efforts and increase convenience by helping with transportation logistics, such as establishing and coordinating carpools. Where there are other obligations competing for a person's time, such as time with family, the volunteer organization could implement a more a flexible volunteer schedule to provide more options to volunteer. For example, providing opportunities for working only a few hours at a weekend event could allow people to fit in some volunteering and still be able to spend time with their families.

End-State Loss Avoidance Strategies.

Organizational Worthiness. Interviewees in both segments expressed the importance of knowing that their time, effort, and other personal resources spent volunteering would be personally worthwhile. The prospect of expending personal resources can be a constraint if people feel that the effort is not worth it to them. In the DFW organization, interviewees expressed feeling that the organization may be, at times, disingenuous about the types of volunteer opportunities that someone is likely to experience, and that their volunteering efforts were not being validated. Both segments expressed feeling a lack of support for volunteers and had concerns about the organization's ability to be well organized and use people's time effectively. The principles of social proof and liking (Cialdini, 2009) may be effective in such cases. For example, having trusted others (e.g., fellow members of a conservation or recreation club) provide testimonials about personal experiences and how the volunteer work was rewarding and effective at achieving goals that the would-be volunteer supports and values. Validating the work being done by volunteers may be accomplished through feedback to volunteers about what they have accomplished in past projects and how it has benefited elements of the environment or recreation uses that are important to them.

Less Fun Compared to Doing Something Else. Interviewees in both organizations were comparing their volunteer experiences with other types of activities, for both volunteering and other activities, on the basis of how much fun would be gained. In this sense, having fun appeared to be viewed as a personal commodity that can be lost or gained. The use of rewards may be effective in these circumstances, for example, by creating opportunities to experience fun at the conclusion of a volunteer event. This could be in the form of some of the material rewards

suggested by interviewees, such as food and refreshments, hats and tee shirts, a free parking pass, or time at the end of the event to enjoy the recreation facility or natural area that is the subject of the volunteer project.

The Financial and Time Costs of Volunteering. Interviewees in both organizations expressed concerns about the financial and time costs in the form of lost income from taking time off work, travel costs such as fuel and effort spent driving long distances to the volunteer event location, and time lost to volunteering that could be spent on other priorities. Interviewees suggested that the volunteer organization could help by reimbursing some of their expenses as an incentive. Another suggestion was to provide free annual parking passes (a \$30 value) that allow access to recreation areas. To create awareness of these incentives, the organizations could advertise them on their websites where volunteering opportunities are listed.

Hedonic and Emotion Oriented Constraint Strategies

Negative feelings and emotions were elaborated on by interviewees in both organizations when describing their constraints for volunteering and preparations. Interviewees were thinking about how they would feel, both physically and emotionally, when volunteering and when doing preparations. If people perceive their prospective volunteering and/or preparations will involve experiencing negative feelings, then they are less likely to make a commitment to volunteer (or follow through on their commitment) and may be less likely to do preparations that are essential to being able to volunteer. Some of the general hedonic and emotion themes were common to both end-state and preparations and have been combined here in this section to discuss strategy options. Nuanced differences between segments are also identified here.

Prospect of Negative Social Situations.

As a constraint on end-state volunteering, interviewees in both segments expressed a desire to avoid uncomfortable social situations. For example, requesting time off from their job may bring to mind the prospect of an uncomfortable social interaction with a supervisor. DNR interviewees noted that they regularly work weekends when many volunteer events are usually scheduled. Providing a flexible volunteering schedule that includes weekday opportunities may remove an important barrier. DFW interviewees expressed concerns about being in uncomfortable social situations with fellow volunteers, such as working with others to coordinate transportation and figuring out schedules to work together. As an incentive, DFW can try to prevent conflicts by serving in an authoritative role by taking charge and coordinating carpooling logistics and providing guidance on scheduling to reduce the potential for internal group conflicts.

Prospect of Not Having Fun or Being in a Bad Mood. Interviewees in both segments expressed the prospect of not having fun while volunteering or doing preparations as being a possible constraint. Volunteer organizations can help would-be volunteers to avoid a negative experience by providing assistance with preparations in the form of advice about what to bring (e.g., checklists) in an effort to make preparations more convenient and less stressful. In situations where a club or other form of social group is the target population, would-be volunteers may look forward to having fun being with like-minded others. From a mood state perspective, making would-be volunteers aware of these forms of enjoyment ahead of the event may help them to get into a positive mood about volunteering that in turn increase their motivation to do preparations.

Volunteering and Preparatory Uncertainty. One source of negative emotions expressed by interviewees in the DFW context was from having uncertainties or unknowns related to the volunteer event and about one's own preparations. Volunteer recruitment and retention strategies may be more effective when they attempt to head-off any uncertainties well in advance of a volunteer event. Interviewees indicated that this can be particularly helpful when would-be volunteers are making plans to volunteer. For example, using messaging to provide information about start and finish times, whether or not one can volunteer for less than a full day, and having available (e.g., online) a detailed checklist of items to bring, may reduce uncertainty and increase the pleasures of participation. Providing access to information and being able to resolve uncertainties as conveniently and easily as possible to remove uncertainties was suggested. Arranging to have direct access to volunteer staff to help and answer questions allows for opportunities to increase commitment through social liking.

Avoiding Threats to Personal Well-Being and Comfort. Interviewees in both organizations expressed concerns for one's well-being and physical comfort when describing both the preparatory and end-state volunteering experiences. For example, DNR interviewees mentioned concerns about not having access to a portable toilet, and that having one would remove concerns for personal privacy and physical discomfort and not requiring as much change to their routines (e.g., having to not drink coffee in the morning to avoid the need to find a restroom). Interviewees in both segments expressed concerns about the physical (labor) demands that would be required. A strategy that communicates what a volunteer can expect in terms of environmental conditions and physical demands while volunteering can remove uncertainty and allow people to plan accordingly. The volunteer organization can address these

issues by directly removing perceived threats to one's comfort from the volunteering environment, such as providing onsite portable toilets, thus turning a constraint into an incentive. The use of testimonials (social proof) from trusted others, such as from experienced volunteers from the same social group, may help to alleviate concerns. Providing would-be volunteers with prompts to help with preparations, such as a checklist of personal clothing and other recommended items, may also help to reduce perceived threats to personal comfort and well-being. Providing volunteering opportunities during the warmer times of the year may also help to recruit and retain participants. Interviewees in both organizations indicated that bad weather could influence their behavior, even at the last minute. This suggests the strong influence that personal comfort may have on volunteerism.

Threats to Self-Esteem. Interviewees in both organizations expressed concerns about threats to their self-esteem that they associated with feelings of low self-efficacy or perceived lack of ability to perform the volunteering tasks; this included work requiring physical strength or some level of technical knowledge. A strategy that includes incentives in the form of offers to provide the necessary technical training as part of the volunteer experience may help overcome concerns about personal competency and may build confidence for doing the work. Designing volunteer projects that provide for a range of physical demands, from light-duty work to more demanding tasks, may also help resolve such concerns. In either case, designing volunteer projects that bolster or protect self-esteem can both resolve negative emotional constraints and generate motivation to participate.

Negative Emotions Directed at the Volunteer Organization. Interviewees in both organizations expressed feelings of frustration and resentment toward the volunteer organization

and staff. Such feelings may mean that other elements of a social marketing strategy may not be effective. For example, if negative emotions toward an organization and staff persist, it can lead to dis-liking of the organization, which may be very difficult for an organization to overcome (Cialdini, 2009).

Both volunteer organizations should explore more extensively within their target populations to identify sources of negative emotions and understand the basis for them. Conducting focus group interviews provides the opportunity to engage in conversations to understand the nuanced sources of these emotions. For example, in the DFW segment, much of the negativity came from experiencing frustration with the process they must go through to apply for, and actually have, an opportunity to volunteer for something they are interested in doing. This experience included considerable effort and time spent on filling out the on-line volunteer registration and a lack of response or follow-up from the volunteer organization. This lack of response on the part of the organization seemed to generate frustration at first, which for some then turned into stronger feelings of resentment, when the organization and staff continued to not respond to inquiries. Other forms of resentment in both segments appeared to be with how the organization performed at the policy level in areas such as how natural resources are managed, and why access to areas for hunting and off-road recreation vehicle use are limited. In such cases, one component of a recruitment strategy could be for the organization to provide clearly worded explanations as to the purpose for their management practices. This may help to clear up any misunderstandings at the factual level for some and help alleviate emotional barriers to volunteering. Combining the principles of liking and social proof as a strategy could involve identifying and working with individuals in the target population who are trusted and respected

by their in-groups, such as recreation user group leaders and other respected individuals. In cases where the volunteer organization is viewed in a negative light, this may be more successful than the organization staff attempting to engage the target population directly since they may lack social liking and not be viewed as having authority status. Working cooperatively with respected leaders can demonstrate to others in the target population that the organization has good intentions and may, over time, be able to change perceptions of the organization in a positive direction.

Normative Oriented Constraint Strategies

Interviewees in both organizations expressed experiencing constraints due to perceived personal normative expectations as well as perceived social obligations. Both of these general forms of norms were present for both end-state volunteerism and preparations. Additionally, interviewees were also projecting their expectations onto others, such as other users of the same resource (e.g., recreation facility) and onto the volunteer organization. When such expectations were perceived as not being met or complied with, interviewees indicated that they may be less likely to volunteer.

Personal Obligations and Expectations of the Self. Meeting non-volunteering personal obligations was expressed by interviewees in both organizations as consistently taking priority over volunteer-related obligations. Not having these obligations resolved prior to volunteering was a constraint for both segments. For example, family obligations were an important constraint theme for both end-state and preparations. An incentive strategy that includes providing opportunities for volunteers to bring their families to the volunteer events may help to mitigate

the effects of higher personal obligations. Additionally, providing opportunities to volunteer for less than a full day to allow participants to have time to spend with family in the outdoors may be an incentive that also helps to remove a social barrier. Personal obligations to pets can be a constraint. Not being able to arrange for pet care while volunteering was a possible constraint in the DFW segment. Being able to bring a pet to the volunteer event may remove a constraint and also serve as an incentive. Having obligations at work and school were also present as constraints on end-state volunteerism. Making volunteering as convenient as possible by having flexible time schedules where people can customize their volunteering activity around other obligations was identified by the DNR segment. These included being able to volunteer in the middle of the week to help those that work on weekends, thus avoiding losing income (an end-state constraint), and the need to request time off work (a preparatory social conflict constraint).

Non-Compliance of Normative Expectations of Others. How the volunteer organization is perceived in terms of its level of engagement with would-be volunteers was important in both segments. Perceptions that the organization is not being responsive when contacted or approached for help can be viewed as a violation of the social norm of reciprocation (e.g. Cialdini, 2007). Interviewees indicated that having a negative perception of the volunteer organization can serve as a constraint on their preparations and end-state volunteerism. A strategy of being responsive and showing appreciation and respect, as well as other forms of social reciprocation on the part of the volunteer organization, can have an impact on participation. The principle of liking may be effective where the focus is on the volunteer organization establishing and maintaining positive relationships through personal contact and cooperation. Practicing the principle of reciprocity by responding to efforts by would-be

volunteers to make contact with the volunteer organization goes hand in hand with the liking principle. Being proactive in reciprocation to volunteers and would-be volunteers before they feel forgotten and unappreciated can avoid the challenge of trying to change negative attitudes toward the organization that have formed due to a lack of timely responsiveness.

Summary Discussion: Enhancing the Effectiveness of the CBSM Model by Fostering Preparatory Behavior

From a personal resource gain and loss avoidance perspective, preparations can be fostered by convenience and the desire to save time and effort and to experience as much fun as possible. Extending the CBSM model to promote preparatory behavior in the form of cognitive activities of appraisal of organizational worthiness, commitment decision-making, planning, and knowledge gaining that facilitates volunteerism may be critically important since it involves making decisions about volunteering and problem solving regarding how to be able to participate in a volunteer event. Having convenient access to detailed information about an organization's program, event schedule, and how to register to volunteer (a form of public commitment), will help to foster these preparations. Since one element of making a commitment to volunteer depends on having a favorable (or negative) appraisal of the organization, other tools in addition to the standard CBSM model such as reciprocation, social liking, and social proof may improve the effectiveness of strategies. For example, when volunteer staff are responsive (reciprocating) to inquiries for detailed information about volunteering opportunities, the personal contact and cooperation that is exhibited may stimulate social liking, which, in turn, may help to promote and

sustain commitments as well as promote and sustain planning, problem solving, and other preparations.

From a hedonic and emotion-oriented perspective, engaging in preparations and volunteering are motivated by the desire to experience positive feelings and emotions, and, conversely, they are constrained by the prospect of experiencing negative ones. Accordingly, the CBSM benefits and barriers model may be more effective by increasing the potential for experiencing positive feelings and reducing the potential for experiencing negative feelings that people associate with preparations and volunteering. Preparatory behaviors that appeared to be impacted by hedonic and emotional drivers include planning and knowledge gaining (due to experiencing uncertainty), social interactions with important others (e.g., spouse, employer), and actions aimed at protecting one's physical comfort, wellbeing, and enjoyment. The CBSM tools that may be effective for a strategy to counteract these include those that can generate positive feelings, such as incentives/rewards in the form social interactions with similar others. Having a communication element that creates awareness of rewards and tries to address areas where would-be volunteers may be experiencing uncertainty may increase the effectiveness of strategies. Material rewards (e.g., hats and tee shirts from the organization) may help to serve the need to feel appreciated that was expressed in both segments. The use of commitments may create positive feelings that may be associated with having a purpose or goal. Providing feedback on progress volunteers have achieved may help to reduce feelings of guilt and regret (for past damage to the natural resources) and increase the positive feelings of pride in stewardship gained from taking care of an area or natural resource.

In addition to the standard CBSM tools, the principle of contact and cooperation in the form of active engagement (e.g., being responsive and accessible) by the volunteer organization staff may be effective at avoiding volunteers feeling resentful by demonstrating to volunteers its appreciation and respect through direct contact, such as face-to-face contact (e.g., in the field and video conferencing). A contact and cooperation strategy may also promote social liking between volunteers and staff that may bolster commitments that, in turn, may help to facilitate preparations and volunteerism.

Interviewees indicated that their personal normative obligations were often directed toward aspects of their lives that had a higher priority over volunteering and engaging in preparations. Accordingly, understanding that meeting personal obligations comes before volunteering suggests that volunteer organizations can use a communication strategy that includes early notice of scheduled volunteer events and other detailed information that may provide would-be volunteers enough lead-time to make plans to volunteer and avoid conflicts with more important personal obligations.

With regard to social norms, interviewees in the DNR segment were motivated to volunteer when they observed other user groups take responsibility to volunteer and share the load. Conversely, when other groups were observed as not helping out, the motivation to volunteer was negatively impacted. An additional social norm constraint was present in both segments when the volunteer organization was perceived as not being engaged with volunteers, such as not being responsive when contacted or not acting respectfully toward volunteers. In this case, the volunteer organization would be advised to apply the CBSM tool of social norms to itself and comply with expectations of volunteer groups and individuals, where appropriate, and

use communication channels to demonstrate compliance. This would include using contact and cooperation in the form of reaching out and being actively engaged with volunteers (and would-be volunteers) and offering public recognition and appreciation to volunteers.

Management Strategy Recommendations Summary for DNR and DFW:

The following is a summary of suggested elements for management strategies for both DNR and DFW that are based on the findings from this research. To utilize these suggestions within the context of the community-based social marketing model, please refer to the detailed descriptions in this chapter (above) of how those principles of behavior change can be matched to implement these suggestions. Additionally, these suggestions apply to the timeframe within which this research was conducted, and, since time has passed since then, it is not a direct reflection on what either organization is currently doing to recruit and retain volunteers.

Focus groups expressed a range of motivations and constraints for both preparations and end-state volunteerism that involve the perceived costs and benefits related to how people's personal resources (e.g., time, effort, financial) are expended, how people may feel physically and emotionally toward doing preparations and end-state volunteering, whether or not people believe they can meet their own personal normative obligations and whether others, in the context of volunteering, are in compliance with perceived social norms.

Unless specifically noted in the list below for either DNR or DFW, the following suggestions for incorporation into a strategy to recruit and retain volunteers apply to both organizations.

Suggestions from a personal resource gain motivation perspective.

1. Make preparations and end-state volunteering as convenient and time-efficient for would be volunteers as possible. For example, make registration or signing-up to volunteer on websites simple and uncomplicated. Provide for flexible start times for events and for times other than weekends to volunteer.
2. Ask volunteers (and would-be volunteers) what they think about how the organization is doing in regards to providing worthwhile volunteering experiences (i.e., organizational worthiness) and make adjustments where possible to improve the perceived costs and benefits of time spent volunteering and preparing.
3. For DFW, address perceptions that the agency is not being truthful or clear about people's chances of participating in a volunteer event for which they have applied. For DFW, provide feedback post-volunteer event to help validate that volunteers' efforts are making a difference.
4. Help would-be volunteers to find volunteering opportunities that match their value orientations. This may be partially achieved by providing detailed descriptions of purposes and goals underlying the various volunteering opportunities.
5. Provide material incentives where possible, such as agency hats with logos and annual use passes.
6. Provide opportunities for knowledge gaining, such as developing new skills, knowledge, and understanding about the mission and operations of the organization.

Suggestions from a personal resource loss avoidance (constraint) perspective.

7. Would-be volunteers may compare one volunteering opportunity with others before making a commitment. Provide information and testimonials from other volunteers that help would-be volunteers to gauge the level of personal enjoyment they can expect to experience at the volunteer event, so they can compare and contrast it with other opportunities that are available to them. This relates to cases where the would-be volunteer may have uncertainties that need to be resolved.
8. For preparations, provide early notice of future volunteering events (e.g., via email) to allow would-be volunteers to make plans and address other personal priorities to remove personal time conflicts.
9. Reduce personal costs of volunteering by providing reimbursement for expenses incurred, such as for food, vehicle gas, etc.
10. Be efficient in use of people's time spent volunteering. Address perceptions that the organization is not being supportive of volunteers in terms of being well organized at volunteer events (i.e., organizational worthiness). For DFW, this includes providing feedback to validate the effectiveness of volunteer efforts and being responsive to applications made to participate in specific volunteer events.

Suggestions from a hedonic-emotion oriented motivation perspective.

11. Look for opportunities for similar social groups to work together (i.e., social satisfaction working with like-minded others). Create opportunities to interact with field staff from the organization to develop stronger social ties through social liking.

12. Create opportunities to experience some level of achievement (project enjoyment), or incremental achievement toward a large project, at every event occurrence to maintain positive feelings of making progress.
13. For DFW, provide tangible evidence that efforts are helping to fix resource damage from past practices, such as over-harvesting, to help people cope with feelings of regret and guilt from past behavior.
14. Create opportunities to experience stewardship pride and commitment by offering some level of autonomy, such as giving responsibility over to volunteers (such as a group or club) to take care of a natural feature or built facility.
15. For both preparations and end-state volunteerism, express appreciation to volunteers to create feelings of being valued and appreciated by the organization.
16. For preparations, address concerns about experiencing physical discomfort and concerns for well-being. Provide detailed information about how to prepare for volunteer events and what items or facilities (e.g., toilets, water) will be made available, and provide ways of contacting staff directly to address concerns and provide assurances to would-be volunteers.
17. Emphasize the potential for enjoyment to be experienced at a volunteer event (but don't oversell to avoid feelings of disappointment).

Suggestions from a hedonic-emotion oriented constraint perspective.

18. For DFW, for preparations and end-state volunteering, be proactive in preventing feelings of uncertainty surrounding how to make preparations to volunteer and what to expect at the volunteer event.

19. The prospect of doing preparations can generate negative feelings. Organizations may be able to alleviate such feelings by providing detailed information, such as checklists of how and what to prepare for and inform would-be volunteers, and information about what will be provided at the event to further reduce or prevent negative feelings related to having uncertainties.
20. Protecting self (concerns for discomfort and well-being), for both preparations and end-state volunteerism, could be addressed by providing a range of volunteer tasks that include those that are not overly physically challenging or difficult and are low in perceived risk to one's safety. This may also help with feeling related to lack of self-efficacy about doing the volunteer tasks.
21. Monitor and seek out opinions from volunteers to assess attitudes toward the organization in terms of satisfaction with its performance in order to avoid or address negative feelings expressed in negative evaluations of the organization.

Suggestions from a normative oriented motivation perspective.

22. For DNR, strive to understand would-be volunteers' expectations of others, which can serve as a motivation to volunteer. For example, recruiting volunteers from other beneficiary groups to help satisfy expectations by one group that other groups will also be sharing in the work that needs to be done. This may also help build social liking between groups that may lead to an increased motivation to work together in the future.
23. For preparations, recognize that the would-be volunteers are particularly interested in maintaining positive social relationships with important others at home and at work.

Providing plenty of lead time about future volunteer opportunities will provide would-be volunteers time to plan around these social priorities to avoid conflicts.

24. Establish and maintain personal commitments by individuals and groups to volunteer through the use of written public statements such as early registration (sign-up) to volunteer and letters of support.

Suggestions from a normative oriented constraint perspective.

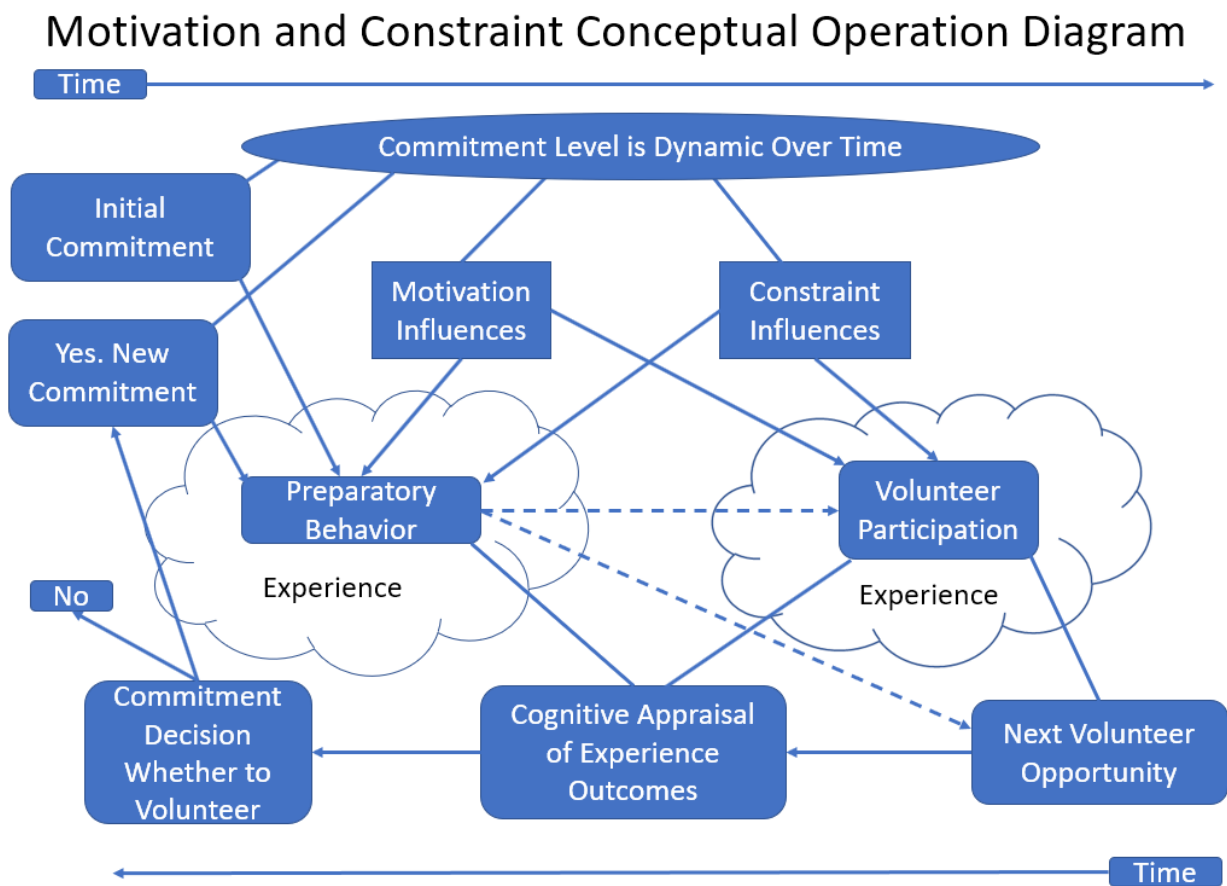
25. Meeting other personal normative expectations (e.g., family, employer, school, personal property, etc.) may present a significant constraint on preparations and end-state volunteerism. Actions that may be appropriate and helpful on the part of the organization can include providing plenty of lead time (months or more in advance) about upcoming volunteer events, thus allowing for lead time for planning and meeting obligations.
26. For DNR, perceptions that others are not sharing in the volunteer work, such as other groups that may be benefiting from the work, can inhibit their volunteerism. To avoid such perceptions, organizations can maintain close communications with volunteers to gauge their opinions of such social situations and attempt to recruit groups that are not volunteering to become more engaged.
27. Monitor expectations would-be volunteers have of the organization and whether or not these are being met. This can be in the form of actively engaging with volunteers with direct personal contact which demonstrates respect and acknowledgment that may, in turn, promote more positive evaluations and relationships with the organization.

Conclusions

Focus groups for both organizations suggested that even before making an initial commitment to volunteer, they are thinking about or anticipating the outcomes of various aspects of the volunteer experience, including the experience of doing preparations (see Figure 4 below). In cases where they encounter unanticipated changes, for example in their planned preparations, such changes may trigger a reappraisal or even a reversal of their commitment to volunteer. Additionally, focus groups from both organizations have suggested that their end-state volunteering experiences (actual, or perceived) can have an impact on any future (repeat) engagements in that behavior. Focus groups indicated that their evaluations (a preparatory cognitive behavior in the context of this research) of past experiences volunteering in a given context were part of their decision-making about their future volunteering in that context. The perceived barriers to doing necessary preparations, from the would-be volunteer's perspective, appear to be a key area for volunteer recruiters to focus on and find ways of reducing such barriers. For example, if a person does not know what to do to prepare to volunteer, then that could extinguish any further actions toward volunteering. However, providing detailed information on how to prepare (a way to remove the barrier of uncertainty), and providing it well ahead of the volunteer event, can help sustain engagement in preparations. Additionally, maintaining, or even enhancing, the level of motivation to engage in necessary preparations is also critical. For example, organizations can practice maintaining personal contact (to show appreciation and develop social liking) with volunteers by being available to provide guidance and being responsive to inquiries (thus meeting social normative expectations of reciprocity) leading up to the volunteer event. The evidence from this research supports the proposition that

efforts by DNR and DFW, and similar natural resource-based volunteer programs, should gain an understanding what and how people are motivated to engage in their preparations and what factors may inhibit them and why, including how their past end-state experiences are having an impact on those preparations that facilitate future participation in a given volunteering context. Volunteer organizations can then apply that information to a recruitment strategy.

Figure 3: Motivation and Constraint Conceptual Operation Diagram



Social marketing models designed to promote engagement in a targeted behavior, such as the community-based model developed by McKenzie-Mohr and Smith (1999) have focused

on how to promote engagement in “non-divisible” target end-state behavior. The general concept of this model is that people are more likely to engage in a desired or target behavior (i.e., a behavior that the change agent desires the person to engage in) by increasing the benefits and removing the barriers directly related to the end-state behavior. Conceptually, this model does not account for the impact that the benefits and barriers people associated with preparations may have on successfully engaging in the target end-state behavior (e.g., volunteerism).

Interviewees in two natural resource organization volunteer programs have described how their preparations facilitate their ability to engage in end-state volunteerism. They have also described a range of motivations and constraints for doing preparations that can differ from those for end-state behavior. Accordingly, the effectiveness of efforts to promote pro-environmental behavior, such as volunteerism, may be improved by reducing or removing constraints and increasing the motivation for engaging in preparations in ways that promote and sustain participation in desired end-state behavior. Given that the findings from this research have identified motivations and constraints that can be unique to preparatory behavior, the concept of extending the CBSM model, to facilitate preparatory behavior, appears to have merit and may increase the effectiveness of these models in guiding the development of strategies to recruit and retain volunteers under similar circumstances.

The findings from this research suggests that there is a potential benefit in conducting additional research to explore preparatory behaviors for their range of motivations and constraints. This should include exploring other forms of volunteerism and other pro-environmental behavior domains as well, such as energy conservation and recycling, to understand what those preparations entail and how they facilitate and inhibit desired end-state

behavior. It may be that motivations and constraints on preparatory behavior are having significant impacts on behavioral outcomes for these domains as well. Accordingly, efforts by change agents to promote various forms of pro-environmental behavior should take these potential impacts into consideration when designing behavior change strategies.

Generalizability

The findings from this research are not generalizable to volunteerism in its broader context. However, these findings do provide new insights for how to recruit and retain volunteers that are willing to perform strenuous physical activity within the context of two state agencies charged with managing and regulating natural resources.

Researcher and Data Declarations

This research can be subject to challenges of validity due to researcher bias in several ways. The first is bias in the form of the researcher having a close relationship with the topic, and in several cases, with the participants (e.g. Robson, 2011). The researcher is also employed by the Washington State Department of Natural Resources and manages recreation areas for DNR and works with volunteers. A few of the DNR focus group participants knew the researcher prior to participating on the focus groups, including some that had done volunteer work at sites that the researcher was managing at that time. Under these circumstances, there is the potential for social influence (e.g., authority effects) to be exerted on the participants to, such as, avoid speaking negatively about experiences that involved the researcher or the DNR agency more generally, and to overstate the positive. DNR focus group transcripts would suggest that

this effect may have been limited, since there are numerous examples in the transcripts where participants were openly critical of DNR and volunteer projects, including some that the researcher was involved with as a DNR employee. In the case of DFW focus groups, this researcher did not know any of the participants prior to conducting the interviews or have any familiarity or experience with the DFW volunteer program.

Interviewer bias (Bartholomew et al., 2000) may also be present; this may be due in part for the same researcher biases noted above, that is, being close to the research topics and being acquainted with some of the respondents. The use of an interview script may have served to mitigate going off script and asking questions outside the purpose of the interviews.

Additionally, having personal familiarity with the setting and participants (in the case of DNR) may also be a benefit to the researcher-interviewer by being able to somewhat identify with the participants in the volunteering context (e.g. Bartholomew et al., 2000). This researcher also lacked prior experience conducting focus groups. Again, this may have been partly mitigated through the use of an interview script that helped with moderating the focus group sessions and staying on topic.

Coding bias may also be a concern (e.g. Bartholomew et al., 2000) since all the coding was done solely by the researcher without the benefit of establishing inter-coder agreement with other researchers (Saldana, 2009) since only one researcher performed the coding of the interview transcripts. Some of this bias may have been mitigated with the benefit of my committee chair, who has extensive knowledge and experience conducting focus groups and coding data, providing extensive feedback on draft version of my analysis and coding. My

academic training in coding of interview data prior to conducting the research may have also served to help mitigate my lack of practical experience.

Research Validity Through the Lens of Triangulation

Triangulation is a term used in the context of qualitative research to describe a range of approaches to assessing the validity or credibility of a research project (Yin, 2016). One form of triangulation that applies to this research is the *triangulation of sources*. More specifically, it is the form of triangulation that involves comparing the perspectives of people from different points of view (Patton, 2002). A similar approach to maintaining/establishing validity is suggested by Maxwell (2013) as Comparison (comparing results across different settings, group, or events). Collectively, these types of validity or credibility concepts are present in this research as part of the research design. This includes the use of purposeful sampling which, by design, sampled for a range of volunteering perspectives. Two forms of perspectives were purposely sampled for: the first is in the level of volunteering experience – from no volunteering for the given volunteer organization to volunteering a few times, to those with extensive volunteering for the organization. The result of this sampling established a broad range of experience perspectives – sometimes referred to as sampling for maximum variation sampling (e.g., Miles & Huberman, 1994). The second perspective involved selecting for two different volunteer organizations – DNR and DFW. The results of this sampling created the bases for a range of perspectives or points of view both from within and across two different volunteer programs. Additionally, a third perspective emerged during the focus group interviews in which participants described a range of interests for their volunteering activity that included

volunteering for habitat restoration and enhancement, collecting scientific field data, building and maintaining trails for motorized and non-motorized interest groups, and doing field work for the purpose of increasing populations of fish and game for recreational hunting and fishing. Finally, each focus group represents a different occasion/event within the sample. In other words, each focus group is a unique source of information.

Additionally, the method of coding and themeing the data kept the findings and analysis very anchored (grounded) in the actual words and phrases of the focus groups so that there is little room for misinterpretation and minor conceptual distance between the quotes and the themes that have been identified. The only conceptual step away from the themes took place during the 4th cycle coding that organized (but did not change) the themes under the three overarching categories.

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Appendix A

First Round Interview Script for DNR and DFW Focus Groups

(follow-up questions and prompts are shown in *italics*)

Opening (icebreaker) question to each interviewee (5 min):

Can each of you share with us some of your favorite outdoor activities - things you enjoy doing outdoors?

Personal motivations for volunteering (15 min): (Not everyone has volunteered)

- People can have different reasons for doing volunteer work. As you think back to your volunteering with DNR, would each of you mind sharing some of your reasons for volunteering?

Let's start with . . .

What, if anything, is enjoyable about volunteering for you? And Why?

What makes volunteering worthwhile for you?

What is your most important reason for volunteering for DNR?

What should DNR be doing to gain your participation as a volunteer in the future?

Personal constraints on volunteering (20 min):

- People have different constraints or barriers that can limit or even prevent them from volunteering.

Would you mind each sharing with us any examples of constraints you have experienced when trying to volunteer with DNR? These constraints can be personal (not enough time, cost, babysitter) or external – such as DNR scheduling, type of volunteering activities, etc. It can be anything that comes to mind that can limit your volunteering. We can start with . . .

What are things you have to do before you can volunteer (things you must do or you won't be able to go volunteer)?

Is there anything you that you have to put off doing so you can volunteer?

- What are things you don't like about volunteering for DNR projects?
- What is it about volunteering that is not necessarily fun you?
- Is there anything that DNR can do to remove or resolve things that limit or prevent you from volunteering?
- Wrap-up on Motivations and Constraints: What is the most important thing DNR can do to recruit you as a volunteer in the future?

Break: **First, the A-Priori prime question:** As you take a moment to look over your list of things you do to prepare to volunteer, is there anything you forgot to include in the list?

Question regarding preparatory behaviors (40 min):

This part of the interview will focus on the things you do to prepare to volunteer, and also how those things help you to volunteer, and what can limit you, or even prevent you, from doing these things that help you to volunteer.

People do a series of things when preparing to do something like attend a volunteering event or some other important event. For example, someone who wants to go watch a sports event or concert will likely prepare in advance of the event. Some examples of preparation activity might be buying tickets to the event, arranging to go with a friend, hiring a babysitter, taking time off work, getting a good night's sleep, etc. Preparatory behaviors can also include decisions to not do something, for example deciding to put off doing house chores so you can volunteer. And for each of these preparation activities people have their reasons for doing them as well as constraints on doing them.

Identifying preparatory behaviors -----

Think about a scenario where you have just learned of a volunteer event that you want to attend, what are the things you will do (or decide to not do) to prepare to volunteer?

- *Must Do's: What do you need to do before you can personally commit to volunteer at a scheduled event?*

- *How do these preparations help you to volunteer?*
- *What would prevent you from doing a certain preparation?*
- *What's your lead time? How much time will you need to get ready to volunteer? Lead time: How much time before you volunteer do you need to get ready to volunteer – this would include making arrangements with friends and family, work, pets, etc.?*
- What else do you do to get ready to volunteer?
- After your preparations to volunteer are underway, has there ever been a point in your preparations where you have realized that you won't be able to volunteer after all? What are those things that have changed your decision to volunteer?

Ending Questions (allow 20 minutes):

- Are there any other benefits to volunteering that you would like to mention?
- Are there any other constraints on your volunteering that you would like to mention?
- How about other things you do to get ready?

As you reflect on your own personal motivations and constraints for volunteering, what do you see that DNR could address in some way to help with your volunteering?

- Now thinking bigger picture:
- Thinking about people other than yourself, what can DNR do to improve:
- What can DNR do to recruit volunteers?
- What can DNR do to retain volunteers?

Appendix B

Second Round Focus Group Interview Script

Focus Group General Discussion Topics:

Focus group preliminaries presented to focus group participants: 1) describe the purpose of interviews; and 2) UW IRB provisions to protect participants.

Discussion Topic Introduction read to interviewees:

“When people are thinking about attending a conservation volunteering event they go through a decision-making process to determine whether or not they will participate. The purpose of this focus group is to learn about what people are thinking about when they are making their decisions about volunteering.

1. Motivations, constraints, and expectations:

Talk about what motivates you to volunteer? What are some of the limitations or barriers to your volunteering and how can they affect your volunteering? What can make your volunteer experience worthwhile and not worthwhile?

2. Uncertainties and unknowns about volunteering:

What do you need to know about an upcoming volunteer event when you are thinking about participating?

3. Managing other commitments:

When thinking about attending a volunteer event, how do you manage your other commitments and obligations? How do these commitments and obligations affect your ability to volunteer?

4. Thoughts about making preparations to volunteer: (Imagine a specific volunteer event)

When you are thinking about a specific volunteer event, how will you prepare to get ready to volunteer? How much time do you need to ahead of a volunteer event to make arrangements to participate?

5. Recruiting and retaining volunteers:

What can volunteer organizations do to encourage you to volunteer in the future? What can volunteer organizations do that would discourage you from volunteering? How can a volunteer organization help you with your efforts to volunteer?

Appendix C: Focus Group Worksheet

Volunteer Focus Group Worksheet to Prompt Thoughts About Preparations

<p>Things I do to prepare or get ready to volunteer: You can use this form to make a note of the things you do to get ready to volunteer:</p> <p>People often do a series of things when preparing to do something like attend a volunteering event or some other important event. For example, someone who wants to go watch a sports event or concert will likely prepare in advance of the event. Some examples of preparation activity might be buying tickets to the event, arranging to go with a friend, hiring a babysitter, taking time off work, getting a good night's sleep, etc. These preparations can also include decisions to not do something, for example deciding to put off doing house chores so you can volunteer. And for each of these preparation activities people have their reasons for doing them as well as constraints on doing them. Part of the focus group discussion will be talking about the things you do to prepare to volunteer, and also how those things help you to volunteer, and what things can limit you, or even prevent you, from doing these things that help you to volunteer. Here are some examples that I can think of:</p> <p>Check yes or no if this is something you must do or take care of or you won't be able to volunteer.</p>	
<p>Example 1: Put gas in my vehicle the day before so I don't have to worry about it in the morning. Or, if I don't have enough gas, I might not volunteer that day.</p>	
<p>Example 2: I make a lunch the night before. Or, I stop off at the store on my way to volunteer in the morning.</p>	
<p>Example 3: I need to find a babysitter. Or, I only volunteer if my parents will look after the children.</p>	
<p>Example 4: I first need to get approval to take time off from my job, and that may take some lead time.</p>	
<p>Example 5: I need to get a good rest the night before. Or, I always make coffee in the morning before I go volunteer.</p>	
<p>For example: What is the first thing you think of needing to do once you decide you are going to a volunteer event? Think about how much lead time you need to take care of all your preparations.</p>	

VITA

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Education

Doctor of Philosophy student in Environmental and Forest Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, September 2010 – present. Dissertation title: *Exploring the Motivations and Constraints on Volunteerism from a Preparatory Behavior Perspective Across Two Natural Resource Management Organizations.*

Master of Urban Planning (1993), College of Built Environments, University of Washington, Seattle, WA.

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