UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG

The antecedents of volunteering

What drives volunteers and their will to help others?

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Abtract

The aim of this thesis was three-fold. First, the goal was to investigate the psychological sources to volunteering behaviour and *why* people choose to volunteer in a broad sense by comparing and evaluating current theories, frameworks and hypotheses. Second, through conducting an empirical investigation of some of the theorized psychological sources for volunteering, the aim was to test the most relevant theories and studies done on the topic and their capacity to predict volunteering behaviour. With this goal in mind, an internet survey was distributed amongst volunteers active in non-profit organisations and initiatives in Sweden. Finally, much of the research done on volunteering has been conducted in outside Sweden, which makes it valuable to look at the theories of volunteering in a different and local context to see if any cultural differences exist that have previously not been taken into account. Results of the empirical investigation are mixed, with varying degree of significant correlations and relationships between the psychological concepts recorded and the commitment to volunteering.

Keywords: volunteering, prosocial behaviour, civil society, the volunteer function inventory, the five-factor model of personality.

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1. Introduction

Volunteering and prosocial behaviour have been a topic of interest within a diverse number of disciplines (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). It is thought to be a unique kind of altruistic behaviour, differing from other kinds such as situational or spontaneous helping behaviour (Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2000). By many, volunteering is defined as *sustained helping behaviour*, often taking place in an organized setting, freely given without reward and where the volunteer is engaged in activities for an important cause or to help others (Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010; Penner, 2002; Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2000, 2012). All analyses done in this thesis are based on this definition. This thesis will not delve into or discuss definitions further – for a more thorough review, see Snyder and Omoto (2008). Volunteer activities and engagement play an important role in Swedish society. 53 percent of the adult population in Sweden worked on a voluntary basis in 2014 (von Essen, Jegermalm, & Svedberg, 2015), and active volunteers were working 15 hours per month on average according to the same study. Considering the bigger picture, the civil society in Sweden is a major force, contributing with 3.2 percent to the Swedish BNP in 2014 (Statistiska Centralbyrån, 2016). In comparison, 24.9 percent of residents volunteered for an organization at least once in between 2014 and 2015 in USA (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2017). In Europe, the rate of volunteering varies, but a substantial number of people volunteer every year (Observatory for Sociopolitical Developments in Europe, 2011). These numbers show that volunteering is something to consider, playing a major role in many people's lives and society in general.

The aim of this thesis was two-fold. First, the goal was to investigate the psychological sources to volunteering behaviour and *why* people choose to volunteer in a broad sense by comparing and evaluating current theories, frameworks and hypotheses. Extensive research has been done on this topic, but from very different theoretical perspectives, which makes it valuable to zoom out and try to capture a "fuller" picture of the mechanisms behind this kind of prosocial behaviour. Second, through conducting an empirical investigation of some of the theorized psychological sources of volunteering, the aim was also to test the most relevant theories and studies done on the topic and their capacity to predict volunteering behaviour. With this goal in mind, an internet survey was distributed amongst volunteers active in non-profit organisations and initiatives in Sweden. In addition to this, much of the research done on volunteering has been conducted outside Sweden, which makes it valuable to look at the theories of volunteering in a different and local context. This last point is a more exploratory one, and will not be in much focus in this thesis.

The reasons and factors leading up to volunteering behaviour can be called the *antecedents* of volunteering (Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2012). These antecedents or sources are thought to be many and varied, touching upon concepts such as altruism, decision making, civil society & civil engagement, dispositional characteristics of people, demography, organisational work and so on. Because of the big variety of concepts relating to volunteering and volunteering behaviour, this field of study is relevant for many different disciplines such as e.g., sociology, economy, psychology and political sciences (Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Hustinx et al., 2010). For example, seen from an economical perspective, altruistic behaviour is paradoxical given it's inherit nature and the fact that people engage in activities were the costs exceeds the benefits of helping others (Hustinx et al., 2010). I have in this thesis chosen to focus on the psychological aspects of volunteering due to my field of study, but this paper will also touch upon the perspectives of other disciplines as they give valuable insights into this phenomenon. To narrow it down further, the empirical investigation done in this thesis were concentrated on personality

traits, motivations and demographic variables, as these concepts or constructs have been shown to be promising in predicting volunteering behaviour. Another reason to choose only three out of all the possible factors thought to predict volunteering was the time limitations of this thesis. A more extensive study would potentially be more successful in conducting a more complete investigation of all the theories existing.

These three concepts studied in turn relate to a set of research traditions that have emerged in the study of the antecedents of volunteering. Matsuba, Hart, and Atkins (2007) name these *the social-structural, personality* and *identity* research traditions. It is important to note here that the three concepts studied in this thesis only relate to two of the above-mentioned research traditions – the *social-structural* and the *personality* tradition. In this paper, little focus was put on the idea of *identity* as a source for volunteering as it is mainly captured through longitudinal studies. The *social-structural* tradition is concerned with explaining volunteering by demographic variables, social roles and social class. This includes variables such as age, education, employment status, income and so on. The *personality* research tradition is focused on the dispositional variables and characteristics of people in explaining volunteer behaviour. This includes personality traits and motives, which is thought to lead people into becoming a volunteer, and also sustain their engagement over time. The *identity* research tradition has its focus on the identity of people and how this identity develops due to a person's engagement in volunteer work. A strong "helper" identity has been shown to sustain people's engagement as a volunteer (Finkelstein, 2008).

Considerable research has been done within each of the three traditions, showing positive correlations between their respective areas of interest and volunteering (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, & Copeland, 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner, 2002). That said, there also exist differences between these traditions, often mounting to scepticism towards other proposed determinants that can explain and predict volunteering. As Matsuba et al. (2007) explain, "there is little consensus among researchers concerning the organization of constructs in their process models of volunteering" (p. 891). Attempts at constructing a holistic account of the sources of volunteering are rare, though they do exist (e.g. Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Matsuba et al., 2007; Penner, 2002). One reason might be that the phenomenon itself is such a multi-disciplinary endeavour, requiring such a diverse number of methods and combinations of scientific traditions to be able to fit the pieces into an integrated model.

The survey conducted in this thesis sought to investigate to what degree personality traits, motivations to volunteering and demographic variables correlate with volunteering behaviour. In addition to this, the aim was also to explore these concepts in a local context, using already developed measures to test their validity and capability in predicting or identifying some of the psychological sources to volunteering. First, in the domain of personality traits, it has been found that certain personality traits correlate with the commitment to volunteer (Atkins, Hart, & Donnelly, 2005; Bekkers, 2005; Penner, 2002). Therefore, it was hypothesised that this study would find a positive correlation between personality traits associated with prosocial behaviour and the commitment to volunteering. Second, using existing measures capturing the motivations to volunteer, it was hypothesised that the results would show a positive correlation between some of the six motivational functions developed by Clary, G. E. et al. (1998) and the commitment to volunteering. Finally, this study recorded several demographic and social variables (gender, age, education, employment status and region of residence) of the participants. Gender, age and education in particular have been shown to correlate with volunteering in the past and it was thought that the sample of volunteers responding to the survey would be of a similar character to that found in earlier studies. The null-hypothesis for this study was that none of the variables under investigation would correlate with the

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commitment to volunteering in any way. The measures used to capture the personality traits were based on the *five-factor model of personality* (also called the "big five" model of personality; see Costa & McCrae, 1992), assessing the participants' average scores on the traits of this model. The measure used was based on two previous studies (Bekkers, 2005; Matsuba et al., 2007). To capture the motivations of people to volunteer, the *Volunteer Function Inventory* (VFI) developed by Clary, G. E. et al. (1998) was used. This last measure was developed with the intention of creating a stable instrument to assess people's motivations to volunteer.

2. Background

Volunteerism and volunteer work are topics well studied. First of all, volunteerism has a strong connection to altruism (Haski-Leventhal, 2009), being a kind of prosocial behaviour where individuals go beyond the self to help others or to fight for a cause, over a longer time period and where the behaviour has a negative cost for the individual. Volunteering can be viewed as "organized" or "planned" altruistic behaviour (Clary, G. E. et al., 1998), often taking place in formal settings or through volunteering programs. It can also be characterized as a form of *social action,* benefitting other individuals, movements, larger communities and the general society in which they are embedded (Snyder & Omoto, 2007; Snyder & Omoto, 2008). In the study of volunteerism and prosocial behaviour within psychology, much focus has been directed at identifying subjective dispositions and characteristics of people and how these bits are connected to volunteering behaviour (Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Hustinx et al., 2010). In many cases the goal has been to understand the underlying processes and factors that trigger or motivate individuals to become engaged in volunteer work. In recent years, the focus within this field has broadened, also encapsulating the experience and consequences of volunteering (Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2000, 2012). This has resulted in a conceptual model called *the Volunteer Process model,* consisting of three sequential and interactive stages – *antecedents*, *experiences* and *consequences* of volunteering – specifying psychological and behavioural features associated with each of these stages. It is this first stage that is the focus of this thesis. In the two latter stages, the model is concerned with *how* it is to be a volunteer, and what *impact* being a volunteer has on people (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). The three stages are thought to influence and interact with each other in different ways, and can be viewed from different levels of analyses (for a review of this model, see Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

If we zoom out and look at the relationship between volunteering and altruism, what difference exist between these two? To repeat, volunteering can be defined broadly as *free will* behaviour, *without the expectation of reward*, where the aim is to *work for an important cause or to help others/strangers* over a *sustained* period of time and where the work is done (often, but not always) in a *formal* or *organized* setting. To a certain degree, altruism can be described in these terms. Altruism is usually defined as behaviour that *promotes the welfare of others* (family and friends excluded), and where this altruistic act represents some sort of *self-sacrifice or cost* for the helper (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). What sets them apart is the idea of volunteering being *free will* behaviour that is *sustained* over time in a organized setting (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). One explanation, as Haski-Leventhal tells it, is that more general altruistic behaviour (such as spontaneous helping behaviour) often is perceived by helpers as a reflex or a sense of duty, compared to the more deliberate choice of starting to volunteer. Following this definition, volunteering seems to be a more specific kind of altruism, and where altruism is the more general type of behaviour.

Delving deeper into the psychological antecedents of volunteering, there are a number of

concepts thought to influence people in choosing to volunteer. Some of these are *personality traits*, *motives*, *identity*, *attitudes*, *norms*, *values* and *situational factors* (Wilson, 2012). Within the study of personality traits, much work has been done identifying potential personality traits that set volunteers apart from non-volunteers. It is thought that people who volunteer have high *dispositional* empathy, having a general tendency to react to the plight of other people with the feeling of empathy (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). Moreover, people who volunteer tend to score high on extraversion and agreeableness (Bekkers, 2005; Wilson, 2012), personality traits originating from the five-factor model of personality (see Costa & McCrae, 1992). Because of this, it has been proposed by some that an altruistic or prosocial personality exist, setting those prone to engage in prosocial behaviour apart from others (Allen & Rushton, 1983; Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Oliner & Oliner, 1988; Penner, 2002). A question here is if there exist a more specific personality profile for volunteers only, or if it is not possible to distinguish such a profile from the more general, prosocial personality proposed. That said, Matsuba et al. (2007) showed in their study of psychological and social-structural influences on commitment to volunteering that personality is an important factor in explaining why people choose to volunteer. It is worth mentioning here that measures in capturing personality traits associated with prosocial behaviour outside the traditional scope of the five-factor model have been developed. The *prosocial personality battery*, developed by Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, and Freifeld (1995) sought to capture just those traits thought to correlate with prosocial behaviour, consisting of two factors: *other-oriented empathy* and *helpfulness*.

Motivation is another concept that is thought to have a major role influencing people into doing volunteer work. It is a well-documented area in which different approaches and theoretical viewpoints have been used as a lens to study the motives to volunteer. One of the more influential is the *functionalist* approach, which emphasizes the function which different kinds of behaviour have for satisfying different motives and needs. Through understanding what people are trying to accomplish or gain from their volunteer experience, this approach emphasizes what Mannino, Snyder, and Omoto (2011) describe as "the underlying reasons, purposes, needs, plans and motivations that encourage people to do volunteer work"(p. 129).With this in mind, Clary, G. E. et al. (1998) developed a measure to capture the motivations of volunteers called the *Volunteer Function Inventory* (VFI), which was used in this study. The VFI taps into six identified motivational domains or functions thought to motivate people into doing volunteer work. The six functions are *protective, values, career, social, understanding* and *enhancement*. The *Protective* function is associated with the ego, and concerned with motivations to for instance protect oneself from negative feelings. The function of *values* is expression of values, acting on the belief of the importance of helping others. The *career* function is related to motives concerned with gaining career-related experience and benefits that may be obtained from being a volunteer. The *social* function reflects motivations concerning the relationships with others, such as meeting other people and socializing. The function of *understanding* is related to learning new things and the possibility to exercise skills, knowledge and abilities that otherwise would go unused. The *enhancement* function relates to growing and developing psychologically and feel good about oneself. The VFI has been used in several studies to assess the motivations of volunteers, capturing the diversity of motives that is thought to foster volunteerism and long-time engagement as a volunteer (Mannino et al., 2011; Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2012). For example, Clary, G. E. et al. (1998) found that by matching persuasive messages to motives, asking people to volunteer, the impact of a message was greater than when no matching was done (e. g. Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994; Clary, G. E. et al., 1998; Smith, Omoto, & Snyder, 2001) By following volunteers over time, it has also been shown that the fulfilment of motives positively influence volunteering behaviour, increasing a persons' engagement (Finkelstein, 2008).

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In addition to personality and motives, *identity* is another psychological construct thought to have an impact on people's dispositions to volunteer. Through being or identifying oneself as a "helper", it is thought that people naturally engage in volunteering activities (Mannino et al., 2011; Wilson, 2012). By being a volunteer, it is thought that people form or develop a *volunteer role identity*, driving further volunteer engagement (Finkelstein, 2008; see also Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Identity has been found to correlate with both donations of time, money and blood in a volunteer setting (Finkelstein, 2008).

Outside the scope of psychology, factors and variables such as demography, socio-economic and cultural variables have been shown to influence and predict people's commitment to volunteering (Wilson, 2000, 2012). There is evidence that different levels of human capital play a role in predicting prosocial behaviour (Matsuba et al., 2007; Wilson, 2000). In this context, human capital is a construct consisting of the educational attainment and income a person has. High educational attainment and income would represent a high level of human capital. High levels of human capital have been shown to be consistent predictors for volunteerism. Higher educated people volunteer more (Matsuba et al., 2007; Wilson, 2000, 2012). The reasons for this can be many, but people with higher education are more likely to be asked to volunteer and belong to more organisations (Brady, Schlozman, & Verba, 1999; Wilson, 2000). Furthermore, increasing age generally gives rise to a higher level of human capital, which increases the chance for people to become engaged in volunteer work (Wilson, 2000). Gender is also a factor to consider, with women being more prone to volunteer than men (Wilson, 2000).

3. Method

To investigate the proposed questions and hypotheses, an internet survey was distributed amongst volunteers in non-profit organisations and initiatives in Sweden. The survey consisted of 5 blocks, recording data on the participant's commitment to volunteering (time spent volunteering etc.), motivations to volunteer, personality traits and demographics. The last block consisted of an open-ended question where the participant could leave comments or thoughts of any kind. The survey was constructed using Qualtrics[1], an internet-based tool for making and distributing surveys. Statistical test was done in SPSS.

3.1 Why survey?

The reasons for choosing survey as a method for this thesis was first of all practical. It could have been possible to study the chosen topic by using other methods such as for example interviews or maybe even experiments, but due to time-limits and lack of resources, these options were not considered. To study volunteering in an experimental setting would potentially require an extensive setup of parameters due to the nature of volunteering behaviour. It's a deep issue, relating to the possibility that the relevant causes of volunteering are not possible to isolate in a laboratory setting, or that there are multiple causes for the complex interaction between which could not be controlled for in a laboratory setting. Possibly more likely, we could study building blocks of volunteering in laboratory settings, but not all relevant aspects of the phenomenon at the same time.
Surveys are furthermore an efficient method of choice when studying this phenomenon as it makes it possible to reach out to a higher number of volunteers compared to what other methods might be able to. Finally, the use of surveys or questionnaires to study volunteering is widespread and following this choice of method was thought to be a good solution for testing

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[1] www.qualtrics.com

previous research and theories on volunteering. Landmark articles have used questionnaires and surveys in many different situations and domains, studying both volunteers from one organisation and larger samples of volunteers from many different organisations (e.g. Bekkers, 2005; Finkelstein, 2008; Matsuba et al., 2007).

3.2 Participants

Participants in this study were volunteers in local and national non-profit organisations in Sweden. Since there are at least 150 000 non-profit organisations in Sweden (Statistiska Centralbyrån, 2016), I chose to limit the search for participants to local non-profit organisations in the city in which I study and national, well-known non-profit organisations in Sweden. This included national organisations such as *the red Cross*, *Save the children International*, *Individuell Människohjälp* and local organisations such as a bike kitchen and an organisation working with food waste. These organisations offer a varied number of possibilities to volunteer and many of them have a long history of volunteering and non-profit work in Sweden. When sending out emails to the different organisations and their local associations, I chose to limit these to the 20 biggest municipalities in Sweden (based on the size of the population).
A small pilot-study of five participants were conducted to review and improve the survey before distributing it to the organisations. Minor changes were made to the language and layout of the survey because of this.

In total, 13 local and 12 national organisations were contacted and invited to take part in the survey, in which at least 94 local groups of the national organisations were contacted and asked to participate. An invitation to participate in the survey was sent to the organisations via email in which a link to the survey could be found, and the email asked if it was possible to distribute the survey among their volunteers. The survey was open for answers under a two-week period. No reminders were sent out to the contacted organisations. In addition to reaching out to organisations with volunteers, the survey was also promoted by the author on social media feeds twice, asking for people currently volunteering to participate. I did not have a statistical basis for estimating the response rate.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Commitment to volunteering

To investigate the participant's commitment to volunteering, five questions were asked to capture the nature of their engagement. The key indicator reflecting commitment to volunteering was days spent volunteering the last three months. The first question of this block was a gated one, asking participants if they "currently are or previously have been a volunteer in a non-profit initiative", in which the participants could either report that (i) *they were currently volunteering*, (ii) *that they had in the past* or (iii) *that they never had been a volunteer*. If the participant was or had been a volunteer in the past, they were asked additional questions about their volunteering engagement. Otherwise, the participant was forwarded to the next part of the survey.

If the participant currently was or had been a volunteer in the past, they were presented with four additional questions. The first question, using a 6-point scale (ranging from "I have not been active as a volunteer for the last 3 months" to "every day"), asked the participants to report "how much time they had spent volunteering the last three months". This instrument was based on a similar measure used by Finkelstein (2008). To capture the type of volunteer work being done, the participants were presented with 12 possible areas of work and asked to indicate

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within what area their organisation is active. This included areas such as "education and research", "Environment and animal protection" and "religious activities". It was possible to give more than one answer to this question. This instrument was inspired by the division of areas made by a report from Statistics Sweden on the civil society in Sweden (Statistiska Centralbyrån, 2016).

In the fourth question of this block, participants were asked to report how long they had been a volunteer using a 3-point scale (either "0-3 months", 3-6 months or "6 months or longer"). The last question concerning commitment to volunteering asked the participants to indicate if they were active as a volunteer in *one* or *several* organisations. Two choices were given, "Yes, several" or "No, only one".

3.3.2 Motivations to volunteer

To capture the participant's motivations to volunteer, the *Volunteer Function Inventory* was administered. The participants were asked to indicate, on a 7-point scale (ranging from *not at all important/correct* to *extremely important/correct*), how important or accurate each of the following possible reasons for volunteering were for them in doing volunteer work. The VFI includes items such as "I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself", "volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession" and "people I'm close to want me to volunteer". In total, the VFI contains 30 items, 5 for each function. For a complete review of the VFI and its items, see Clary, G. E. et al. (1998). The survey used in this study can also be found as an attachment in appendix A. Since the study was done in Sweden, the VFI was translated from English to Swedish. The VFI had a randomized order of the items for each participant.

3.3.3 Personality Traits

A 25-item instrument (Bekkers, 2005; Johnson & Krueger, 2004; Matsuba et al., 2007), recording data on the five-factor model of personality, was used to measure the participant's personality traits. The participants were asked to rate the self-descriptiveness of adjectives using a 4-point scale ranging from *not at all* to *a lot*. The 25 adjectives used were intended to index the five personality types: *neuroticism, extraversion, conscientious, openness*, and *agreeableness*. The instrument consisted of four to seven adjectives for each personality type. Examples on adjectives used are *outgoing* (extraversion), *worrying* (neuroticism), *Friendly* (agreeableness), *responsible* (conscientiousness) and *imaginative* (openness). This instrument had a randomized order of the items for each participant and was translated from English to Swedish.

3.3.4 Demographic variables

Several demographic variables were recorded, using five questions asking the participants to indicate their *age, gender, region of residence, education* and *employment status*. Age was captured by asking participants to report their age using an 8-point scale (ranging from *under 18 years* to *75 years or older*). To report their gender, participants were asked to indicate this using a 4-point instrument (either *man, woman, other* or *do not want to give an answer)*. Participants reported the region they lived in using a drop-down menu consisting of the 21 official regions (län) in Sweden. Using a 7-point scale, participants reported their education attainment (ranging from *"elementary school"* to *"higher education, 3 years or longer")*. The seventh point of the scale was *"annan utbildning"*. Participants reported their employment status using a battery of items including such things as *"professional worker", "studying, doing an internship"* and *"of duty or on parental leave"*. It was possible to give more than one answer to this question.

3.3.5 Open-ended question.

In the end of survey, the participants were given the chance to add any thoughts or give a comment using a text-field.

4. Results

In this section, the results will be reported. First, data from the four main blocks of the survey will be reviewed individually (section 4.1). After that, relevant relationships and correlations will be reported (section 4.2). Finally, section 4.3 gives a summary of the findings.

4.1 Survey data

The survey got in total 91 responses, in which 74 was complete (answered 100% of the survey). 17 of 91 responses was incomplete or contained partial responses, many only completing 38% of the survey or less – these were excluded from further analysis.

4.1.1 Demography and social variables

19 men and 54 women participated in the survey. One participant did not want to indicate gender. 73% of the participants was women. In the figure below you can see the age of the participants.
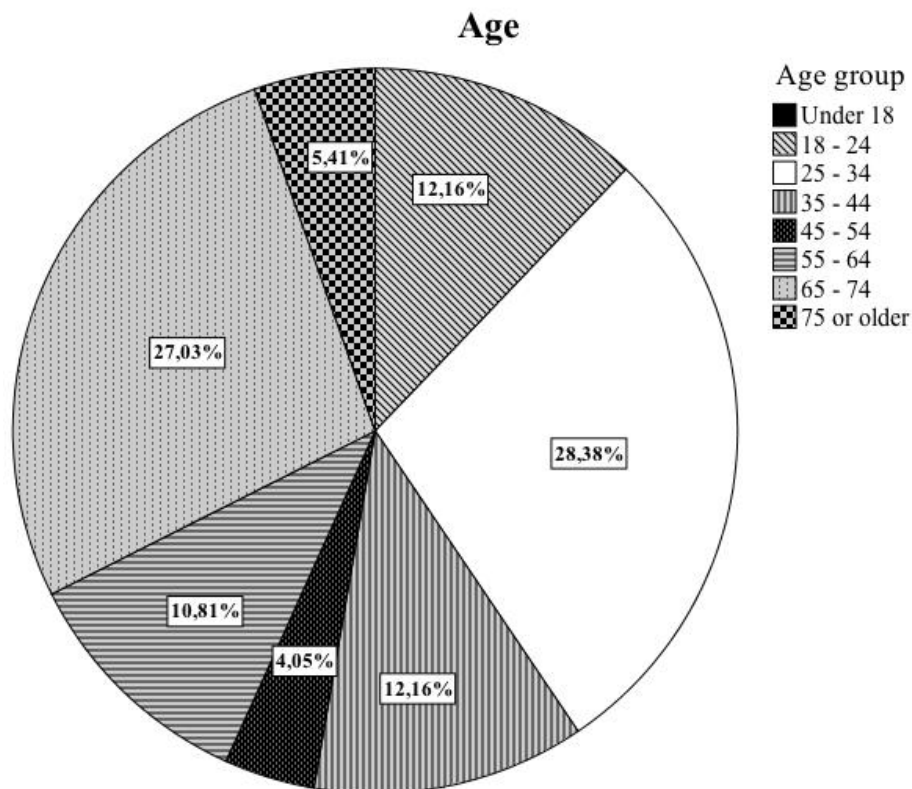
Figure 1. Pie chart showing the age of the participants. 21 participants were between 25-34 years old. 20 participants were 65-74 years old. Nine were between 18-24 years, and nine were between 35-44 years old. Eight of the participants were between 55-64 years old. Four participants were 75 years or older. Three participants were between 45-54 years old.

A majority of the participants lived either in *Västra Götalands län* (n=29) or *Skåne län* (n=22), counting for 68,9 percent of all participant's. 8 participants lived in *Gävleborgs län*. Between 1 and 3 participants had their residence in 11 other regions out of the 21 possible regions in Sweden.

The employment status of the participants was diverse, though three groups stood out. 34 participants were working in a profession, 24 of the participants were pensioners (due to old age) and 19 of the participants studied or held an internship of some sort. It was possible to give several answers to the question of employment status, which is natural given all the possible ways of life today. Many of the participants either worked part-time and studied, worked part-time and were on pension, studied and was of duty or similar combinations. For example, 7 participants both worked to some extent and studied. In figure 2 (next page) you can see the educational attainment of the participants.
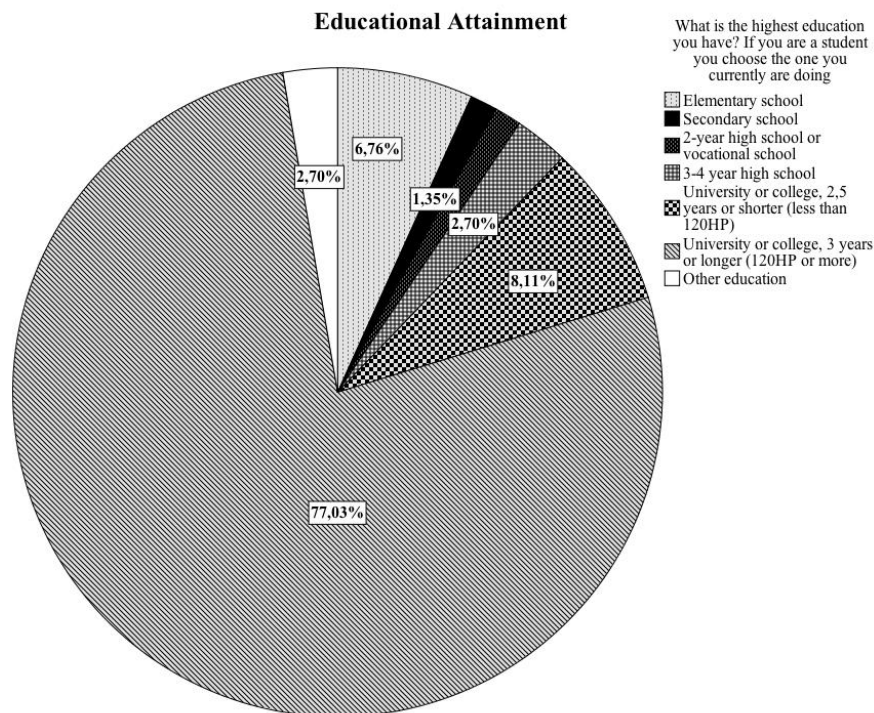
Figure 2. Pie chart showing the educational attainment of the participants. 57 participants were currently working towards or held a university degree of 3 years or longer. 6 participants were currently working towards or held a university degree of 2,5 years or shorter. Combined, 85,1 percent of all participants had some kind of higher level education (university degree, courses or college). 11 of the participants held either **lower level of** *educational attainment (high school and similar) or other kinds of education.*

4.1.2 Commitment to volunteering

Out of all participants, 67 was currently a volunteer (90,5%) and seven had been a volunteer earlier in life. In the figure below you can see how much time participants spent volunteering.
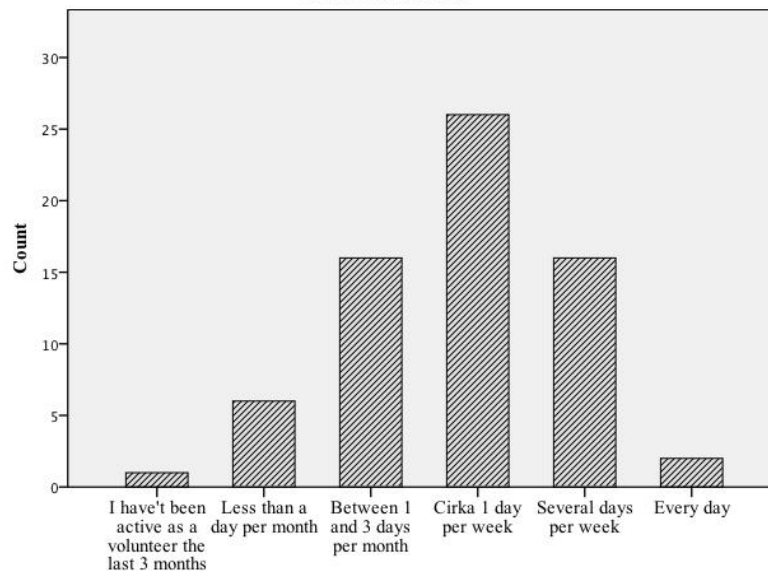

Figure 3. On the question of how much time the participant's spent volunteering, 26 participants (35,1%) volunteered "circa 1 day per week". 16 (21,6 %) participants volunteered "between 1 and 3 days per month" and 16 (21,6 %) participants volunteered "several days a week". Six participant's (8,1%) volunteered "less than one day per month". Two participants volunteered "every day". One participant answered that "I did not volunteer the last three months", but this individual had been a volunteer sometime during the last 12 months. There were 7 missing answers to this question – these were counted in under the question if the participants had been engaged as a volunteer sometime the last year. Six participants answered "yes" to this question. Two participants answered "no".

It was possible to give several answers to the question of which area their organisation was active, which can make it hard to point out clear categories. In total, there was 118 responses to this question (N=74). That said, a majority of the organisations were active within *social security* (28 responses, 23,7%). Furthermore, many participants indicated that their organisation(s) were active within *international work, recreation & culture, Environment & animal protection* and *advocacy & politics*. There were 18 responses on *other kinds of work*, which was not followed up any further.

4.1.3 Motives to volunteering
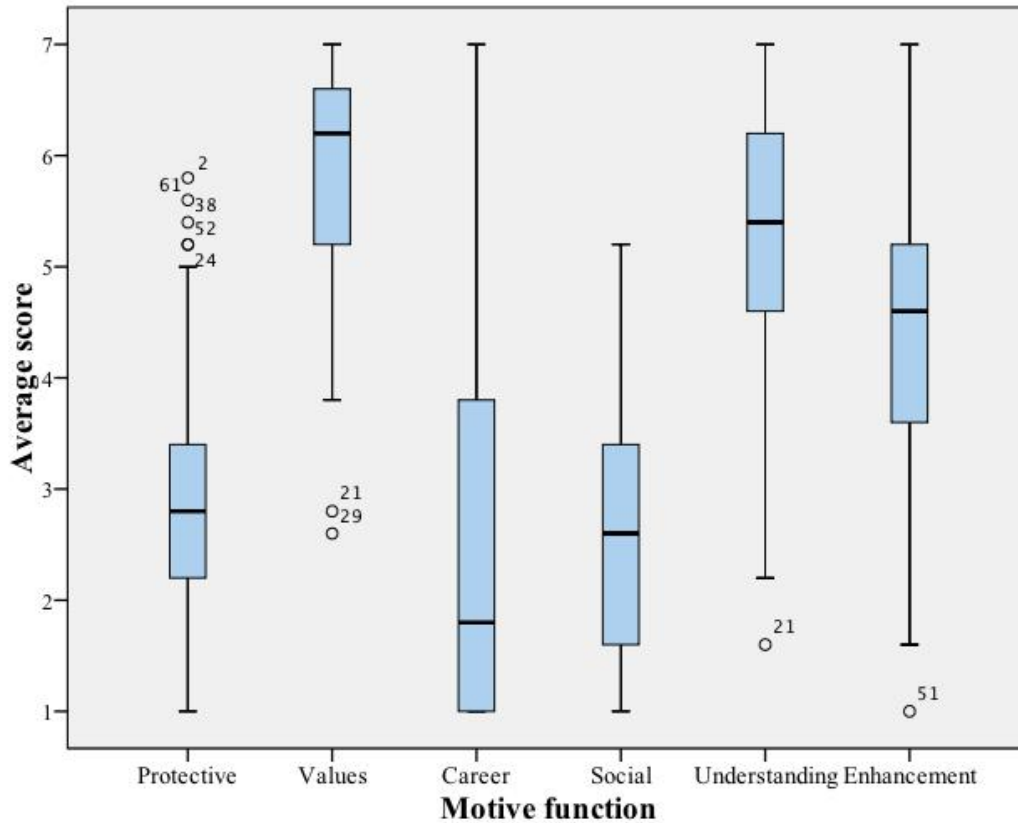
*Figur 4. Scale scores for each participant was calculated by averaging scores on the five items of each motive such that individuals' scores on each scale could range from 1 to 7; the higher the score, the greater the importance of the motivation (Clary, G. E. et al., 1998). This resulted in six new variables, showing the average score on the different motive per individual. The average score for all participants on the protective motive was **2,96 (SD=1,21)**. The average score for all participants on the values motive was **5,82 (SD=1,00)**. The average score for all participants on the career motive was **2,63 (SD=1,78)**. The average score for all participants on the social motive was **2,66 (SD=1,1)**. The average score for all participants on the understanding motive was **5,27 (SD=1,2)**. The average score for all participants on the enhancement motive was **4,36 (SD=1,24)**.*

4.1.4 Personality traits
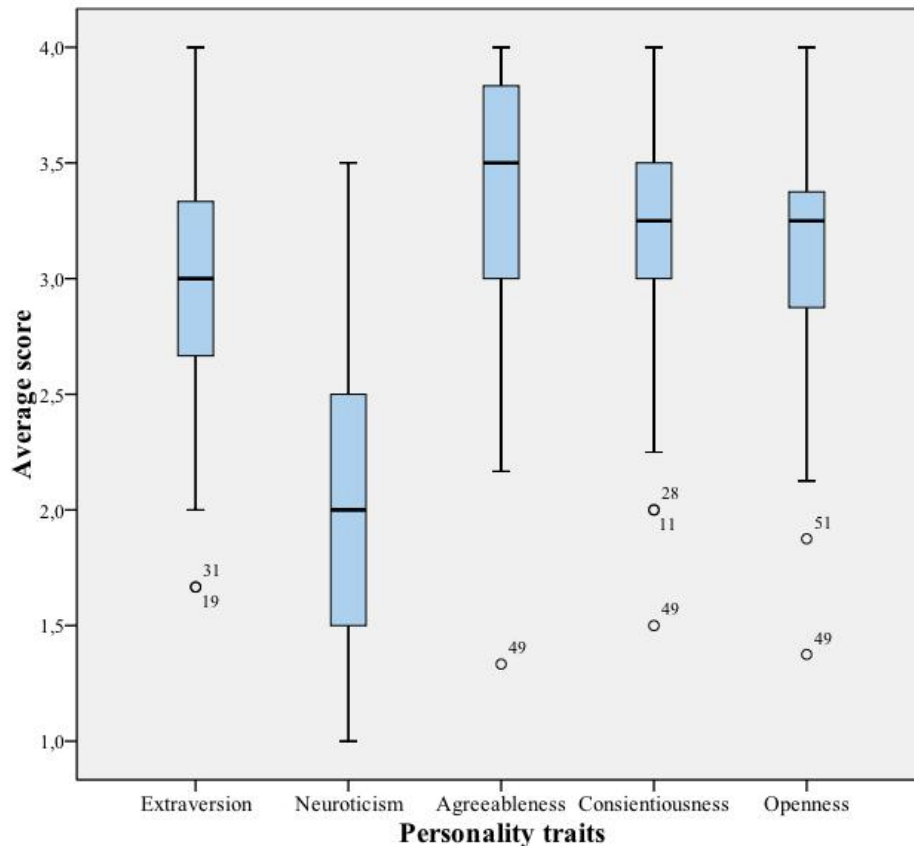
*Figur 5. S Scores on the 25 items were combined to form indices of the five factors (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness). The average score for all participants on the extraversion trait was **3.01** (SD=0.60). The average score for all participants on the neuroticism trait was **1.98** (SD=0.58). The average score for all participants on the agreeableness trait was **3.39** (SD=0.50) The average score for all participant's on the conscientiousness trait was **3.19** (SD=0.50). The average score for all participants on the openness traits was **3.12** (SD=0.46).*

4.2 Correlations and relationships

This section reviews the different relationships and correlations found between variables. The title of each sub-section is a variable name (e.g. motivation) where all tests done are focused on this variable and its relation to other variables studied (e.g. motives compared with participants' commitment to volunteering, differences between gender groups and so on).

4.2.1 Motivation

A spearman's rank-order correlation was run to assess the relationship between participant's score on the six different functions and the time spent volunteering. Preliminary analysis showed the relationship to be monotonic, as assess by visual inspection of a scatterplot. There was strong positive correlation between the *protective* function and time spent volunteering, $r_s(65) = .420$, p < .001. There was a moderate positive correlation between the *social* function and time spent volunteering, $r_s(64) = .281$, p < .022. There was a moderate positive correlation between the *enhancement* function and time spent volunteering, $r_s(65) = .309$, p < .011. There was found no statistical significant correlation between either the *values*, *career* or *understanding* functions.

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A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if participant's average score on each of the six different functions was different between age groups. Participants were classified into seven age groups: 18-24 (n=9), 25-34 (n=21), 35-44 (n=9), 45-54 (n=3), 55-64 (n=8), 65-74 year old (n=20) and "75 or older" (n=4). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated by two of the six functions (the *career* and *social function*), as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (*career: p* < .001. *Social*: p = 0.26). The one-way ANOVA showed no statistical significant difference between age groups concerning the *protective* ($F(6, 67)$ = .825, *p* = .555)*, values* ($F(6, 67)$ = 1.095, *p* = .375)*, understanding* ($F(6, 67)$ = 1.334, *p* = .255)*,* or *enhancement* function ($F(6, 67)$ = .722, *p* = .634).

To investigate the *career* and *social* function further, a one-way Welch ANOVA was conducted to determine if participants' average score these two functions was different between age groups. Average score for participant's on the *career* function was statistically significant between different age groups, Welch's $F(6, 11.476)$ = 11.110, p < .001. The average score on the *career* function decreased from the 18-24 age group (M=4.24, SD=1.37), to the 55-64 year olds (M=1.67, SD=1.04) to the 65-74 year olds (M=1.22, SD=0.354), in that order. Games-Howell post hoc analysis revealed that the mean decrease between the 18-24 and the 55-64 age group (2.57, 95% CI [0.57, 4.57] was statistically significant (*p* = .008), as well as the decrease between the 18-24 and the 65-74 age group (3.02, 95% CI [1.27, 4.77], *p* = .002. The average score on the *career* function also decreased from the 25-34 age group (M=3.84, SD=2.05), to the 55-64 age group (M=1.68, SD=1.05) to the 65-74 age group (M=1.22, SD=0.34). Games-Howell post hoc analysis revealed that the mean decrease between the 25-34 and the 55-64 age group (2.17, 95% CI [0.43, 3.91]) also was statistically significant (*p* = .006). This was also true for decrease between the 25-34 and the 65-74 age group (2.62, 95% CI [1.31, 4.94], p < .001). Average score for participant's on the *social* function was also statistically significant between different age groups, Welch's $F(6, 15.332)$ = 4.304, *p* = .010. The average score on the *social* function decreased from the 25-34 age group (M=2.84, SD=1.16) to the 55-64 age group (M=1.68, SD=0.45), but then increased again to the 65-74 age group (M=3.03, SD=1.08). Games-Howell post hoc analysis revealed that the mean decrease between the 25-34 and the 55-64 age group (1.16, 95% CI [0.21, 2.11) was statistically significant (*p* = .009). as well as the increase between the 55-64 and the 65-74 age group (1.36, 95% CI [0.43, 2.28], *p* = .001).

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there existed a difference in the average score on each the six functions between different gender groups. Participants were classified into three groups: male (n=19), female (n=54) and "*do not* want *to specify*" (n=1). This last group was excluded from the analysis as it only contained a single response which also was judged to be an outlier. The average score on the *career* function differed between the male (M=3.54, SD=1.80) and the female group (M=2.25, SD=1.62), and the differences was statistically significant, $F(1, 70)$ = 8.301, *p* = .005. The average score on the *understanding* function also differed between the male (M=5.74, SD=1.09) and the female group (M=5.06, SD=1.20), and this difference was statistically significant, $F(1, 71)$ = 4.691, *p* = .034.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there was a difference in the average score on each the six functions between the different educational groups recorded. There was found no statistical significant difference between the different educational groups and their average score on the six functions of the VFI (numbers not reported here).

4.2.2 Personality
A spearman's rank-order correlation was planned for the relationship between personality traits and the time spent volunteering, but there was not found any monotonic relationship between

any of the two possible variables (were f ex one variable increases or decreases as another variable increases), which terminated the analysis at an early stage.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were any differences between age groups and their average score on each of the five personality traits recorded. The test revealed a statistical significant difference between age groups and the *conscientiousness* personality trait, $F(6, 67) = 2.327$, $p = 0.042$. No other significant result was found for the other personality traits.

4.2.3 Commitment to volunteering
A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there existed a difference amongst age groups in their commitment to volunteering. Participants were classified into seven age groups: 18-24 year old (n=9), 25-34 year old (n=21), 35-44 year old (n=9), 45-54 year old (n=3), 55-64 year old (n=8), 65-74 year old (n=20) and "75 or older" (n=4). There were no statistically significant difference in the commitment to volunteering between the different age groups, $F(6, 60) = 1.455$, $p = .209$.

A spearman's rank-order correlation was run to assess the relationship between the time participant's spent volunteering and how long they had been a volunteer. This relationship was not statistical significant in any way, $r_s(65) = -.059$, $p = .636$.

4.3 Summary
To give a brief outline of the findings, the typical volunteer in this study was female, currently working on or having a university degree of some kind (85.1 percent of all participant's had some kind of higher level education) and lived in either *Västra Götalands län* or *Skåne län*. The two most common age groups was 25-34 and 65-74 years old. Considering all participants, majority was either currently working in a profession, enjoyed being a pensioner or studied to some degree. Almost all participants were active as a volunteer at the time of the survey (90.5%). On average, participants spent one day per week volunteering. Most participants had been a volunteer for 6 months or longer. Finally, many of the organisations for which participant's volunteered were active within *social security, international work, recreation & culture, Environment & animal protection* and *advocacy & politics*, in that order.

The participants score on the five motivational functions differed to a certain degree, with high scores on the *protective, values, understanding* and *enhancement* functions, and lower scores on the *career* and *social* function. The participant's score on the five personality traits was overlapping a lot too, with the average score on all but the *neuroticism* trait (M=1.98) ranging from 3.01 to 3.39 points. No differences for personality traits could be distinguished between gender or educational groups. A small, statistically significant difference was found between age groups concerning the *conscientiousness* personality trait.

Through statistical analysis it was found a positive, statistical significant correlation between the participant's score on the *protective, social, enhancement* function and the time spent volunteering. No significant correlation was found between the participant's score on the five personality traits and the time spent volunteering.
There was found a statistically significant difference between the average score on two out of the six motivational functions and gender. Male participants scored significantly higher on the *career* and the *understanding* function than the female group. Average score for participants on

the *social* and *career* function was also statistically significant between different age groups, with younger participant's especially rating the *career* function higher than older participant's. There was found no relationship between how long the participants had been a volunteer and the amount of time spent volunteering. There was neither found any relationship between the number of organisations participants were engaged in and the amount of time spent volunteering. No clear relationships were found between gender or education and the time spent volunteering either when exploring the data.

5. Discussion

The results from the empirical investigation are mixed. The sample was slightly skewed concerning certain demographic variables, such as gender and educational attainment. A majority of the participants had some kind of higher education and 73% were female. This might reflect the general population of volunteers in Sweden to a certain extent - a survey done by Volontärbyrån (2016) found that 81% of all participant's in their survey were women (N=1541, 17% male). Findings made in the United States also support this, where it was observed that women do more volunteer work than men in general (Wilson, 2012). The reason for this might be because women score higher on measures of altruism and empathy, attaching more value to helping others (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Women also have greater prosocial motivation than men (Einolf, 2011). Education is, as mentioned in the background, thought to be a stable predictor of volunteering behaviour (Wilson, 2000, 2012), which could be an explanation for the high number of people with a university degree in the sample. If we look at the education level nationally in Sweden, the level of education amongst the participants is high. 27 percent of the general population in Sweden had an education of three years or more beyond high school (Statistiska Centralbyrån, 2017), compared to 85.1 percent of the participants in this study. Penner (2002) points out one explanation for the relation between education and volunteering that might hold weight, saying that "the better educated people are and the types of jobs such people tend to have allow them more time to devote to other things beside work" (p. 10).

Participants score on the measure of personality traits overlapped extensively, with relatively high scores on all but the *neuroticism* trait, and no correlation was found between the different personality traits and the commitment to volunteering. These results go against the findings of previous research on personality, which have been able to connect certain personality traits or types with volunteering (Bekkers, 2005; Matsuba et al., 2007; Omoto, Snyder, & Hackett, 2010; Penner, 2002). For example, Bekkers (2005) found a positive relationship between volunteering and *extraversion*, as well as between volunteering and *agreeableness*, though the latter relationship was less consistent when comparing different groups. One possible reason for the overlapping scores could the big variety of organisations and volunteers contacted for this study – since volunteer work can take such different forms it could be that the personality profiles of the participants simply differed because of this diversity.

It could have been possible to analyse the data on personality traits further, and through a cluster-analysis identify personality types thought to correlate with volunteering in similar manners to the procedure done by Matsuba et al. (2007). In their study, three personality types (*resilient, under-* and *over-controlled*) were identified by doing a cluster-analysis. The *resilient* personality type has been show to correlate with volunteering (Asendorpf, Borkenau, Ostendorf, & Van Aken, 2001; Hart, Atkins, Fegley, Robins, & Tracy, 2003; Matsuba et al., 2007), and adults exhibiting this type of personality are thought to have high levels of *extraversion, agreeableness* and *openness*. Though it could have been possible to find more

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significant results through such an analysis, the data was judged to be too unclear for this to be useful. Use of the prosocial personality battery (Penner et al., 1995) has also demonstrated a positive relation between the two dimensions of the prosocial personality and volunteering (Penner, 2002), further supporting the idea of a prosocial personality connected to volunteering. The results from this study on personality are ambivalent, revealing a need to investigate further if a relation between certain personality traits and prosocial behaviour amongst Swedish volunteers exists.

The response on the VFI demonstrated a difference between motives, with participants scoring high on the *values, understanding, enhancement* and *protective* functions, and lower on the *career* and *social* functions. This goes in hand with findings showing that volunteers favour the values, understanding and enhancement functions the most (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1998; Mannino et al., 2011). Similar findings have been made when comparing volunteers and non-volunteers, where volunteers rate *values, enhancement, social* and *understanding* motivations higher than non-volunteers (Clary, G. E. et al., 1998). Concerning the relation between motives and the commitment to volunteering, a positive and significant correlation between the *protective, social* and *enhancement* functions, and the commitment to volunteering was found. This indicates that greater levels on these functions can be associated with a heightened commitment. The participants can be spurred to an increased engagement through motivations such as escaping from personal problems, wanting to meet new people and increasing self-esteem.

Furthermore, the results show a difference concerning the strength of certain functions between age and gender groups. For instance, a significant difference between young and old volunteers regarding the *social* and *career* function was found, with younger participants especially rating the *career* function higher than older participants. Clary, Snyder, and Stukas (1996) found similar patterns in their study in which younger people rated motivations such as *career development* higher compared to older people. That said, some motivations are prevalent across age groups such as the *values* function, being as important for the young as for the old (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). It has been argued that motive fulfilment is a better predictor of volunteer activity and longevity than motive strength (Finkelstein, 2008). For instance, it has been shown that through the fulfilment of motives, volunteers report greater satisfaction and stronger intention to continue volunteering than when motives remain unfulfilled (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary, G. E. et al., 1998; Stukas, Daly, & Cowling, 2005). Additionally, motives are thought to change over time, varying in their importance over the course of a volunteering experience (Finkelstein, 2008; Snyder & Omoto, 2008; Wilson, 2012). When studying the relation between motivations and role identity in volunteers, Finkelstein (2008) found that in the start of a volunteer engagement, individuals were mostly driven by altruistic reasons for volunteering. Later, those volunteers that had a sustained commitment over 12 months were on the other hand more concerned with personal growth and self-focused motives (e.g. *understanding* and *enhancement* motives). This is relevant for the results of this study, as the participant's responses to the VFI might be influenced by the duration of their engagement as a volunteer. The participants scored, as mentioned earlier, high levels on both the *values, understanding* and *enhancement* functions. When inspecting the data more closely (not reported here), no difference between the duration that the participants had been a volunteer and the average score on the *values* and *understanding* functions could be found, though there was a small difference between those who had been a volunteer for 0-3 months and those that had been a volunteer for a longer time period (take note that 64 participants had volunteered for 6 months or longer; n=74). Studying broader connections between variables and their relationships is an intricate matter, and adding time to the perspective might make the matter more complex, though it is a thing to consider when trying to untangle the many interconnected

relationships and factors thought to influence volunteering. As Penner (2002) explains, it is "unwise to talk about the impact of motives on volunteerism independently of their relationship with the other correlates of this behaviour" (p. 460).

Thinking about all the previous mentioned factors and our current understanding of the sources of volunteering behaviour, it is a relatively multi-disciplinary phenomenon, requiring integrated models to explain the sources and roots from which this behaviour originates. The social, psychological, cultural and contextual factors all matter when looking at where this field currently stand. The interaction between variables across fields are possibly better predictors of volunteer behaviour than single variables standing alone. Findings done by Matsuba et al. (2007) support this idea of interaction between variables. In their study, they sought to test a model of psychological and social influences on the commitment to volunteering. The model classifies different influences or variables as either *enduring* or *mediating*, where the mediating variables are thought to influence the more enduring ones. Examples of enduring influences include *personality* and *social structures* (such as social class). Mediating influences were comprised of for instance *attitudes*, *opportunity* and *identity*. Another, more conceptual model has likewise been proposed by Penner (2002), outlining the different relationships between variables and their associations with the stages of volunteering (*decision to volunteer*, *initial volunteering* and *sustained volunteering*). This model demonstrates a similar kind of interconnectedness between different variables, outlining nine influences (e.g. *prosocial personality, demographic characteristics* and *volunteer related motives*) that are thought not only to influence for instance the decision to volunteer, but also mediate and affect one another. The main point here is not to explain these models completely, but to illustrate that different variables *together* are thought to influence people and their commitment to volunteering. Matsuba et al. (2007) found by testing their model on survey data that none of the constructs were strongly predictive alone, though most had statistical significant relationships with volunteering. The explanation for this could be that the many diverse ways in which volunteering can occur reflects the multidimensionality of volunteering. There can be different personality traits, motives, demographic and social variables associated with different kinds of volunteer work, and this complexity makes it challenging to offer a single solution, theory or model of the sources to volunteering. The findings from this thesis may also reflect this diversity, as volunteers from several different organisations across Sweden participated in the survey. A study of single organisations and its volunteers would possibly show a different result with clearer relations between different factors and volunteering.

5.1 Limitations

There are a few things worth mentioning about the design and limitations of the study. The survey was only sent out to volunteers and therefore lacked a control group. This was a motivated choice as much research has been done already comparing volunteers and non-volunteers. My aim was not to study the difference between volunteers and non-volunteers, but rather how motivations, personality traits and social resources are connected to the commitment to volunteering. That said, not having a control group restrains the investigation, making it hard to make sound arguments about the difference between those that do volunteer and those that do not. The results would only reflect those that are a volunteer. One thought to consider is if the personality traits of non-volunteers differ so much from that of volunteers – it could be that people currently not engaged in volunteer work also have high levels of empathy, extraversion and so on, counteracting the argument about a prosocial personality?

It could also have been advantageous to have an even bigger sample of participants when considering the great size of the volunteer population in Sweden (with 150 000 or more non-profit organizations active).

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Finally, the instruments used could be refined or optimized further. For instance, the VFI has been criticized for being incomplete and inconsistent (Shye, 2010; Wilson, 2012). The instrument is in no way exhaustive, as there might be other motivations besides the ones the VFI taps into that could be important reasons for why people volunteer. Neither can there be found a clear theoretical bias for the functions and their overall number (Wilson, 2012). Presenting a number of predefined motivations to people in a survey is also problematic as an individual might not have thought about the motives presented before seeing them in the survey, which can cause desirability bias (Gifford, 2015; Wilson, 2012).

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the antecedents of volunteering and explore these in a local context. The results were mixed, but in general they were similar to that found in earlier research. What stood out was that no clear connection between any of the five personality traits of the "big five" model and commitment to volunteering was found. Earlier research has found certain connections between personality traits and volunteering, which this study did not. However, since volunteers from several different organisations took part, the diversity of volunteer work might have caused the overlapping results. Concerning the motives to volunteer, the results were positive. Significant differences between age and gender groups were found regarding the participants score on the different functions, which is supported by previous work. This also goes for the functions or motives rated highly by participants. However, the VFI has its weaknesses, possibly affecting respondents through desirability bias. Other methods might capture people's motives in different ways with better validity.

Finally, I would argue that the multi-disciplinary nature of cognitive science represents an ideal approach to further advance our understanding of volunteering, and in continuation prosocial behaviour in a more general sense. Volunteering is a kind of altruistic behaviour that could benefit from a more applied and interdisciplinary inquiry, for instance on the neural correlates of volunteering or through studying the social cognition of volunteers. This would give new and relevant insights into the phenomenon and contribute to dig even deeper into the minds of volunteers. Taking a broad approach, combining and experimenting with different concepts and theories could offer new insights into this topic.

7. References

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8. Appendix A

8.1 Survey

Block 1: Om att vara volontär

Är du eller har du tidigare varit volontär i någon ideell verksamhet?
- ○ Jag är volontär eller arbetar frivilligt nu. (1)
- ○ Jag har tidigare varit volontär eller arbetat frivilligt. (2)
- ○ Jag har aldrig varit volontär. (3)

Hur mycket tid har du spenderat i genomsnitt på att vara volontär de senaste 3 månaderna?
- ○ Jag har inte varit volontär de senaste 3 månaderna (1)
- ○ Mindre än en dag per månad (2)
- ○ Mellan 1 och 3 dagar per månad (3)
- ○ Kring 1 dag per vecka (4)
- ○ Flera dagar per vecka (5)
- ○ Varje dag (6)

Har du varit engagerad som volontär någon gång under det senaste året?
- ○ Ja (1)
- ○ Nej (2)

Inom vilket område är den organisation du är engagerad i verksam?
- ❑ Rekreation och kultur (1)
- ❑ Utbildning och forskning (2)
- ❑ Hälsa (3)
- ❑ Social trygghet (4)
- ❑ Miljö och djurskydd (5)
- ❑ Bostäder, social och samhällelig utveckling (6)
- ❑ Opinionsbildning och politik (7)
- ❑ Utdelande stiftelser och insamlande verksamheter (8)
- ❑ Internationell verksamhet (9)
- ❑ Religiös verksamhet (10)
- ❑ Bransch-/yrkesorganisationer och fackföreningar (11)
- ❑ Annan verksamhet (12)

Inom vilket område är den organisation du har varit engagerad i verksam? Du kan ange flera alternativ!

- ❑ Rekreation och kultur (1)
- ❑ Utbildning och forskning (2)
- ❑ Hälsa (3)
- ❑ Social trygghet (4)
- ❑ Miljö och djurskydd (5)
- ❑ Bostäder, social och samhällelig utveckling (6)
- ❑ Opinionsbildning och politik (7)
- ❑ Utdelande stiftelser och insamlande verksamheter (8)
- ❑ Internationell verksamhet (9)
- ❑ Religiös verksamhet (10)
- ❑ Bransch-/yrkesorganisationer och fackföreningar (11)
- ❑ Annan verksamhet (12)

Hur länge har du varit volontär för den organisation du är engagerad i?

- ◯ 0-3 månader (4)
- ◯ 3-6 månader (5)
- ◯ 6 månader eller längre (6)

Hur länge var du aktiv som volontär för den organisationer du engagerade dig i?

- ◯ 0-3 månader (1)
- ◯ 3-6 månader (2)
- ◯ 6 månader eller längre (3)

Är du engagerad som volontär i flera organisationer utöver den du i huvudsak är aktiv inom?

- ◯ Ja, flera. (1)
- ◯ Nej, bara en. (2)

Block 2: The Volunteer Function Inventory Del 1

Hur viktigt eller korrekt är var och en av dessa möjliga anledningar för dig i att vara volontär?

	Inte alls viktigt/korrekt 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremt viktigt/korrekt 7
Att vara volontär kan hjälpa mig att få en fot in på en plats där jag vill arbeta. (1)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Mina vänner är volontärer. (2)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Jag bryr mig om de som har en sämre situation än jag. (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Människor nära mig vill att jag engagerar mig som volontär. (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär får mig att känna mig viktig. (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Människor jag känner delar ett intresse för volontärarbete. (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Oavsett hur dåligt jag mår, så hjälper volontärarbete meg att glömma bort det. (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag bryr mig om den specifika grupp jag arbetar med. (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Genom att vara volontär så känner jag mig mindre ensam. (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag kan få nya kontakter som kanske kan hjälpa min karriär. (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär tar bort något av skuldkänslan jag har över att vara mer "lyckligt lottad" än andra. (11)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag kan lära mig mer om den sak som jag arbetar för. (12)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Att vara volontär är positivt för min självbild. (13)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär gör att jag får nya perspektiv på saker. (14)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär gör det möjligt för mig att utforska olika karriärvägar (15)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Block 2: The Volunteer Function Inventory Del 2

Hur viktigt eller korrekt är var och en av dessa möjliga anledningar för dig i att vara volontär?

	Inte alls viktig/korrekt 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremt viktig/korrekt 7
Jag känner medkänsla gentemot människor i nöd. (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Människor jag står nära placerar ett högt värde på volontärarbete. (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär gör att jag lär mig saker genom praktisk erfarenhet. (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag tycker det är viktigt att hjälpa andra. (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär hjälper mig komma över mina personliga problem. (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Att vara volontär kan hjälpa mig att lyckas inom mitt yrke/bransch. (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jag kan göra något för en sak som är viktig för mig. (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär är en viktig aktivitet för dem jag känner bäst. (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär är en bra flykt från mina egna bekymmer. (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Som volontär lär jag mig att bemöta och hantera olika typer av människor. (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär får mig att känna mig behövd. (11)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär får mig att känna mig bättre med mig själv. (12)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Erfarenheten av volontärarbete kommer se bra ut på mitt CV. (13)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Att vara volontär är ett sätt att hitta	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

nya vänner. (14)							
Jag kan utforska mina egna styrkor. (15)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Block 3: Personality assessment

Hur väl beskriver var och en av följande ord dig?

	Inte alls	I liten grad	Något	Mycket
Utåtriktad (1)	○	○	○	○
Livlig (2)	○	○	○	○
Pratsam (3)	○	○	○	○
Lynnig (4)	○	○	○	○
Bekymrad (5)	○	○	○	○
Nervös (6)	○	○	○	○
Orolig (7)	○	○	○	○
Hjälpsam (8)	○	○	○	○
Vänlig (9)	○	○	○	○
Varm (10)	○	○	○	○
Omtänksam (11)	○	○	○	○
Ömsint (12)	○	○	○	○
Sympatisk (13)	○	○	○	○
Ordningsam (14)	○	○	○	○
Ansvarsfull (15)	○	○	○	○
Arbetsam (16)	○	○	○	○
Inte oaktsam (17)	○	○	○	○
Kreativ (18)	○	○	○	○
Fantasifull (19)	○	○	○	○
Intelligent (20)	○	○	○	○
Nyfiken (21)	○	○	○	○
Aktiv (22)	○	○	○	○
Öppensinnad (23)	○	○	○	○
Sofistikerad (24)	○	○	○	○
Äventyrslysten (25)	○	○	○	○

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Block 4: Demografi

Ditt kön
○ Man (1)
○ Kvinna (2)
○ Annat (3)
○ Vill inte uppge (4)

Din ålder
○ Under 18 (1)
○ 18 - 24 (2)
○ 25 - 34 (3)
○ 35 - 44 (4)
○ 45 - 54 (5)
○ 55 - 64 (6)
○ 65 - 74 (7)
○ 75 eller äldre (8)

Inom vilken region i Sverige är du bosatt?
○ Blekinge län (1)
○ Dalarnas län (2)
○ Gotlands Län (3)
○ Gävleborgs län (4)
○ Hallands län (5)
○ Jämtlands län (6)
○ Jönköpings län (7)
○ Kalmar län (8)
○ Kronobergs län (9)
○ Norrbottens län (10)
○ Skåne län (11)
○ Stockholms län (12)
○ Södermanlands län (13)
○ Uppsala län (14)
○ Värmlands län (15)
○ Västerbottens län (16)
○ Västernorrlands län (17)
○ Västmanlands län (18)
○ Västra Götalands län (19)
○ Örebro län (20)
○ Östergötlands län (21)

Vilken är den högsta utbildningen du har? Om du studerar väljer du den utbildning du går.
- ◯ Grundskola eller folkskola (1)
- ◯ Realskola eller flickskola (2)
- ◯ 2-årigt gymnasium eller yrkesskola (3)
- ◯ 3-4-årigt gymnasium (4)
- ◯ Universitet eller högskola, 2,5 år eller kortare (mindre än 120p) (5)
- ◯ Universitet eller högskola, 3 år eller längre (120p eller mer) (6)
- ◯ (120p eller mer) (7)

Vilken är din nuvarande sysselsättning? Du kan ange flera alternativ!
- ❑ Yrkesarbetar (1)
- ❑ Tjänstledig eller föräldraledig (2)
- ❑ Studerar, praktiserar (3)
- ❑ Arbetsmarknadsåtgärd (4)
- ❑ Ålderspensionär (5)
- ❑ Förtidspensionerad, sjukpensionerad (6)
- ❑ Långtidssjukskriven (mer än 3 månader) (7)
- ❑ Sköter eget hushåll (8)
- ❑ Annat (9)

Om hen uppgave "Yrkesarbetar" under sysstesättning:
Du uppgav "Yrkesarbetar" på frågan om sysselsättning - hur många procent är din anställning i så fall?

Om hen uppgave "Annat" under sysstesättning:
Du uppgav "Annat" på frågan om sysselsättning - Vad är Din sysselsättning i så fall?

Block 5: Övrigt

Har du något du vill tillägga eller säga?