The Effect of Cognitive-Affective Interplay on Volunteerism: An Empirical Study of Charity Organizations

Shaheera Amin

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of present study is to apply the social identity theory and concepts to internal marketing, moral identity and moral emotions research in order to empirically test a conceptual model of voluntary participation in the charity context of England. The conceptual model integrated individual and organizational level antecedents (moral identity and moral emotions, and internal marketing), mediating processes (empathy, gratitude and identity salience) and relationship outcomes (participation and turnover intentions). At its core, the study examined empirically the multiple facets of social identity theory, such as the cognitive-affective relationships of moral identity and moral emotions that underscore volunteering in charities. The study reviewed the literature in great depth in order to frame its theoretical and empirical contributions. Accordingly, the study provided a framework to investigate the volunteer’s view point about organizational internal marketing, stimulating their moral identity and moral emotions that ultimately improve their participation and longevity turnover intentions. Essentially, the study thus provides new insights on how charities might positively influence volunteers' pro-social behaviours. To the best of knowledge of the researcher, there has been no quantitative study that has empirically tested how internal marketing underpins the cognitive-affective dimensions of charity volunteers’ attitude formation in a way that leads to multiple relationship outcomes. The significance of the study is shown by the findings, contributions to scholarship in the field and implications for relevant practitioners.

Keywords: Internal Marketing, Moral identity, Moral Emotions, Volunteerism, Participation, Turnover Intentions, Charity
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Chapter 1-Introduction

1.1 Overview

This chapter will provide a synopsis of the present research project including its impact and significance and how it meets the research objectives. It serves as an introduction to the study by providing the research background and discussing the rationale for volunteering behaviour and the importance of internal marketing to boost volunteers’ participation and retention with charities, particularly in times of economic recession. The chapter highlights the significance of this research, identifies the research objectives and questions and concludes by summarising the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Research Background

A survey by the National Council of Social Services reported that 40% of adults are involved with charity and one out of six works as volunteers (Study on Volunteering in the European Union Final Report, 2010). According to Callow (2004) volunteer retention is a matter of cost and benefit. Volunteers may be conscious that they could spend their free time for self oriented activities instead of helping others, but they are motivated to help others, if they get recognition and appreciation for their efforts. They sacrifice their leisure and fun time for others so they can derive satisfaction out of their volunteering activities. For the charity, therefore, it is necessary to understand an individual’s motivations for volunteering as an aid to recruitment and retention.
1.2.1 The Charity Sector

The West is considered a democratic and free society where values are determined by the public. In these societies problems can occur when people are unable to look after themselves and need support and welfare provision from society as a whole. In such cases governments have a role to play, although economic pressures may restrict this role. From such situations emerged the role of a third sector that is known by different names, the ‘voluntary/charity sector’ that engages people (i.e. volunteers) who want to contribute to the welfare of society without any compensation/financial reward. Indeed in some situations time and sympathy are needed rather than practical skills and it is here where the voluntary/charity sector might play an effective role (Douglas, 1983). Gradually this sector started providing support to needy people for example, addressing family and child care issues (Kotler et al., 1996).

This sector has its own problems that need to be addressed in order to ensure its ability to support social welfare. The present study addresses the critical issue of recruitment and retention of volunteers by looking at the issue of social identity for marketing in charity organizations. In today’s scenario volunteering is more important because the charities need to reduce their costs due to the recession and the reduction in government support. That is why there is need to improve the volunteers’ recruitment and retention with charities (Sargeant, 2008; Merchant et al., 2010a-b).

Owing to competition for the funds and support of the public, charity organisations need to develop awareness programmes, but this is inevitably done against a background of limited budgets and the need to account for marketing expenditure as it is sourced by public donation. This may be why Bennett and Savani (2004) argued
that the contribution of marketing is not well recognized in charities. However, it is not easy to measure the effectiveness of a marketing programme and how it creates awareness and contributes to attracting new volunteers and retaining existing volunteers and thereby justify such expenditure. Bennett and Savani (2004) argued that many large UK charities are loath to introduce marketing practices as many managers believe that all money and resources should be utilised only for philanthropic activities. Similarly, the presence of supporters who feel that donations are being used for purposes other than supporting beneficiaries may serve to reduce volunteers’ desire and energy to serve the charity’s beneficiaries (Adams and Shepherd, 1996). These views are problematic as charity organizations have to invest significant sums of money in recruitment and training of volunteers because high turnover creates many problems for a charity and their beneficiaries; especially when long term commitment and special skills are required of volunteers (Fischer and Schaffer, 1993; Miller et al., 1990). It is costly to recruit and train volunteers and high turnover seriously affects organizational stability and also causes wastage of resources that could be used for social welfare. In high contact service-oriented organizations the situation becomes more concerning as beneficiaries lose their connection / relation and trust with volunteers (Barraza, 2011). In the present economic recession, it is harder for charity organizations to seek new volunteers or retain them. In this regard Merchant, Ford and Sargeant (2010b) in a different context highlight that donors have no contractual bond with the organization. It is equally true that volunteers are in a similar position and charities must therefore use appropriate techniques to recruit, retain and reward such people. This research will therefore address the key area of internal marketing and its role in relation to volunteers within the charity sector. This research and
future research will provide some basic knowledge to prolong volunteers’
involvement by dealing with volunteers’ identification and emotional needs for
participation in charitable support activities.

1.2.2 Marketing in Charities

Kotler (1982) defined charity organizations as private, philanthropic and non-profit
organizations and suggested that these organizations would benefit from marketing
activity due to their multiple functions and multiple targets they have in the market,
including beneficiaries, donors and campaigners. So marketing is useful for creating
awareness and improves the understanding about beneficiaries’ needs and
organization services. Charities need specialized marketing for their services given
their nature. Charities usually apply a societal marketing orientation which
determines the needs and interests of their beneficiaries; and develops strategies to
provide satisfaction by improving the well-being of beneficiaries or society as a
whole. This orientation relies upon the time and efforts of volunteers to change
peoples’ behaviour. However, given the level of competition charities face for
resources, it is necessary to apply some pure marketing approaches. Social
programmes cannot run without community support such as volunteers or
campaigners. There is a price these people have to bear in terms of time, energy
and resistance from society to being supporters. That is why consistent
encouragement and support is required in marketing programmes (Boehm and Haya,
2004).

Mitchell and Donald (1996) emphasised that the key point is not to forget that
volunteers are indeed “customers’ seeking exchange with you: they donate time in
exchange for opportunity to achieve their personal goals” (p. 47). Volunteers donate
their time to achieve goals, which could be either social or personal, and if they are
satisfied they become committed. Mitchell and Donald (1996) indicated that marketing can encourage volunteers to be a part of charity organizations. Strategic marketing provides a way to mobilize volunteers and retain them. Here the question is: what is the right marketing strategy for charities? For example, in 2004, UK charities spent £59 million on promotion (Mintel, 2006) but most of this amount was wasted due to a lack of meaningful market information. It has also been noted that a variety of media are used in the non-profit sector, i.e., 78% direct mail, followed by 65% press, 34% radio ads, 23% billboards, 12% TV ads and 47% internet media. So it is a great responsibility for non-profit managers to understand the situation to allocate organization resources properly to achieve the desired outcomes (West and Sargeant, 2004). That is why this research concludes with implications for a new marketing strategy for internal marketing to deal with this issue.

Marketing plays a role of stimulator as it is found in the literature that existence of stimulation affects behaviour. So the same principle can be applied to internal marketing to promote volunteerism in charities. According to Volunteering England (2007), in the UK about 22 million people participated in volunteering during their leisure time, which is equivalent to 90 million hours work per week. This contribution can be increased by the effective application of marketing. Communication is a key function in organizations to create awareness, enthusiasm, commitment and involvement (Kristoffersen and Singh, 2004).

Natraajan and Bagozzi (1999) note that marketing approaches change from time to time due to situational and psychological differences. In the current scenario, the organizations and individuals who are involved in pro-social and helping behaviour have philanthropic rather than commercial motives. This indicates the potential for a marketing orientation to build relationships between marketing principles and
charity performance. The strategy of relationship marketing (Baron et al., 2010) is actually adopted from for profit organizations, but can assist charity organizations to motivate and retain donors/volunteers (Arnett, German and Hunt, 2003).

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) and Conduit and Mavondo (2001) agreed that internal marketing nurtures a strong bond between employees and the organization. Internal and relationship marketing might result in organizational identification and make organization attributes more salient (Barnes et al., 2004). Internal marketing in charity organizations requires dedication of resources to build relationships with volunteers. Systematic research could help to understand internal marketing applications and importance of social identity processes e.g. when and how these are likely to occur.

1.2.3 Volunteer Dilemma

Olson (1965) explained that people tend to participate in collective action only if they feel others will also do so. Oliver (1984) agreed that people who expect that others should participate tend to be less involved themselves unless they see others participating. Both these assumptions lead to the free riding problem known as a non-participative attitude and a key question is how do we overcome this attitude?

According to Otsubo and Rapoport (2008), “volunteers vary considerably from one another in their inclination to free ride” (ibid: p. 961). This may be because each person makes an individual assessment based on both their own views and their perception of the involvement of others (Friedin and Eugene, 2011). Some authors have suggested that proper network mobilization (mobilize people towards achieving the movement's goals and acquiring the resources) and recruitment can control free riding (McAdam 1986, 1988; Snow et al., 1980; Gould, 1979). On the
other hand Kyriacou (2010) suggested that intrinsic motivation makes collective action more rational for individuals who do not take advantage of others by ‘free riding’. Intrinsic motivation is a form of selective rewards (Olson, 1971) that an individual can get from their contribution to public welfare (Margolis, 1982; Olson, 1982) and is relevant to individual interest in a voluntary activity context (Ryan and Deci, 2000). For example, identification involvement is intrinsic in nature in relation to social movement membership (Sturmer & Simon, 2004). Indeed Tomkovick et al. (2008) mentioned that people do volunteering for intrinsic benefits and internal satisfaction as they cannot get this through other forms of activity. Therefore, it is necessary to address the rationale for why a person helps another, because volunteering is important as it improves the society either directly or indirectly. In order to address the issues outlined above, the following section introduces social identity theory which provides a relevant and explanatory basis for the development of core constructs in the subsequent research model.

1.3 Theoretical Background and Core Constructs

This study seeks to explore how volunteers’ attitudes are developed, using a social identity theory approach. Social identity theory is a psychological theory that seeks to understand group processes and intergroup relations and is generated from association with and membership of a group. “Each of these group memberships is represented in a person’s mind as a social identity that describes his or her behaviour as a member of that group” (Michalski et al., 2011: p.54). Specifically, this research investigates the role that volunteers’ moral identity and the moral emotions that they experience may have on creating empathy, gratitude and identity salience (importance of a given identity) and intention to offer support to charities and their causes. From the outset, it is emphasized that this study is inter-
disciplinary in nature, especially given the paucity of research within this realm in the marketing domain. Therefore, the frame of reference for the study is volunteerism in charities. An overview of volunteerism from the general literature is presented to gain a greater insight into attitude development amongst pro social behaviour supporters. Social identity theory is then introduced as a result of the review on volunteerism, leading to a conceptualization involving the key constructs: moral identity, moral emotions, which is further sub-divided into its component parts and internal marketing. The moral identity and moral emotions based framework is presented to act as an initial foray into exploring how attitude development might occur within volunteers of charities. The project concludes with a range of implications for marketing communications and a proposed agenda for further research.

As the present research looks into the role of internal marketing to enhance volunteers’ performance in terms of motivation, participation and retention and how it relates to specific organisational outcomes, social identity theory is selected, to provide insights into aspects of volunteers’ behaviour and motivation. A charity organization needs to know what benefits volunteers are seeking from their experience with that charity. The question here is how to provide these benefits and manage the volunteers. Generally, volunteers want value and self expression, development of skills, and involvement in life challenges (Farmer and Fedor, 1999). If the organization is successful in meeting these expectations, then it has the potential to attract more volunteers and retain existing ones.

The purpose of this research is to enhance our understanding of how charity volunteers think and feel and how volunteers’ positive attitude formation influences their support of the charity. Without such knowledge it seems difficult to understand
how internal marketing initiatives can be undertaken effectively. At a general level, this understanding of how volunteers think and feel is addressed in terms of the cognitive-affective pathway, as Tajfel and Turner (1986) and Jackson (2002) stated that cognition and affect are both important components of social identity. Understanding of this cognitive-affective interface consolidates our understanding of how volunteers’ attitudes are formed since it is the very foundation of attitude development theory (Solomon, 2005). At a specific level, and one which will be elaborated and defined further, this study seeks to understand the pathway between how volunteers think about themselves, especially in terms of their ‘moral’ self identity and how they feel about the charity cause, or their ‘moral’ emotions towards this issue. Understanding how volunteers think about themselves would shed light on the importance of identity in harnessing support for a charity and their identity salience with that charity. Gaining more knowledge about how such volunteers feel about the cause would heighten appreciation of how the decision to support the charity develops along the classic cognitive-affect-behavioural (or “winning minds winning hearts”) pathway. We do not assume this sequential order in this classical pathway as the only option, as the alternative affect-behavioural-cognitive (or “winning hearts winning minds”) pathway may also explain the development of volunteers’ attitudes. Therefore, this research also focuses on the mediating effect of empathy, gratitude and identity salience in the conceptual model. It is important to consider individual perceptions about a situation in order to identify situational factors contributing to one’s internal or external orientation, as individual perception is identified by Solomon et al. (1979) as a mediating factor. Therefore, the key constructs that are identified from the literature are moral identity, moral emotions, internal marketing, empathy, identity salience, gratitude, and participation and longevity turnover intentions. These are defined below:
Moral Identity

It is a core concept of pro-social behaviour. Moral identity can be defined as the “mental representation (i.e. a self-image) that a consumer may hold about his or her moral character” (Reed, Aquino and Levy, 2007: p. 180).

Moral Emotions

This concept of moral emotions is adopted from the social psychology literature on moral behaviour, introduced by Piaget (1932). Haidt (2003) proposed that moral emotions can be defined as: those ‘linked to the interests or welfare either of society as a whole or at least of persons other than the judge or agent’ (p. 276).

Internal Marketing

In most of the extant literature this notion is studied in operations and service organizations. Internal marketing is the task of successfully training and motivating the employees to serve the customers (Kotler, 1991).

Empathy

The concept of empathy is applied in a variety of contexts from social life to consumer behaviour and relationship marketing. Feshbach (1975: p. 25) defined empathy as a “shared emotional response between an observer and a stimulus person.”

Gratitude

‘Seeing oneself as the beneficiary of other people’s generosity leads one to feel affirmed, esteemed and valued, which may boost self-esteem and perceived social support’ (McCullough, Emmons and Tsang, 2002: p.114). In marketing the term gratitude is associated with relationship marketing.
Identity Salience

Identity salience is defined as “the relative importance or centrality of a given identity (and thus role) for defining oneself” (Hoelter, 1983: p. 141). Identity salience enhances the sense of belonging to a group because in salient identity one perceives that one matters to others. So the salience of an identity increases with commitment to the role which gives rise to the identity and influence the time in role e.g., volunteering (Stryker and Serpe, 1982).

Participation

Voluntary participation is defined as contribution of either time or resources without any compensation (Carlson et al., 2011). It is expected that participation is a key contributor to explore how volunteers like to volunteer and reflect their behaviour toward charity work.

Longevity Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions like turnover itself can be either voluntary or involuntary (Carl et al., 2004). Turnover intention is an important antecedent of measuring the actual turnover (Lambert, Hogan, and Barton, 2001). Many studies focused on intention to leave and only few focused to intentions to stay (Farmer and Fedor, 1999). For the present study context, the longevity turnover intentions is captured as intention to stay as the present research looked into internal marketing influence on volunteers’ retention and long term stay with the charity.

The contextual material provided in the forgoing sections provides the basis for the identification of a focus for the research. This is outlined in the following sections.
1.4 Research Aim

This research aims to recommend changes to the existing charity marketing practices to provide a better approach to targeting the charity’s volunteers. Consequently, the research is interested in how a charity’s internal marketing evokes moral identity and moral emotions among volunteers for participation in charity campaigns. It focuses on those people who play a key role in charity organisations, such as campaigners and volunteers. Here personal traits play an important role to make an individual a desirable volunteer for the organization if charities consider those traits. In the identity specific literature; identity self dimension is covered by many authors (Tajfel 1981; Rime 2002; Reed Aquino and Levy, 2007), but how it operates in society still needs to be researched. The proposed research identifies aspects of moral identity that can be communicated through charities’ internal marketing to boost the morale of the volunteers. The reason why this study brings focus to internal marketing is that previously most of the literature (Lerner 1980; Bendapudi, 1996 and Ramrayka, 2001) highlighted that charities aimed their communication at either donors or beneficiaries and ignored those people who engage in social practices to help others, like volunteers (Ramrayka, 2001). Many charity organisations are desperately looking for social workers and campaigners to offer their support in terms of time and energy. Here the question is: how can internal marketing support social participation in schemes focused on the welfare of others as there is a problem in recruiting and retaining volunteers. Callow (2004) mentioned that the future challenge for Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs) and charities is to develop a strategy for promotional campaigns to recruit volunteers as their contribution is needed to achieve the organisations goals.
However, significance of meditational behavioural process from the cognitive–affective pathway on participation has been proposed by many authors (i.e., Bagozzi et al., 1994; Palmatier et al., 2009; and Arnett et al., 2003). It is decided to capture empathy, identity salience, gratitude as mediator because these constructs play major role in interpersonal relationships and moral behaviours; with moral identity and moral emotion pathway, internal marketing, participation and longevity turnover intentions. So understanding the pathway by which supporters develop their attitude would help in designing sequential volunteer management strategies. The following research aim is developed to guide this study further: to determine how volunteers’ attitudes are formed and how to deal with volunteers recruitment and retention from a marketing perspective. Specific research objectives derived from this broad aim could be stated as:

- To understand the pathway between identity and emotions and examine the development of volunteers’ attitude formation for participation within charities.
- To understand what role, if any, mediating factors such as empathy, gratitude and identity salience (defined in section 1.3) may have in influencing this identity-emotion or cognitive-affective pathway.
- To empirically examine how identity, emotion, internal marketing and other relational constructs (empathy, gratitude and identity salience) work together to increase voluntary participation and influence longevity turnover intentions (intentions to stay).
- To provide managerial guidance on the role of internal marketing in charities by using knowledge of volunteers’ attitude formation for the effective volunteer recruitment and retention strategies.
1.5 Research Framework and Questions

The present research has its basis in the volunteers’ behaviour and adopts a framework (see section 4.3) that creates links between a person’s cognitive-affective aspects of attitude, behaviour and communication. So, there is a need to refine theories on why people volunteer in order to construct a more comprehensive framework for pro-social behaviour (Penner et al., 2005). Green and Haidt (2002) argue that cognition is also important in seeking to understand why and when people like to act pro-socially in interpersonal as well as an interdependent and group context. Michalski and Helmig (2008) suggested that future research should focus on an identity based framework to explain the role of identity salience within relationship marketing in a charity context. They found no study had considered different identification levels in a relationship. It is proposed that different levels of identification do exist; for example an individual identity as a member of non-profit organization, or ‘identification with a volunteer for an organization or identification with a team in the non-profit organization’ (Michalski and Helmig, 2008: p. 59). In contrast Andrews (2002) also mentioned that the role of emotions is significant in relationship building and identity management. According to these research issues several questions appeared to be important to be addressed in this study.

Q1. What is the volunteering attitude formation process in charity organizations? Is cognitive-affective pathway (e.g. moral identity and moral emotions) significant in explaining volunteer behaviour? What are the underlying dimensions of the cognitive-affective pathway?

Q2. What are the implications for the role of internal marketing in promoting volunteerism, participation and reducing turnover in the charity organizations? What are its links with volunteers’ moral identity and moral
emotions and other mediating emotional processes? What is the extent of each influence?

**Q3.** What is the role of mediating emotional processes (volunteers’ empathy, identity salience and gratitude) in volunteers’ participation and levels of volunteer turnover? What are their links with moral identity and moral emotions? What is the extent of each influence?

### 1.6 Contributions of the Present Study

This study makes several contributions to knowledge, which are explained as follows:

Firstly, this research is novel in developing a social identification model that includes the motives for voluntary action and presents some recommendations which are relevant to understanding the process behind volunteerism. The research applies established social identity perspectives of the attitude development of volunteers to their participation in charities. Specifically, the research model uses cognitive–affective aspects in terms of moral identity and moral emotions together yielding relationship-oriented behaviours. The research is the first which offers a thorough representation of the pathway between moral identity and moral emotions, ultimately leading to volunteer retention in charity organizations (Reed et al. 2007; Bagozzi and Moore, 1994; Tangney et al., 2007). This creates valuable outcomes for the organization such as pro-social behaviour, increased participation and change in longevity turnover intentions. The study provides empirical results of social identity in a charity organization that could be replicated within and generalized to other organizations to develop service workers’ strong commitment and relationships with their organization.
Secondly, the thrust of prior research considering marketing strategies in order to enhance charity stakeholder motivation has focused on external marketing (Natraajan and Bagozzi, 1999; Small and Verrochi, 2009). By contrast, this study adopts the view that internal marketing represents an efficient and effective means of motivating volunteers to meet charity organization objectives. The relevance of internal marketing lies in that this is a cost effective means of stimulating the emotional motivation of volunteers.

Thirdly, many previous studies in charity research focused on empathy or other relevant emotions, such as guilt, as motivation for participation (Bagozzi and Moore, 1994; Fisher et al., 2008). This study develops earlier work by introducing a fuller set of intermediaries, that is, empathy, gratitude and identity salience, that transmit cognitive–affective attitudes through to important behavioural outcomes. Thus, the present study employs a comprehensive model to encapsulate a broader view of the role of cognition and affect in volunteering behaviours.

However the requirement of research is not only to enhance learning about new dimensions but also to provide practical implications and guidance for managers. So this research recommends changes in existing charity marketing practices to provide a better approach to target the charity supporters/volunteers. That is why this research empirically examined how internal marketing in charities improves volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intention by focusing on their moral emotions and moral identity. It brings focus on those people who play a key role in charity such as volunteers. On the other hand, this research helps the policy makers to look into the other side of the voluntary sector and how to maximize the capacity of volunteering by evaluating the current practices of charities and introducing new
rules for volunteer management, and encouragement for volunteer’s recruitment and retention.

Overall a comprehensive marketing approach based on the moral grounding of volunteers’ behaviour will help charity managers to increase participation and reduce turnover among volunteers. Also the present research model can be adapted or adopted into other cultures (e.g., corporate) to find out how well it works generally.

1.7 Research Methods

From the research questions it is clear that the present study is an empirical study that looks into effective ways to recruit and retain the charities volunteers. This research is positivist and thus adopts the hypothetico–deductive approach. Using social identity theory to underpin the study and following a comprehensive review of the literature, a number of hypotheses are developed linking relevant constructs (defined earlier). A pilot study utilised elements of both inductive and deductive approaches in order to develop a reliable quantitative instrument. In the final study, all the measures, in the questionnaire, are assessed against seven point likert scales. Non-probability sampling adopting a purposive technique provided a range of cross sectional data, which was analysed using SEM (Structural Equation Modelling).

1.7.1 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are becoming increasingly important and strict. Research ethics mean research must be methodological and morally sound. It means the research topic; objectives, research design, data collection, analysis and write up all should be done in a responsible way. There are two points in research ethics. The first is a deontological view that research is able to justify that there is nothing
unethical in the manner it is promoted and researchers will avoid any kind of
deception. The second is a teleological review in which research must justify all the
means that are used for the research, to avoid unethical acts (Cooper and Schindler,
2008). These points are valid for the present research regarding ethical practices. It
was ensured that authorized data was used in the research and no sensitive
information was exploited. According to the Data Protection Legislation Act of 1998,
data cannot be used without the permission of the concerned party. Basic ethical
issues include privacy, lack of consent, cheating and risk to contributors (Diener and
Crandell, 1978). Confidentiality is of major interest to participants as many do not
like to have their personal information used publicly. It is essential to make sure that
the researcher will keep the agreement and confidentiality of participant data (Bell,
2005). Reporting data that could harm any particular individual is unethical. Proper
care should be taken when data are used in publications (Cooper and Schindler,
2008; Robson, 2002). The Data Protection Act of 1998 defined all the rules on how
to use personal information; the guidelines that need to be, and were, followed are
summarized below:

- Data should be used only for the stated purpose, not for other purposes
- Only use relevant information
- Do not keep data for a long time without any reason
- Data should be processed according to the 1998 Act rules (Stationary

Referencing is another important ethical issue and good impressions of research
work are achieved by having worthy references to the research literature (Robson,
2002). References are an essential part of research for its authentication; otherwise it
is considered as plagiarism. To avoid plagiarism proper citation and referencing are
carefully practiced in the present study and thesis. Finally, for each stage of data collection, approval was sought from the university ethics committee and respondents were provided with detailed information about the study, the voluntary nature of the study and the anonymity of their responses. For more details about the ethical approval received from the ethics committee, the information sheet and consent form that were given to respondents see ‘Appendix 1, 2 and 3’.

1.8 Thesis Structure

To achieve the targeted goal, this study is broken down into nine chapters which are briefly outlined in the following section.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Provides an overview of the research, specifically the research background, aim and significance. It highlights the main research issues in the present study, introduces the research framework and sets out the research questions. The core constructs are also defined.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Background

This chapter covers the basic theory chosen to address the research issues in charity organizations. It explains the new social paradigm for pro-social behaviour to increase participation among volunteers. This chapter describes the basic concept of volunteerism and its importance for charities with the help of social identity theory.

Chapter 3: Moral Emotions and Moral Identity: Conceptualization, Major Influences and Outcomes

Chapter 3 contains literature reviews on the basic research issues: internal marketing application in charities, attitude and behavioural aspects of volunteering, as
background information about the topic. This chapter focuses on the importance and role of the constructs employed in the present study, identifies the literature gaps and confirms the research propositions.

**Chapter 4: Working Model and Hypothesis Development**

This chapter provides the conceptual framework for the research with proposed statements of relationships between variables. It explains the research constructs with their dimensions and identifies the hypotheses. This chapter deals with the internal marketing concept which is new to research in charities and considered as an antecedent for voluntary participation with charities. Further, it presents the role of moral emotions and identity, and mediating effects on voluntary participation and longevity turnover intentions within charities.

**Chapter 5: Research Methodology**

This section provides an outline of the research methodology: research philosophy, approach, method and procedures and selection of different techniques according to the context under study. It also provides an overview of the steps followed for data collection and data analysis.

**Chapter 6: Descriptive Analysis**

This represents the basic characteristics of respondents and their responses to a variety of questions (see Appendix 4 for the research instrument). It provides an overall picture of respondents’ demographic and data characteristics using descriptive statistics. This preliminary analysis provides a basis for subsequent advanced analysis.

**Chapter 7: Data Screening and Measurement Specifications**
Chapter 7 contains detailed information about the approach that was adopted and criteria for selection of the research approach. It outlines all the analytical procedures applied to the data. Furthermore it explains the operationalization of the constructs and purification of the scale items. It addresses into the constructs relationship, reliability and validity.

**Chapter 8: Analysis of Structural Model and Proposed Relationships**

The structural modelling and tests of the proposed relationships described in chapter 4 are presented with discussion of key relationships.

**Chapter 9: Conclusion and Implications**

This is dedicated to elaborating the findings of the questionnaire survey in relation to the existing arguments in the extant literature. It offers the conclusions derived logically from the earlier data analysis. Some recommendations and implications of the research findings for internal marketing in a charity context are provided. The contributions to theory and practice, and study limitations are highlighted together with directions for future research are also included.

1.9 Conclusion

Based on a review of the extant literature it is apparent that charity organisations rely heavily on the recruitment and retention of volunteers. The examination of contributions from studies in psychology, sociology and marketing highlights gaps in our knowledge with specific reference to the potential role of internal marketing and its impact on psychological processes within volunteering. Consequently, a range of objectives are developed to address these deficiencies and heighten appreciation of the pertinent issues.
Chapter 2-Literature Review and Theoretical Background

2.1 Overview

This chapter represents a review of the existing literature on volunteerism in charities and volunteers’ behaviour. Firstly a review of the charity sector is undertaken in order to understand the current issues, followed by an investigation of volunteers’ behaviour. The gaps in the literature are identified and clarified as a basis for redefining the research propositions in the next chapter.

Overall this critical review gives insights into current knowledge and its limitations and suggests where the present research fits into that framework. The literature on volunteerism is explored in general terms, due to the fact that the issue of supporting and advocating charities is an area that has not been explored adequately within the mainstream volunteering research. The literature on volunteering as a social phenomenon is vast and spans many disciplines, mainly sociology but also social and behavioural studies. This section overviews what we know about volunteerism from a research perspective in general and then examines what has been done within the field of marketing. This leads to a consideration of what might stimulate volunteers towards social causes in general, that is volunteers attitude formation.

Social identity theory is applied to conceptualise the volunteers’ attitude formation. As social identity parameters and distinctions provide the understanding of a number of behaviour and attitudinal realm, it is possible that work conducted within this area would bring useful insights into our conceptualisation of volunteerism. Firstly, the literature on charity in general is summarised to provide a grounding for the general
thrust of this research. However it is found that many authors use the term charity and non-profit organization interchangeably.

2.2 Charity Background

“The charity sector includes all organizations which meet the strict requirements for charity registration. The voluntary sector includes charities and many other organizations with social and political aims that have not registered as charities or do not meet the criteria” (Hudson, 2003: p. 08). So, charities are value led organizations with social, philosophical, moral and religious values. These organizations aim to bring change through proper campaigning and provide appropriate services to solve problems. They offer social services that bring different benefits and satisfaction to deserving people (Hudson, 1995). However, charity organizations are facing a lot of competition for resources and volunteers’ time (Balabanis et al. 1997; Carlson et al., 2011). They are looking for cost efficient ways to retain volunteers and relationships with prospective volunteers.

Yavas et al. (1993) mentioned in the context of charity organizations that donors’/volunteers’ behaviour seems to be very challenging to understand. It is necessary for long term success and survival of charities to carry out marketing and consumer behaviour application, especially in times of economic pressures and competition. Currently these organizations are facing a challenge of integrating multi public relationships by going beyond the communication and public relations function (Mokwa, 1990).

Kotler explained the relationships between volunteers/donors and charities as transitive. Kotler (1972) defined a transaction as an exchange of values and this definition can be easily applied to the transactions taking place among
volunteers/donors and their organizations. According to Kotler and Andreasen (1991) this exchange between the charity and its volunteers includes social and psychological benefits on the one hand but sacrifice of time, money and sometimes economic cost on the other. The two parties involved in this exchange are volunteers or donors who provide resources on the charity’s behalf and beneficiaries to whom resources are allocated. Charities need to attract and retain the potential volunteers for their operations, which is why Kotler (1979) advocated introducing marketing for non-profit organizations. Marketing is mainly involved in creating, increasing and maintaining these exchanges. He concluded that marketing really plays its role in strengthening the contribution, growth and survival of charity organizations.

However, Kotler and Andreasen (1991) concluded that it is not easy to apply the marketing concept in charity organization as there are many factors to consider; not least that effective marketing is expensive. On the other hand, they feared it would cause pressure on other charity organizations to pursue it. Still, many researchers (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Balabanis et al., 1997) have supported the assumption that marketing in charities could improve their performance. Balabanis et al. (1997) explored how marketing concepts have been adopted as a management philosophy in certain charity organizations. Marketing has become as acceptable function in charities due to its performance contributions.

2.2.1 Charities’ Problems

In today’s scenario volunteering is more important because charities need to manage their costs due to the recession and the reduction of government support. Hence, in Mitchell and Donald’s (1996) point of view, recruitment and retention of volunteers is a big challenge for non-profit and charity organizations. Charity organizations have to invest a lot of money for recruitment and training of volunteers. High
turnover creates problems to charities and their beneficiaries especially when long term commitment and special skills for volunteering are required (Miller et al., 1990; Fisher and Ackerman 1998; Chawla and Sondhi, 2011). In the present time of economic recession, it is even harder for charity organizations to recruit new volunteers and train them.

Another main issue is the effective application of communication with volunteers because charity organizations are much concerned with their clientele as compared to the volunteers. It is necessary to pay attention to those people who are contributing and utilizing their energies, time and resources for social wellbeing (Ramrayka, 2001). Therefore donors, campaigners and volunteers should be a part of the charity’s communication to boost participation with charities. It is time to think about why people do volunteering and how organizations can promote volunteerism. To address this issue, this research is looking at social identity implications for marketing in charity organizations.

Bennett and Savani (2004) argued that marketing is not well recognized in charities for its contribution. The reason might be that charities are held accountable for their expenditures, and particularly for marketing expenditures. Bennett and Savani (2004) stated that many large UK charities are facing problems regarding their marketing practices as their managers believe that all money and resources should be utilised purely for philanthropic activities rather than in marketing activities. They noticed that marketing cost is higher than management so charities need those strategies which are helpful to manage their expenses (Bennett and Savani, 2004). It is not easy to measure the effectiveness of a marketing programme and how it creates awareness and its contribution to attract new volunteers and retain existing volunteers. That is why this research is focusing on internal marketing, which can
help charity organizations to understand volunteers’ attitude and design of quality communication with volunteers. In a few cases volunteers’ do not want to withdraw but the desire and energy to serve the charity’s beneficiaries may be reduced (Adams and Shepherd, 1996), which is why charities should motivate volunteers by boosting their morale.

Analysis of the some facts and figures highlights the importance of volunteering that must be considered by charities. According to the Third Sector Research Centre, 1% of the population accounts for 9% of unpaid help recorded in the Citizenship Survey. Further, 66% of unpaid help is given by 7% of the population; 87% is given by 31% of the population (http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/joepublic/2010/aug/24/). In another survey, the Guardian found that 88% of the voluntary and community sector’s resources in the North East of the UK come from the public and about 62% of these have already decreased; therefore 33% of the sector has already reduced their staff. There is an increase demand for services, yet 64% of organisations are expected to close their services in the coming years. It is also expected that 26% will close soon and the other 50% are thinking about reducing the number of beneficiaries due to lack of resources (http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/2010/dec/31). Therefore, in such conditions there is a need to evaluate policies and strategies to deal with social issues including increasing volunteerism.

2.3 Conceptualizing Volunteer Attitude Formation

A focus on psychology may provide important insights into understanding the volunteers since most charity volunteers will be volunteers and many volunteers engage in pro-social work. Indeed, the vast majority of work on volunteerism has addressed volunteerism within the non-profit and charity sectors. Furthermore, a
primary objective of charity marketing is to recruit more volunteers. Therefore a
general understanding of how volunteers develop their helping attitude may inform
knowledge specifically on charity volunteers. Exploring the literature on the
conceptualization of the volunteerism process is thus deemed necessary to
understand the development of the volunteers’ attitude.

Volunteerism is often defined as contributing either time (Carlson et al., 2011) or
resources of some sort, usually manpower, for a charitable, educational, social, and
political or community related cause without anticipation of compensation (Ellis et
al., 1993). Penner (2002) conceptualized the volunteering process from the aspects
of a pro-social personality or identity, helpfulness traits such as a history of giving in
pro-social behaviour contexts, and self-identity related to the role and other-
orientated empathy, that is a concern of others’ well-being. Volunteerism has salient
attributes of longevity, planning, non-obligatory help and context orientation.
Longevity refers to the long term involvement; once people get involved in
volunteering they tend to do it over several years (Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Penner
and Fritzsche, 1993). Secondly, volunteering is a planned action; some people
decide to volunteer on the basis of cost and benefit analysis of a particular situation
and others on the basis of intrinsic motivation (Dovidio and Penner, 2001). Thirdly,
volunteering is non-obligatory help, like a moral action as the individual volunteer’s
beneficiaries would be strangers or an organization that serves victims. On the other
hand, an organization’s reputation influences a person’s involvement with the
organization as a volunteer (Omoto and Snyder, 1995). Fourthly, context deals with
salient attributes and conceptualization. It also accommodates dispositional variables
and their relationship to enduring behaviour. The dispositional variables include
personal beliefs, values, personality traits and motives that also influence pro-social
behaviour (Penner, 2002). Here, the term pro-social behaviour is a broad term that is used alternatively for “altruistic, helping, donating and moral behaviour” (Thomas et al., 2009: p. 311).

However, Penner (2002) considers motives as the causes of volunteerism (see next section). Riecken and Yavas (2005) concluded that awareness and education are necessary for motivation. Self and other-oriented motives have a strong impact on volunteerism, but other external factors, e.g., marketing appeals and volunteer social pressure are also determinants of volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Penner and Fritzsche, 1993). Clary et al. (1998) explained that “volunteer social pressure [...] is a potential volunteer’s subjective perceptions of how significant other’s feel about him/her becoming a volunteer and his/her motivation to comply with these feelings” (p: 462).

The question here is why people spend their time in unpaid work and what the motivation behind it is. This sort of volunteering is stimulated by internal and psychological forces that individuals want to satisfy by their behaviour; it also helps to meet social needs. People usually seek to satisfy different psychological motives through their involvement. There is a possibility that the same beliefs and behaviours serve different psychological functions in different individuals even from the same volunteering activity. People do volunteering either to express their values or to gain knowledge or skills that they could not otherwise gain or practise. They might get experience that is helpful for their career development. Therefore, if the motivation communicated by the charity message matches volunteers’ motivation, it brings fruitful results (Clary et al., 1996).

Therefore, this research is focused on pro-social motives and how they are actually fulfilled by volunteering. This research is intended to focus on more internal and
moral aspects of motivation, rather than motivational differences and how their motivation varies in relation to level of commitment. There is a possibility that motivations for volunteering overlap. In addition to this, Mitchell and Taylor (2004) described volunteering purely in marketing terms of four Ps for the volunteers’ market as below:

*Product:* Volunteer’s experience

*Price:* Cost of volunteering, either monetary or non-monetary

*Place:* Where donation is going to consumer, ease of time and energy

*Promotion:* Contact and Communication between volunteer and organization

These four Ps are important to understand volunteers. Indeed, these elements are covered either directly or indirectly in the empirical study used in the present research. The emotional dimensions of volunteering are likely to exert a strong influence on intentions to donate time, as personality traits are associated with emotions through analogy, the social identity of individuals and helping behaviour in a volunteering context. Donation to charity organizations is of two types either money or time. Time donation is symbolic and “symbolic associations are abstract cognitions” (Geraldine and Rieunier, 2011: p.702) and is largely neglected in previous research. Therefore the present research focuses on the time aspect of donation.

### 2.3.1 Antecedents of Volunteerism

Mitchell and Donald (1996) identified volunteer characteristics and antecedents of their moral and pro-social behaviour for helping others. Similarly Omoto and Snyder’s (2002) volunteer process model examines the antecedents of general
volunteerism. They found the overriding importance of previous experience as attenuating further involvement but also found that self-identity, related to being a volunteer and emotions were important drivers or predictors of volunteering decision making. Penner (2002), however, conceptualized the volunteerism process as inter-determined by a pro-social personality or identity, or helpfulness traits such as a history of giving in pro-social behaviour contexts and self-identity related to this role and other-orientated empathy or the ability to share concern and feel concerns with the well-being of others. Finkestein and Brannick (2007) argue that this role identity theory explanation is important, especially in understanding more informal volunteers or those that may work outside the formal structures of organizations, such as ad hoc volunteers, campaigners, lobbyists, etc.

Indeed, the altruism-egotistic dichotomy as determining the volunteer’s decision making has featured in many studies on volunteerism and general pro-social helping behaviour. The traditional and still popular view is that people simply want to help for the sake of helping; and expect no return from anyone or from the representatives of the organization or the cause they are volunteering for (Guy and Patton, 1989; Burnet, 2005). Many campaigners fall into this category, where they may register as a campaigner for Charity X and engage in their set of voluntary activities which span many areas and across time, and which may go unnoticed by anyone or unrecognized by the organization and yet the campaigner or volunteer derives pleasure from this right of anonymity to help. This form of pure altruism is generally considered to be rare, especially in the West where highly visible campaigns are run based on the role identity of being a helper or a volunteer for an organization. Nevertheless, it is also recognized that pure altruism is a very strong driver of volunteerism (Brudney, 1993; Farrell et al., 1998; Beerli et al., 2004;
Faircloth, 2005; Mowen and Sujan, 2005). However Peterson (2004) argued that young people are motivated by egotistical motives such as career development and promotions while older people are motivated by altruistic motives. Adersen (2003) and Tidwell (2005), for instance, showed that those who preferred pure altruism to egotistical motives had stronger long term loyalty and commitment reinforcing the importance of pure altruism as a central and powerful driver of volunteerism, despite the growth of a more egotistical social marketing environment.

Other researchers feel the role of egotistical motives should not be overlooked especially in this consumerist age of “want” and public display of identities. Schram (1985) for instance believes it is impossible for volunteers to be driven by purely altruistic motives and Pearce (1993) reiterates that normal volunteering is usually a combination of altruistic and egotistical motives or what is termed ‘ego altruism’. Puffer and Meindl (1992) studied incentives for volunteers and found that volunteers who had incentives such as positive appraisal from managers worked and performed better at their tasks. These authors argued that this was because volunteers felt their motivations were understood and reinforced by the incentives but also the form of social appraisal acted to attenuate volunteers’ own self-identities and this identity salience effect, through social identity congruence, was the egotistical driver of better performance. It seems social identity reinforcement through social interactions plays an important role in explaining better performance of positively appraised volunteers than non-appraised ones (Baum et al., 1999). Hibbert et al. (2003) also indicated that a combination of personal and social factors were important in building the identity of volunteers and that increasing the volunteers’ identity salience or attenuating the identity as a volunteer and what volunteerism stood for was a key driver of behaviour. Therefore social activities such as developing
friendships, talking, gatherings, etc., have all been proposed as positively influencing volunteers’ decision to continue. Social identification with the ‘in group’ of fellow campaigners or volunteers thus seems paramount in attenuating volunteers’ self-identity further into a more pro-social attitude. Peterson (2004) found that young people were motivated more by egotistical issues such as career development and promotions, but older people were motivated more by altruistic motives.

2.3.2 Volunteerism Motivation

Identification of purpose and need to behave pro-socially both help to explain the reasons why people engage in volunteering. The literature on volunteer motives is interesting from two perspectives. Firstly, the ego altruism dichotomy shows that there is a complex interplay in managing volunteer motivations. And secondly, the issue of self-identity, attenuated through social congruence and identification in one form or another, may be an overriding or central issue. Hibbert et al. (2003) are of this view and consider further researching volunteer identity roles as central to moving the literature forward on conceptualizing volunteer attitude formation.

West (2004) stated that both time and money giving need encouragement, which is a big challenge for charities. It is true that people with a feeling of well-being tend to give more money (as donors) and spend more time (as volunteers). The broader role of identity is unexplored to know how a person’s identity really influences the giving. A few writers (for example, Reed et al., 2007) focused on a specific type of identity, such as moral identity. The role of identity in giving covers the subject of the personality traits of the people who give time or money. For example Finkelstein (2008) stated that traits like empathy and helpfulness are highly related to time spent volunteering. The question raised here is to what extent these traits really fit together with a person’s specific or broader identity and how it influences giving behaviour.
For more clarity it is important to know the circumstances in which identity is linked to a group a person belongs, or wants to belong to. Oyserman (2009) argues identity based motivation is derived from cognitive processes. However, Shang, Reed and Crosn (2008) concluded that social identity has a significant impact on one’s contributions.

On the other hand, Service-Dominant Logic (S-DL) can be applied to understand volunteerism. According to S-DL, the service system can lead to value co-creation through people interaction, technology, and information sharing (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a). S-DL refers to co-creation behaviour as a collaborative and reciprocal value creation process (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a). In the context of the present study, not only do charities serve the beneficiaries, but volunteers do too - in part - on behalf of the charities. So, both are involved in value creating activities. Thus, the value is contextual and “is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a: p. 07)”.

S-DL views the services resources as operant resources that bring core competences to organizations and are usually intangible and invisible in nature. Therefore, customers and employees are operant resources as they engage with the firm for value co-creation and service itself is also an operant resource that brings effects into other resources, for others’ benefits. S-DL considers all social and economic actors when explaining resource integration, services and values co-creating. Thus S-DL treats these actors (both public and private resources) as “market-facing resources” (Lusch and Vargo, 2012). Therefore marketing needs to focus on these operant resources (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Similarly, charities consider volunteers as their actors and private resources when offering services to beneficiaries, whilst simultaneously co-creating value for charity and volunteers. Charities should
address their volunteers via their marketing practices because volunteers are actual service providers and the charity’s operant resources. Furthermore, marketing is a reflection of organization’s state of mind that can guide employees (volunteers) in understanding the organization’s objectives. According to Vargo (2008) the S-DL has many attributes that provide implications for relationships and these can be reflected through marketing. Some of these attributes are:

- Co-creation of value
- Reciprocity i.e., exchange of service for service
- Networks of markets
- Contextual nature of value
- Collaboration to develop mutual and beneficial value propositions

Almost the same attributes have been discovered from the literature on volunteerism in charity contexts. Thus, S-DL can be applied to explore the values volunteers obtain from their voluntary participation. However, in addition, it is important to understand volunteers’ behaviour in order to map the voluntary work that creates values for the volunteers and the charity organization.

There are varying reasons why people engage in volunteering such as feelings of social responsibility and empathy with the needy, or to gain social, psychological and practical benefits pertaining to the desire to obtain experience, to make friends, and for training (Bennett and Kottasz, 2000). However self-expressiveness is a major factor for volunteering. People usually do volunteering in a self-expressive way that can satisfy them (Girdron, 1983; Jamison, 2003). According to Girdron (1983, p. 32), “individualization of volunteers’ jobs is essential in order to provide a person with self-expressive tasks that gave a volunteer an opportunity to develop his or her skills or abilities”.

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To match the volunteers’ individualization and organization objectives, it is assumed that an effective marketing and communication programme is required to avoid any unseen consequences for both organization and volunteers. Thus, internal communication not only affects relationships between volunteers and organizations but in fact it helps to utilize resources effectively for training and developing their interpersonal skills and behaviours. Internal marketing gives clarity to volunteers about organizations’ rules, policies, mission, responsibilities and the handling of emergency situations. Bennet and Barkasjo (2005) concluded that internal marketing has a positive influence on the volunteer’s attitude and, therefore, it is worthwhile to invest in internal marketing activities. With the exception of Bennet and Barkasjo (2005) no other studies have captured internal marketing as a concept in the charity/charitable context. The present study aims to explore the motivational role of internal marketing in a pure charity context; note that Bennet and Barkasjo (2005) studied internal marketing in the specific charitable context of a hospital.

The present research proposes a model that deals with cognitive–affective issues relevant to volunteerism and promotion of charity through internal marketing. However for a firm understanding of volunteerism, it is necessary to explore the attitude-behaviour typology to know about the attitudinal aspects in the background of volunteers’ participative behaviour. Pett et al. (2004) mentioned that attitude is an important component of any behaviour.

2.4 Attitude-Behaviour Typology

Krosnick and Petty (1995) explained attitude as durable, resistant to change, stable over time and influential in particular behaviour. It is important to know how pre-existing attitudes work to build up a new attitude for a reasonable behaviour.
Therefore, a consistent and powerful approach is needed to be applied in marketing to change an attitude. This is the reason that our study focused on attitude formation for volunteer behaviour, which covers existing attitudes (DeMarree et al., 2010), and new attitudes towards behaviour.

Attitude is an evaluation and integration of cognition and affect responses towards an object (Petty et al., 2004). The affect is an emotional aspect of attitude and provides the measures of change in an attitude. In most studies affect is assumed to be a judgmental process to form the reaction (Cervelleon and Dube, 2002; Huskinson and Haddock, 2004). It is more effective than non-emotional determinants. Fabrigar and Petty (1999) also asserted that affective persuasion is more effective than cognitive persuasion is at changing the attitude. Crano and Prislin (2006), however, stated that cognitive persuasion is more effective in changing attitude. In both cognitive and affective elements of attitude, contextual conceptualization is important. According to Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990), understanding of an attitude that leads to behaviour only comes from the knowledge of social and psychological processes involved in decision making. Thus beliefs and evaluation are key influencers of attitude.

Petty, Unnava and Strathman (1991, p: 242) defined attitude in marketing literature as “global and relatively enduring evaluations of objects, issues or persons”. Eagly and Chaiken (1998) stated that “attitude towards targets, attitudes towards behaviours are evaluations of the respondent engaging in a single behaviour or set of behaviour” (Webb et al., 2000: p. 164). Attitude predicts behaviour. The social identity approach provides in-depth knowledge as a persuasion process for attitude change or formation in a social context. Attitude represents the integration of
cognition and affective components in relation to an object and also evaluates those (Petty et al., 2004). Such an attitude can form a pro-social behaviour.

Thomas (2005) explained the social psychology of volunteerism as a pro-social behaviour. According to Thomas (2005), volunteering, helping, altruism and cooperation all cover the pro-social behaviour domain which includes a wide range of human actions. However, Stummer et al. (2005) differentiated volunteerism from helping behaviour. Volunteerism is planned behaviour and volunteers seek opportunities to help. Further it is also distinguished by commitment from volunteers (Reed and Forehead, 2002).

During the 1960s and 1970s many behavioural and social scientists (Gouldner, 1960; Berkowitz and Daniels, 1963) focused on positive social and pro-social behaviour such as volunteering, sharing, cooperation and donation. Recently these behaviours have been studied in organizational behaviour and consumer behaviour. These behavioural studies are becoming broader due to their different consequences for individual and organizational effectiveness, which are highly important.

Eisenberg (1995) agreed that the peoples’ behaviour is usually described in terms of antecedents, components and consequences, which depend upon their understanding of emotional response. Further, he indicated that perception is built through experience and feelings about helping others and the motivational differences among individuals are linked to their concerns for social issues. Social development analysis indicates that the helping decision has three steps: (a) understanding of emotions in terms of their cause and consequence, (b) observing the emotional expression and (c) reporting the experienced and expressed emotions (Brody and Hall, 1993; Shields, 2009). Similarly, Bendapudi et al. (1996) stated that the conceptual construct that generates helping behaviour has four components:
antecedents, moderators, behaviour and consequences. They elaborated helping in relation to the marketing aspect of how to promote such behaviour. Subsequently, they concluded that charity marketing is able to bring change in the beneficiary’s state, the overall community and also for donors.

Simon et al. (1998) found that for understanding helping behaviour it is necessary to know about helping behaviour motivation and its effects on both recipients and helpers. The motives behind the pro-social helping attitude are driven from altruistic and philanthropic norms which boost social responsibility. According to Clary et al. (1998) individuals behave pro-socially to maintain their values, beliefs and ego, and this pro-social behaviour reinforces their attitude. There are numerous explanations for the gap between behavioural decision making and actual behaviour within moral and non-moral contexts. This research deals with actual behaviour within the moral context of moral emotions and moral identity.

Haidt (2003) stated that moral emotions are linked to the interests or welfare of a society. Moral emotions are evoked through self-reflection and they are part of self-conscious emotions like pride, guilt and shame. These emotions are important for motivation and behavioural judgment (Fesbach, 1975). Moral identity is a great motivational force for participation in pro-social activities. Moral identity and moral emotions are major drivers of pro-social attitude development and yet have never been modelled together. Emotions and identity are interdependent as sometimes identity evokes emotion and sometimes emotion evokes identity. Identification and emotional aspects of pro-social behaviour are important to understand. In general it was considered that social behaviour motivates people to participate in pro-social activities.
Social movements often denote pro-social behaviours that gradually convert into a new social movement (NSM). This NSM aimed to bring changes at the micro level. These micro level changes are more concerned with personal identity and behavioural issues in which individuals’ exhibit pro-social behaviour (Buechler, 2000). Many scholars (Falik, 1983; Todosijevic and Enyedi, 2003) relate NSM participation to Maslow’s need psychology, which proposes that individuals strive not only for survival but also for the satisfaction of basic needs and then gradually move ahead towards self-esteem.

Fisher and Ackerman (1998) assumed that moral traits are socially sanctioned and influence a wide range of desired behaviours and create favourable social consequences. Motivation is also another important variable for charitable behaviour. This motivation could be egoistic such as to get recognition and praise for help, or altruistic, to create comfort and alleviate other’s needs. On the other side, helping behaviours have manifold consequences because behaviour is a variable term; for instance, respondents (volunteers) do not help, give little help or very serious help. So the degree of help given by volunteers may affect their future perceptions. A charity can improve the level of help by offering greater choice, such as time for help, money donation, and type of task/activity and specifying the beneficiaries (ibid, 1998). However, people’s behaviour may be strengthened, maintained, weakened or modified by the consequences of their actions of helping or giving. In the future, more work is required on this perspective.

This research is looking into how volunteers help charity organizations to achieve their objectives, and enhance the organizations’ ability to serve their beneficiaries. In pro-social behaviour sometimes the intent to benefit an individual or organization
brings benefits for both the individual and organization; such behaviours are highly desirable in charity organizations.

A greater need to explore volunteers from a social identity theory perspective has been proposed by several authors (Hibbert et al, 2003; Laverie and McDonald, 2007) and yet studies have inferred identity based interactions from the effects of related issues but have not modelled, with the exception of Aquinos, Reed and Levy (2007), volunteer self-identity per se. These authors argued that the myriad influencing factors that have been proposed in the volunteer decision making and attitude formation studies point to a central role for social identity and this should serve to move the volunteer conceptualization stream of research forward. Social identity theory is thus reviewed below and important recent research applying social identity theory within the pro-social behaviour context is explored.

2.5 Social Identity Theory

All identities are operated and conceptualized at the social level as either social or moral. In general these identities are treated as social identities. Thus, social identity theory refers to the process by which individuals construct their own self perceptions related to their own identity predominantly, but also in terms of how they feel, from their perceptions of others within their social world. This social world may be real in terms of group membership or social interactions with people, or may be apparent in terms of symbolism and extended meaning, for instance through brand or cause affiliation. Social identity was originally coined and defined by Tajfel (1978) as that “part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to the membership” (Tajfel, 1978: p. 41). In social identity
individuals define the identity in terms of interactions with others and roles they play (Tajfel, 1981). There are differences in ways of defining identification. An early definition, by Foote (1951: p. 17) suggests that identification reflects the “appropriation of and commitment to a particular identity”.

A key assumption of this theory is that people will refer to themselves as psychologically related to the groups and organizations and indeed to general issues, to which they feel a closer psychological attachment (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Haslam and Ellemers, 2005; Hogg and Terry, 2000). People then consider the features that are used to explain and describe the in group to them; thus a volunteer that perceives charity to be positive will use these features to describe him- or herself (Ellemers et al., 2004). This self-description based on the features of the in group is referred to as social identification (Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

Numerous studies (Tyler and Blader, 2001, 2002, 2003) have suggested that the social identification process seeks to attenuate the self-image of the individual who feels more similar to the in group or issue. On the basis of social identity theory Tajfel and Turner (1979) and Tyler and Blader (2001, 2002, and 2003) have argued that the social identification process links an individual to the organization to the degree that the organization contributes favourably to the self-image of the individual. Interestingly the self-identification process is composed traditionally of both cognitive and affective components, which are considered critical in attitude development theory (Turner, 1978; Ellemer et al. 1999; Haslam and Ellemers, 2005). Indeed Tajfel (1981) explained that the self-identification process is an accumulation of values and emotional feelings that embody belongingness to an in group. Therefore individuals will construct an identity which supports their moral
emotional sentiments towards issues and which attenuates their existing or preferred identities.

On the other side, Deaux (1992) and Stets and Burke (2000) pointed out that in some cases personal identities may be associated with particular social identities which may affect the membership in a particular group. Deaux (1992) suggested that some personal identities may represent a general view of the self and therefore may pervade all the membership groups to which they belong. Social identity theory if extended and applied to the social supporter case, i.e., the charity context, can be used to rationalise volunteers’ attitude development. It is interesting to note that from the myriad of studies on social identity only Reed et al. (2005) have applied it to justify identity based support behaviour within a pro-social context. These authors used the concept, derived from social identity theory, to explain volunteer behaviour and preference for giving in terms of money or time and resources.

Laverie and McDonald (2007) showed how pro-social identity attitude formation results from an interplay between a psychologically based social identity and a felt or emotional attachment. Two possible pathways were recognized both the cognitive–affective and affective-cognitive pathways were recognized as possible. Appraisal through social interactions, even media congruence or marketing efforts, could positively mediate such pathways for volunteers’ dedication.

Social identity theory plays an important role in understanding both cognitive and affective pathway in social behaviour. It explains attitudinal changes in a way that facilitates understanding of the persuasive process in social contexts. Once an attitude is developed, it helps the individuals to find others with whom he/she can share the attitude and identity. This connection enhances the identification with particular behaviours that represent the social identity (Shavitt, 1990). After the
behaviour is executed the participants become more inclined to exercise the same behaviour in a similar situation (Westaby, 2005). Social identity can mobilise people for participation due to its association with emotions. Piliavin et al. (2002) also suggested that social identity provides a useful avenue for repeated and consistent behaviour.

According to Smith, Murphy and Coats (1997) psychology is another part of the social identity that explains how people feel as a member of a community which is not fully addressed in previous research. Usually social identity research considers the incorporation of self with a community and its importance, rather than self-importance to community. Jackson and Smith (1999) concluded that “social identity theory continues to grow as an important and powerful perspective in understanding many real world problems” (Jackson and Smith, 1999: p. 134).

Social Identity presents the self as a unique person (Turner et al., 1987) and further Brewer and Garder (1996) stated that it provides a depersonalized self-concept. Depersonalization is a most important phase to understand others’ feelings (Brewer and Garder, 1996). This depersonalization is a cognitive force towards adopting the norms of society for standard behaviour. “The depersonalization process begins with a stimulus in the environment that triggers the social identity, bringing it to the forefront” (Maldonado and Muehling, 2006: p.80). Social identity is associated with volunteerism because people get recognition for their participation for social welfare. Hogg et al. (1995) summarised the contributions of social identity as follows:

- Social identity theory focuses on reciprocal links between society and self.
- Social identity explains the socio-cognitive processes that cause the self to be responsive to contextual cues.
Social identity provides the notion of identity based on group membership and the role of a particular position in a group.

Social identity provides the salient basis of self-regulation in a particular context.

Social identity clarifies the role of salient social identity in people’s perception and their conduct to others.

It is a psychological theory that explains depersonalization and conformity through a link between identity and behaviour, and social behaviour to immediate contextual cues.

The depersonalization of the self provides a foundation for empathy, emotional contagion, altruism and mutual influence process.

It also explains the contextual salience in social comparative factors such as uncertainty reduction, social explanation and motivation.

Therefore it is proposed that social identity theory provides a useful framework, albeit one which has been neglected within this field, to explain the development of volunteers’ attitudes.

### 2.5.1 Social Identity Theory and Behaviour

Social identity theory is usually used to explain the human social selves (Haslam et al., 2010). As Tajfel and Turner (1979) stated, this theory provides the basis for understanding intergroup behaviour in a legitimate and a permeable intergroup environment. This theory covers a continuum between interpersonal behaviour and group behaviour. However interpersonal behaviour is determined by an individual’s characteristics which are the main focus of our study. This theory really helps to know that social factors influence an individual’s behaviour. According to Tajfel
and Turner (1979: p. 40), “individuals strive to achieve or to maintain positive social identity” as it is assumed that individual achieve positive self-identity through intrinsic motivation. Therefore if a group or organization provides stable status relations then individuals will tend to engage in social creativity behaviours.

Hogg et al. (2000) mentioned that social psychology contradicts the individualistic and the interactionist approach to social cognition and behaviour, as it assumes that individuals are highly motivated to strive for positive self-concept. Thus social identity theory focused on settling the collectivist approach to social psychology of self and society. It has a strong explanatory power for predicting social behaviours in a specific social context. The same argument is asserted by Tajfel and Turner (1979: p. 48) who claim that “social identity theory [emphasises] the role of objective factors; in any particular situation the effects of [social identity theory] variables are powerfully determined by the previous social, economic and political processes”. Zomeren, Postmes, and Spears (2008) observed that social identity evokes group emotions during social processes. Thus social identity is an antecedent and social action a consequence of group emotions.

Peters and Kashima (2007) proposed that social interaction is an expression of emotions and shared feelings which sometimes cause individuals to take action for society. They develop a simple model which shows how emotions create a social action. Figure 2.1 shows that in a social setting both processes interact with each other for social action. The only difference is that individuals take social action when their emotions evoke identity, but in-group identity evokes emotion (Thomas et al., 2009).
Indeed, some of the literature on political activism and social movements can assist in explaining this link further. Kelly for instance (1993) explains that “Participation in collective action is a direct expression of social identity and means used to renew and make this identity positive” (Kelly, 1993: p. 76). According to Tajfel (1981) social identity sustains the self-identity. This self-identity is derived from group amplification behaviours such as gatherings, interactions and appraisals, etc. There has been a growing trend amongst studies exploring volunteerism, towards an individualistic approach derived from a greater collectivist attachment with the cause or organization (Eckstein, 2001; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000). Therefore, it is possible that some volunteers and supporters may never physically interact with the organization, but feel a strong psychological attachment to the identity (positioning) of the organization, i.e., the cause, that this attachment is enough to create a self-identity which transforms individuals into a core supporter of the organization. Yeung (2004) also suggests that volunteerism research now recognizes the sporadic nature of supporter behaviour, with fluctuations in emotional attachment driving the supporter identity, as well as a more cognitive
based one. So, in such situation the present research proposed that marketing may be the best possible solution to deal with volunteerism.

### 2.5.2 Social identity and Marketing

Social identity explains the “cognitive process that operates on social and non-social stimuli alike to highlight and bring into focus those aspects of experience which are subjectively meaningful in a particular context” (Hogg et al., 1995: p. 260). Social identity is context dependent and evoked through a stimulus which could contribute to making it salient. In some cases social identity derives through media projection, possession and commitment towards membership. Possession, social and media commitment act as antecedents for appraisal and involvement with the charity organization (Piliavin et al., 2002). Previous studies have advanced marketing as key stimulus that may play an effective role in social identity promotion.

According to the marketing literature, consumers like to be members of those social categories that are self-relevant and this association constitutes a consumer’s social identity. That could be a reason why consumers are generally attracted to those products that are relevant to their social identity (Forehand, Deshpande and Reed, 2002). In this way consumers can express and hold their social identity oriented beliefs (Shavitt, 1990; Smith, Bruner and White, 1956 and Katz, 1960). Social identity influences consumers’ response and behaviours towards advertising (Forehand and Despande, 2001; Grier and Despande, 2001). Undoubtedly all volunteers are also consumers, so the above description of consumer behaviour can be adopted for marketing’s application to volunteering behaviour.
Persuasive communications utilise actors that carry social identity cues and adopt the viewpoint of social identity shared by members to connect the psychological association between social identity and services. Such social identity-based positioning strategies are very effective and influential. Still, there is a need for more research on how social identity influences a person’s behaviour and attitude. Social identity influences one’s behaviour when it is accessible and “serves as a diagnostic cue, in an evaluation” (Reed and Forehead, 2002: p.4).

2.5.3 Social Identity Theory and its Conceptualization

It is true that we belong to many social groups and at a given or specific time not all memberships have the same meaning and formative behaviour. The salience of the situation is contextual and plays an important role in the cognitive foreground of that social identity (Cameron, 2004). Rosenberg (1979) suggested that identity has both cognitive and emotional components (Tajfel 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1978) and emotions play an important role in social identity theory. Specific emotions such as regret or happiness are derived from memberships that reflect the psychological ties of self with the group. Many researchers (e.g. Tajfel, 1978; Brown et al., 1986; Hinkle et al., 1989; Ellemers et al., 1999 and Jackson, 2002) highlight the cognitive and emotional aspects of identification and agree that social identity is multidimensional. According to Hinkle et al. (1989) identification has three basic components

1. Emotional and affective aspects of group membership
2. Affectively relevant factors that related to with individual needs and group dynamics
3. Cognitions such as perception and feeling of belongingness
He argued that no valid evidence has been found to separate the affective and cognitive facets of social identity. On the other hand Ellemers et al. (1999) demonstrated three factors of social identity: self-esteem, self-categorization and commitment. Jackson (2002) reported three factors of social identity, one cognitive element labelled as self-categorization and two emotional facets to evaluate the group and the perception of togetherness and solidarity which is explained by Hinkle et al. (1989) as a sense of belongingness. Consequently, there is theoretical, empirical and logical evidence of social identity’s multi-dimensionality (Ellemers et al., 1999; Hinkle et al., 1989; Jackson, 2000).

Different studies stated that social identity emerges from self-reports of participation (see Deaux, 1992a). Deaux et al. (1995) asserted that identities result from relationships which are more expressive, desirable, personal and central in self-definition than any other identities. However, some identities are differentiated on a personal basis (i.e. relationship identities) and some on a social basis (e.g. political and vocational identities); they are peripheral in nature. Usually the distinction is made on the basis of identities’ external orientation, enactment of social relationship with others and memberships. Behaviours and outcomes usually differ according to the individualistic and collective basis of identity. Collective identity is associated with group events and values, while individual identity centres on personal values. People’s self-esteem to protect their identity is dependent on identity type. So all identities are different from one another and generate different consequences. Social identity theory and empirical analysis explains variation in identity category and conceptualise a cognitive–affective pathway in the present research.

The work of Ellemers et al. (1999) provided more details about social identity, such as the affective component of identification: a major determinant of group
membership. Emotional attachment brings more affective commitment to the organization. Accordingly awareness of membership in an organization is a cognitive component of social identity and involvement is a more emotional component, therefore both needed to be considered. According to Lazarus (1991) appraisal is a cognitive activity and “it consists of a continuing evaluation of the significance of what is happening for one’s personal well-being” (ibid: p. 144). Therefore appraisal concerns are relevant to a person’s well-being. On the other hand, Frijda et al. (1989) supported the cognitive approach to emotions as there is a strong relationship between cognitive and emotional structure. Further, Frijda (1986) stated that emotions cannot be defined independently for any kind of activity, as emotions are elicited by a person’s cognitive appraisal in a specific situation.

Emotions are raised by cognitive appraisal of a person’s environment or situation; i.e., whether an event is appraised as beneficial or harmful could generate different emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Arnold, 1960). So cognitions may be a necessary cause but may not sufficient cause for emotion generation, even though it is an accepted argument that cognition can cause emotions. This argument helps to identify the antecedents of the emotions. Lazarus (1991) stated that situation appraisal is derived from both internal (beliefs and values) and external (responses from other people) conditions. Cognitive appraisals are directed to action tendencies and experience. Cognitive appraisal is “the subjective appraisal of the stimuli in the context of the individual’s needs and coping potential that determines the emotional responses” (Nyer, 1997: p. 297). There is a relationship among cognition, emotion and behaviour. So there is a need to explore the effect of cognitive on behaviour and the effect of emotions on behaviour. Furthermore the relationship between attitude and behaviour needs more explanation. The study of consequences of cognition and
emotion is useful for practical implications, as different emotions bring different action tendencies (Nyer, 1997).

Smith and Reynolds (2009) worked on the cognitive and affective pathway and how it measures the behavioural intentions towards the services. The literature contains both cognitive and affective aspects that explain how volunteers have been evaluated by other researchers. It tries to provide a clear picture of the relationship between cognitive and affective pathway and longevity turnover intentions. The duality of emotions and cognitive factors in explaining fear and guilt appeals originally stems from Leventhal’s (1970) parallel-response model. Indeed, Leventhal (1970) was the first to propose that emotional and cognitive pathways operate independently to mediate behaviour. The expectancy-valence model (Rogers, 1983) suggested that cognitive factors operate on the premise that recommended change in behaviour will be enacted. This research followed the same approach as Russell (1980) did in his ‘model of affect’ in that affect mediated the relationship among stimuli, the cognitive process and response behaviour. Similarly, Oliver and Westbrook (1993) demonstrated that emotional processes act as mediators among cognitive evaluations (e.g. perceived product performance and overall satisfaction). Consequently the present study is focused on cognitive and affective elements as antecedents of enhancing volunteerism, so the cognitive–affective model is adopted from the available models in the literature to explore the relationships among the construct that will explain volunteers’ attitude formation. However this cognitive–affective pathway is conceptualised as moral identity and moral emotions on the basis of social identity theory.
2.6 Conclusion

It is costly to recruit and train volunteers and high turnover adversely affects the organization stability and causes wastage of resources which could otherwise be used for social welfare. In high contact service organizations (as Barraza (2011) stated), it is worse as clients lose their connection and trust with volunteers. Therefore, social identity theory was introduced to find an appropriate solution to understanding volunteers’ behaviour. Using this theory, the present research will provide some basic knowledge to prolong volunteer’s experiences. The next chapter will provide the background and details of the constructs used in the present research for understanding the volunteering context.
Chapter 3-Moral Emotions and Moral Identity:

Conceptualization, Major Influences and Outcomes

3.1 Overview

The chapter seeks to conceptualize volunteer attitude development using moral identity and moral emotions as a base. Identity formation and emotional responses are conceptualized as central correlates for cognitive and affective components of attitude formation. Furthermore, it is conceptualized that this influence will operate through empathy, gratitude and identity salience as the most important mediators to volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions. However internal marketing is also conceptualized within the present research framework to highlight the importance and relevance of communication design aspects in the developmental pathway from identity and emotions to participation and intentions. This framework is the first such model to integrate a social identity theory perspective to understand pro-social attitude formation within a charity context.

3.2 Role of Moral Identity and Moral Emotions

“Identity formation can be a cognitive process that is understood through personal reflection and enactment with others” (Horrocks and Callahan, 2006: p.71). Emotions are part of social life and they influence both individual and society’s actions (Horrocks and Callahan, 2006). Emotions are a major participator in identity building and transformation by strengthening group trust, cohesion and cooperation (Brown and Gaertner, 2001). Collins (2001) referred to this transformation of
individual emotions into collective emotions that direct all energies to produce some action with reference to belonging through social identification.

This is since the recent literature (e.g. Reed et al., 2007) on pro-social attitude formation posits moral identity as a central, and yet overlooked concept which needs further and more sophisticated integration into the attitude development pathway. The role of moral emotions is used as a correlate for the affective components since moral emotions also appear to be central in harnessing pro-social or moral attitude formation and yet also appear to have been overlooked in the pro-social context (Tangeney et al., 2007). Moral identity and moral emotions are major drivers of pro-social attitude development and yet have never been modelled together. Emotions and identity are interdependent as sometimes identity evokes emotions and sometimes emotion evokes identity. In terms of this pathway between the two, we conceptualize identity evokes emotions; it will have an important effect on developing the desire to help charities and becoming more pro-social in terms of volunteering.

Every moment of life influences our roles and perceptions as social factors manipulate personal emotions during the socialization process. Identity is an ongoing process and emotions are like a ‘wisdom’ that gives meaning to the world around us. Reed et al. (2002 and 2007) found that moral identity is based on self-conception that is manipulated by situational factors. If situational factors boost self-concept of moral identity then people like to behave morally, but if situational factors undermine moral identity then it weakens people’s motivation to act morally (Karl et al., 2009). So identities are developed through interaction in which individuals feel confident and share their feelings and experiences formally.
3.3 Moral Identity

According to Reed et al (2007) moral identity is the mental representation (i.e. self-image) of a moral character. This definition is an adaptation of an earlier conceptualization of moral identity also proposed by Aquino and Reed (2002) in which they argued that consumers may have a cognitive scheme or the moral self which is structured revolving around a series of ‘moral trait associations’. These traits based associations imply a trait based conceptualization of moral identity (Brewer and Garder, 1996). Damon and Hart (1992) stated that

“There are both theoretical and empirical reasons to believe that the centrality of morality to self may be the single most powerful determinant of concordance between moral judgment and conduct….People whose self-concept is organized around their moral beliefs are highly likely to translate those beliefs into action consistently throughout their lives” (ibid: p.455).

It would appear therefore that psychologists and moral philosophers like Damon and Hart (1992) have traditionally viewed the connection between how a person perceives him or herself along a moral compass and actual behaviours which have a moral nature to them, like charitable giving or voluntary action, as central to understanding and conceptualizing moral identity. This link between moral judgment of the self and moral conduct is defined by moral identity. Blasi (1993) argued that moral identity is both the driver and outcome of a need for self-consistency between how a person perceives his or herself and how he or she behaves in the world. Markus and Kunda (1986) assert that multiple identities govern the typical consumer and that some of the identities are more important than others. However, Aquino and Reed (2002) argue that moral identity is particularly
salient when the regulation of judgments is upper most in the mind or more related to the consumer’s self-concept.

Usually moral identity is built through social interaction and the cognition process by organizing thoughts, action and behaviour according to moral traits; indeed each person has an ideal of how a moral person would feel, think and act. Self-importance of moral identity can be measured through self-concept of moral traits (as this research asked about moral traits in the questionnaire) to stimulate the moral behaviour (Kinhlstrom and Klein, 1994). Moral behaviour is social responsiveness to others’ needs (Gilligan, 1982). Therefore, as long as the person attempts to see the behaviour in terms of the prospective implications of moral characteristics linked to that social construction, it is hypothesized that the person has adopted moral identity as part of his or her social self-schema (cf. Reed, 2002). It is actually the person’s moral emotions, feelings and traits that evoke the self-concept and most research found that stimuli evoke social and moral identity saliently (Chatman and Von Hipple, 2001; Hong et al., 2000).

3.3.1 Aspects of Moral Identity

Moral identity is a regulatory force that persuades us to act morally because it is a self-concept of being recognised in society and behaves like other social contextual identities. Moral identity is a highly self-oriented identity that is influenced by individual perceptions, beliefs and behaviour (Cheryan and Bodenhausen, 2000); therefore, the degree of importance of moral identity affects an individual’s willingness to help others (Reed and Aquino, 2003). Moral identity is a commitment and compliance to help others and perform social services. It generates more participative motives that develop the relationship between “giver and receiver”. Moral identity is like a moral trait that has some theoretical properties.
However in sociology and psychology, identity is considered more a rational rather than an emotional dimension. Identity always swings between ‘structural’ and ‘imaginative’ poles where the structural pole is rational and the imaginative pole is narrative, and includes emotions, so identity is very vibrant, having both structural and narrative aspects (Horrocks and Callahan, 2006).

Reed, Aquino and Levy (2007) measured moral identity in two aspects. One is internalization, in which “moral traits are deeply rooted in their self-concept and” second is symbolization which “manifests moral traits publically through the person’s actions in the world” (ibid: p.181). Actually Reed et al.’s (2007) study indicated that people with high self-moral identity consider time giving is a more self-expressive and moral act then money giving. The self-importance of moral identity influences the self-reinforcing attributions of time or money giving and also the corporate moral activities. However self-importance of moral identity is not the only predictor of preferences for donation of time versus money. They concluded that charity organizations can influence the intentions to give time versus money giving through promoting the morally relevant aspects of helping. The value of time and money dedicated to cause oriented activity are equally valued. However, the person’s internal perception could affect preferences for giving time or money. Usually people whose self-conception is built round moral traits have a stronger feeling of morality and identity as Morales (2005) found that people have concerns about the cause and activity.

According to Reed et al. (2007) moral identity subsequently would activate time giving over money giving amongst moral identifiers. Such a case may be more logically framed when human tangible resources are needed, such as trained medical staff on the ground rather than pure benefit of money to the recipient. For instance
victims of a flood or an earthquake would need money for shelter and food. The importance of shelter and food for survival should be particularly emphasized in framing the need for help through internal communication. Reed et al. (2007: p. 190) also proposed that a recruitment drive could state “We need caring individuals like you to sign up today” or “You’ve got what it takes to be a good human being so please help save a life today” etc. Alternatively, showing other individuals displaying ‘moral’ helping behaviour might trigger an identity congruence effect (Shang et al., 2008) in which potential donors or volunteers seeing others display helping behaviour are triggered to do the same. Therefore charities are able to use moral primes to show how further helping behaviour could attenuate self-identity as moral or add to moral identity salience. Although Reed et al. (2005) do not explain the benefits of moral primes in terms of attenuating moral identity salience and Shang et al. (2008) refer to general identity congruence, not moral identity congruence, the inferences being made in this overview would appear logical; especially given the central role of identity salience in giving behaviour is important (see for example: Arnett and Hunt, 2003). Moral primes can also be used effectively for profit making organizations which can link or relate causes and transfer the moral identity of another charity onto them.

Indeed, moral identifiers were also found to relate more to general organizations that donate time rather than money, hence the popularity of the corporate socially responsible positioning strategies and growth of this sector. Montgomery and Ramus (2003) for instance found that MBA students are willing to accept lower salaries when working for companies with higher profiles of corporate social responsibility; i.e., a higher moral identity-based organizational level positioning appeals to higher individual moral identities, thus raising implications for employee recruitment and
retention as well as for volunteer management. If volunteers or campaigners, who logically would have higher moral identities than pure money givers and non-volunteers or campaigners, are bombarded with mail shots and requests for money, then the time dimension would become constrained and infringed.

3.3.2 Moral Identity and Behaviour

Few researchers have studied moral identity for its moral outcomes. As moral identity is a social cognitive structure of moral goals, values and behaviour, it influences both cognition and behaviour. It predicts moral judgement and moral behaviour in the applicable situations (Aquino and Reed, 2002; Aquino, Reed, Thau, Freeman, 2007; Reed and Aquino 2003; Reed et al., 2007). The moral self or schema is positively associated with moral and pro-social behaviour. If situational factors reduce the accessibility of moral identity within working self-concept then the motivation for pro-social behaviour is also reduced. “Similarly when a different facet of identity is accessible, people should be more motivated to behave in a manner that is consistent with the values and goals associated with that identity” (Aquino et al., 2009: p.125). Situational factors either increase or decrease the accessibility of moral self-schema and any single facet of identity. It is clear that one’s attitude helps to find others with whom he/she can share the attitude and identity; this connection enhances the identification with particular behaviours that represent the social identity (Shavitt, 1990). According to Blasi (1980, 1993, 2004) moral identity is a cognitive schema that a person has about his/her moral self. He also stated that a person with moral identity tries to avoid self-blaming and condemnation behaviour associated with his/her self-concept. In contrast a person with low moral identity does not feel much obligation and motivation to adhere to an appropriate behaviour or help others.
It makes sense, and was proposed by authors such as Hibbert et al. (2005), that volunteers also construct a self-identity that matches with the cause or organization they are supporting. Reed et al. (2005) specifically showed that those with a higher moral identity are more likely to support the particular cause or organization soliciting their support. Volunteers, therefore, find greater affiliation between the cause’s identity and their own or construct a self-identity which matches that of the soliciting organization or cause to justify support or develop their positive attitude towards compliance with requests for time or money.

It is important to note that social identity theory has been developed to emphasise the role that informal attachment or affiliation may play in constructing self-identities and thus the experience effect of volunteers seeking greater appraisal by social gatherings, through meetings with other volunteers, is relevant only when the behaviour of volunteerism has been established. However, the informal attachment also allows for justifying initial decisions and attitude development to support the cause without any physical interaction. It is possible that informal social identification then develops into a more formal identification, thus paralleling the ego altruistic drive for many donors and volunteers (Reed et al., 2005).

Overall, the work on moral identity has explored how it may determine time versus money orientations but beyond this the relationship of moral identity with variants or other related constructs remains unexplored. Indeed, how moral emotion is shaped by moral identity remains a vitally important area which is unexplored in the literature. Yet the scope for further investigation remains rich and critical for developing our understanding of how moral identity shapes and drives moral behaviour within the volunteering or donor contexts. This is since moral identity operating at the cognitive level would rarely operate alone or without conjunction
with an emotional counterpart or precursor. Many fundraisers recognize that much of charity and voluntary action is “driven from the heart or soul” and the emotional ingredients and moral trajectory of this drive have not been explored. It is clear from the literature that moral salience, in terms of identity, is critical in shaping moral judgments and behaviour. So it would be logical to propose that “moral emotions” have a role to play too in harnessing this link between judgment and behaviour or acting as a trigger or precursor. Furthermore, a breakdown of different forms of time based giving has not been explored in previous studies on volunteerism, which has focused on general voluntary action and has not differentiated any component forms of voluntary action.

3.4 Moral Emotions

Emotions are socially learned experiences and embedded in socialization that guides the behaviour according to cultural constructs of identity and morality. The concept of moral emotions was introduced to measure moral behaviour, as repeated emotions influence moral behaviour (Greene and Haidt, 2002). Haidt (2002) further explained that basic emotions are generated from general perception and experiences but moral emotions are complex as they respond in a specific direction. Callahan and McCollum (2002) referred to Hochschild’s (1983) description of emotions as ‘feelings’ and ‘disposition’; which are the result of ‘internal stimulation’ and expression of human thought.

Blasi (1999) identified how moral motivation generates moral emotions. He found that the moral emotions are motivated and regulated through an unconscious and unintentional process which is held either internally or externally. With regard to morality, moral actions are motivated by the moral reason and this action process
occurs consciously. For positive responses it is necessary to revise the meaning of morality, like an agency to guide and regulate moral emotions in the future.

Moral emotions are evoked through self-reflection and they are self-conscious emotions like pride, guilt and shame. These emotions are important for motivation and behavioural judgment. Empathy is the core of the human moral system as empathic reactions to others’ distress is a reflection of concern for others (Fesbach, 1975), which motivates people to help others (Batson 1991; Eisenberg and Miller, 1987) and inhibits aggressive behaviour towards others (Miller and Eisenberg, 1988). Moral emotions can induce moral behaviour as a volunteer. Eslinger (2003) mentioned that moral behaviour is the outcome of ‘altruistic’ and ‘pro-social’ behavioural intentions or sometimes ‘antisocial’ behaviour. Moral emotions operate when moral behaviour spontaneously reacts to any event. Gradually, the moral emotions concept has broadened beyond empathy and guilt and new dimensions of emotions, such as moral emotions were introduced. Some authors even claim that moral emotions are the basic trigger of moral reasoning (Haidt, 2001 and Wilson, 1993). Moral emotions motivate moral behaviour and create opposition to moral violations.

Emotions are of different types and many words are used to explain them, for example joy, disgust, rage or ecstasy tend to be synonyms of the same emotions of sad, cooperative, friendly, and surprised, but with different intensities. Therefore, emotion is a complex chain of events and it is difficult to measure each component separately. Nevertheless, any theoretical foundation that can help to clarify the context and enable types of emotions to be measured is valuable (Pluckik and Kellerman, 1989). However, to have an in depth understanding of emotions it is necessary to take personality traits, coping styles, behaviour and subjective states
into account. Situation is another important factor to understanding emotional responses that are adaptive to different situations. Situation evokes different emotions differently.

3.4.1 Categories of Moral Emotions

Haidt (2003) and Shweder (1994) contributed towards clarification and explanation of the emotional categories in terms of their families. The first large family is self-condemning, including contempt, anger and disgust, which have many other sub branches, e.g. indignation etc. The second family is self-conscious. This includes shame, embarrassment and guilt (Haidt, 1999). Self-conscious emotions lead to self-praising emotions. The third family is a small family that includes: suffering emotions, like empathy, sympathy and the fourth family includes praising emotions of gratitude and elevation (Haidt, 2003). Similarly McCullough et al. (2001) stated that positive moral emotions are produced as a result of good deeds and awe and elevation are triggered by human virtue. However, Western societies also consider gratitude and elevation as positive emotions (McCullough et al., 2001). Thomas et al. (2005) concluded that other-focused emotion such as sympathy is more appropriate to promote helping behaviour through a campaign, even in developing countries.

However, the debate on moral emotions is still continuing to get clarity about what the moral emotions because, in most of the literature any emotion can be regarded as moral emotion that make people care about others and , to support people’s needs. However Lazarus (1991) and Roseman (1991) divided moral emotions into four classes based on cause and action relationships as shown in Figure 3.1.
Thus this set of moral emotions provides useful feedback to the self for anticipatory behaviour or actual behaviour in the form of consequential emotional reactions. The feedback loop is important to engage, direct and devise on moral behaviours. Anticipation of people’s emotional response is determined only through people’s past experiences or response to similar behaviours. Emotions and moral emotions such as guilt, embarrassment or pride are situation dependent.

Weiner (1985) explained that emotions are of two different types in terms of their occupation. One is outcome dependent and other is attribution dependent. Emotions like anger and happiness function as an outcome of peoples’ experience. In the case of a positive outcome, people feel happy; while negative outcomes make people feel unhappy or angry. Attribution dependent emotions come from people’s ascription about the causes they relate to favourable or unfavourable circumstances. For
example, gratitude is an attribution dependent emotion that derives from attribution of favourable circumstances to the actions of oneself or of another person.

An emotional state of a person leads to a motivational and cognitive state for goal oriented actions (Frijda, 1986). That is why Haidt (2003) explained the two dimensional (X-axis and Y-axis) view of emotions. The x-axis represents emotions triggered by situational factors, and which do not have much effect on the self. Emotions at the y-axis are relevant in generation of pro-social action as displayed in Figure 3.2. This is not a perfect arrangement as there could be other possibilities. However all emotions have a tendency to convert into moral emotion to a greater or lesser degree.

![Figure 3.2: Types of Moral Emotions](image)

Source: Haidt (2003: p. 854)

3.4.1.1 Positive and Negative Moral Emotions

Most recently, Tangney et al. (2007) categorized moral emotions into two types; negatively valanced and positively valanced moral emotions. Negatively valanced
moral emotions include shame, guilt and embarrassment and positively valanced moral emotions include elevation, gratitude and pride. Similarly Byron (2008) mentioned that many researchers classified emotions according to their valence, i.e. positive (happiness and joy) and negative (anger and disgust) or neutral (absence of positive and negative emotions), while a few researchers differentiated emotions on the basis of their intensity (perceived strength of emotion) (Byron, 2008).

Haidt (2000, 2003) also considered positive emotions, such as elevation and gratitude. According to him an experience or even observation of gratitude through admiration of others’ deeds stimulates the observer to choose admirable deeds, e.g. helping others. In addition to Haidt’s (2000, 2003) view of emotions, Tangeney et al. (2007) suggested empathy to be a ‘morally relevant emotional process’ as opposed to an actual moral emotion. This study does not focus on all types of emotions as antecedents of helping behaviour. It is focused on key emotions that are important in a pro-social behaviour context and in a charity organization perspective. According to the purpose of this study two categories of emotions are highly relevant, one is positive moral emotions and the second is negative moral emotions. Both can help to recognise the reasons for volunteering/action and how to make the outcomes consistent.

Positive and negative emotions are different from each other. Negative emotions persuade towards corrective procedures while positive emotions arise in fair conduct and motivate consistency of behaviour. They encourage continuing practice of skills and improving relationships (Fredrickson, 1998). According to Lazarus (1991) coping strategies could mediate the severity of negative emotions by engaging the viewer in counter action. Negative emotional states and engagement in the pro-social action as a remedial or corrective measure usually reduce emotional
incongruence. Bekkers and Wiepking (2007) explained that donor’s behaviour is a result of an impulsive action to avoid guilt and attain a positive image. It is noticed that in charity campaigns moral emotional appeals are usually applied; either positive or negative and even sometimes both. These appeals stimulate the giving behaviour through arousing either love and affection or shame and guilt feelings (Harris and Harris, 1977; Bekkers and Wiepking, 2007). Not much research is founded on the effectiveness of moral emotions that stimulate the helping behaviour and charitable motives.

Positively valanced moral emotions such as moral pride may also have a role to play in attitude development within the pro-social and volunteering context. As McCullough et al. (2001) explained pride is a positive emotion that results from good deeds and self-competence. Indeed Mascolo and Fischer (1995) defined pride as “generated by appraisals that one is responsible for a socially valued outcome or for being a socially valued person” (p. 66). Pride operates by enhancing one’s self-worth or identity and encouraging future behaviour with high social or moral standards (Barrett, 1995). Feelings of pride, for meeting or exceeding morally relevant standards for instance of helping behaviour, are common in pro-social contexts. For instance it is possible that helping behaviour may be the focus of pride for some people but in others who have experienced helping people, it may become pride in them (Tangney, 1990).

With the growth of the positive psychology movement and Haidt’s (2002, 2003) seminal work on other orientated moral emotions, a number of “newer” moral emotions are being investigated in the literature relative to the traditional self-conscious, inner-directed and often negatively valanced moral emotions of shame and guilt. Such emotions also include anger, contempt and disgust.
Guilt is aroused by communal relationship with an object (Baumeister et al. 1994; Tangney, 1991), and due to violation of standards that can harm others. It affects more if the person who suffers is known rather than a stranger (Baumeister et al., 1994). It motivates to help the victim and manage the relationship properly. This emotion strengthens the morality and values in one’s core self and creates tendencies to avoid violations. It guides daily life behaviour and help to manage relations with others properly. Guilt is activated in the course of failure or to do one’s duty or to meet the standards, which causes a sense of regret, tension and anxiety. It is a negative emotion in which a person feels responsible for failure (Weiner, 1985; Smith and Ellsworth, 1885). Tangney and Dearing (2002) explained that guilt is not self-focused but rather a self-conscious emotion that concerns what has or has not been done. So the experience of guilt leads to negative evaluation of self in response to a negative incident.

Guilt appeals within social marketing have used a self-esteem ‘formula’ to encourage pro-social behaviour which if enacted should enhance self-esteem or maintain pre-advert exposure levels. A guilt appeal presents a social problem that an audience is vulnerable to; to arouse a sense of personal responsibility, and a “safety” condition that provides a solution (often presented as “neutralising”) that is “easy to execute” (Ruiter et al., 2001: p. 614) such as the decision to support the charity or making a donation through a telephone line (Donovan and Henley, 1997; LaTour and Rotfeld, 1997). Guilt appeals have been found to have the desired effect. There is also greater acceptance that guilt appeals are becoming more effective and more congruent to the needs of social marketing audiences. Almost the same concept can be adopted for internal marketing application to make internal communication more effective for volunteers.
Lewis (1971) further elaborated on this distinction, by suggesting that global evaluation of the self is critical whereas guilt involves a negative appraisal of a negative situation or behaviour. It is surprising that sometimes negative emotions bring positive outcomes; for example guilt has the potential to generate a positive response as an amendment or commitment (Soscia, 2007). Thomas (2005) argued that emotions affect volunteerism, but this is not the case for all of them; for example guilt is self-focused and provides limited motivation for volunteerism. So self-focused emotions have limited potential to influence volunteerism. On the contrary Leach et al. (2002) suggested that the emotions focus on the needs of others provides better motivation for volunteering than self-focused emotions.

3.4.2 Moral Emotions and Behaviour
The concept of moral emotions is introduced to measure moral behaviour as repeated emotions influence moral behaviour (Greene and Haidt, 2002). Kroll and Egan (2004) inferred them to be those forces (power and energy) that drive one to do good or bad. Emotions are significant to give power to act and expressed in thoughts. Duffy (1941) pointed out that no activity could be done without motivation and all behaviours are motivated. According to her, emotions are by nature ‘hypothetical inverted’ and give stimulation to act. Tangeney et al. (2007) proposed that moral emotions may be the glue that joins moral intentions to moral behaviour and thus mediate the development of moral intentions to behaviour. This being the case, it is imperative to investigate the role of moral emotions in determining pro-social behaviour. However, moral emotions have been overlooked in the general social psychology literature, let alone explored within a marketing context to understand what is a dual marketing-social psychology phenomenon.
There are countless variations and combinations of behaviours that may define a morally acceptable life. Each individual’s moral life is influenced uniquely by its own set of moral behaviours. There are numerous explanations for the gap between behavioural decision making or intentions and actual behaviour within moral and non-moral contexts. Frijda (1994) stated that emotions are intentional and usually precipitated by a stimulus that could be either a person or event. On the other hand Buck (1984) pointed out that emotions provide information and reasons about the environment and others in organizations. They are important in developing relationships and group identity as they guide behaviour. Therefore, it is necessary to accurately communicate the emotions, as they affect relationship building. However, Fineman (2000: p.19) mentioned that an organization’s emotions are “focused on affective states such as stress, satisfaction or boredom, or just positive or negative feelings”.

3.4.3 Role of Moral Emotions in Organizations

Emotions in organizations is a relatively new concept but growing very rapidly. Even though there are many organizational actors that are emotional in nature, the reason for the late introduction of emotions in organizations or lack of emotional vocabulary was that research considered emotions as a counter to rationality (Kangasharju and Nikko, 2009). So the potential for study of emotions in organizations was over looked for years (Ashforth and Humphery, 1995). Currently, the situation has changed and many researchers of organizations and communication realised that emotions play an important role in organizations. Further, emotions and rationality are not antitheses (Ashforth and Humphery, 1995; Fineman, 2000: p.10-12; Madlock, 2008). Hence, the study of these emotions in an organization context
has been carried out by applied psychologists, sociologist and within the management and business communication literature (Fineman, 2000).

Bagozzi et al. (1999) stated that in the relationship between employees (volunteers) and organization, emotions towards the organization play a major role, as emotions are a “mental state of readiness in response to a specific referent” (ibid: p. 185). Consequently if an employee is happy he/she will stick to the organization and provide positive word of mouth but if he/she feels negative about the organization then he/she does not like to go back to this organization and will provide negative word of mouth. Likewise Sargeant et al. (2006) focused on emotional utility in a charity organization context, which influences commitment and charitable giving. Sometimes volunteers feel so much attachment that they feel guilty if they do not or are unable to help that organization. Here the question is how can charity organizations nurture good relationships with volunteers?

From the perspective of social identity theory, Reed and Forehead (2002) described the relationship by clarifying that as “a bunch of individuals is not a group unless they are bound by some shared understanding of themselves as belonging to that group” (Reed and Forehead, 2002: p.46). According to Haslam (2005), this social group membership affects people’s emotions, beliefs and behaviours. If people perceive their social identity in terms of volunteerism and other pro-social activities they are highly motivated to help, so people who identify themselves as members of a social group, charity or cause and movement are more committed to volunteerism and tend to be more moral in their values.

Merchant, Ford and Sargeant (2010b) described that any interaction between donors/volunteers and a charitable organization can evoke emotions that can shape actions and behaviour. According to Bagozzi et al. (1999), individuals like to re-
experience a positive feeling, which is why they will tend to repeat those actions which lead them towards happiness and positive emotions, but on the other hand if they face negative feelings then they tend to change their actions and behaviour to avoid negative emotions of sadness and irritation. Subsequently they found that acknowledgment strengthens the relationship between a non-profit charity organization and volunteers, especially those that contribute less or less frequently ones. Such a response causes high levels of commitment and contribution with emotional utility in the future among those who receive acknowledgement compare to those who do not. The reason is that acknowledgement also decreases the chances of evocations of negative emotions and increases positive emotions expressed by volunteers.

Bagozzi (1995) emphasised the need to examine interpersonal emotions and social influences. Pervan et al. (2011) suggested that there is still a gap in the literature to investigate the means for achieving social well-being in relationship marketing. The understanding of these means can help to design effective mechanisms for developing motivation for new and existing relationships. This research does so by looking into the current scenario of reciprocal exchange behaviour to determine the relational perspective to develop long term relationships and how to proceed if one party is not consistent in reciprocal behaviour, e.g. if a charity is not responding well to volunteers or volunteers to the charity. However, application of internal marketing may help to deal with such situations. Behaviour cannot be controlled but can changed or influenced; therefore knowledge of the antecedents that influence behaviour is highly valuable (Soscia, 2007).
3.5 Role of Internal Marketing

Christopher et al. (1991) indicated that relationship marketing and internal marketing are intertwined and merged due to changes in the environment, the nature of competition, high growth in customers’ needs and saturated markets. So this connection helps to match the changing business environment and customer needs. It is concluded that internal marketing is a major contributor in relationship marketing development. Initially, internal marketing was applied in manufacturing companies for better operation management and defined as “the promotion of the firm and its product(s) or product lines to the firm’s employees” (Green et al., 1994: p. 5). In this context “internal marketing is viewing employees as internal customers, viewing jobs as internal products and (just as with external marketing) endeavouring to design these products to meet the needs of these customers better” (Greene et al., 1994: p.08). In service oriented organizations internal marketing is a very important element to provide superior services to customers and for the success of external marketing. Marketing is not only a tool to sell products and ideas but also a tool of education and motivation. There is a possibility that effective internal marketing can bring positive results for external marketing. Therefore, the credibility of external marketing can be lent to internal promotion strategy (Greene et al., 1994).

In the past, most studies (Ahmad et al., 2003; Davis, 2001) focused on internal marketing in commercial organizations and concluded that internal marketing is very effective for increasing organization satisfaction and commitment which increases the retention rate and reduces the turnover rate among employees because it provides motivation for work and improves overall performance. Actually internal marketing is the task of successfully training and motivating the employees to serve
the customers (Kotler, 1991). Historically, internal marketing applications in charity organizations were not focused on these areas even though it can help to manage the internal relationships of charity organizations with their volunteers. However, Bennet and Barkasjo (2005) studied internal marketing as an antecedent of volunteers’ organization commitment. Similarly, Tsai and Wu (2011) studied how internal marketing contributes to organizational management through training and communication of organization perspective, improving employee service and satisfaction with work. They noted that “internal marketing is positively related to organization commitment” (Tsai and Wu, 2011: p.02). Internal marketing could meet employees’ needs Tansuhaj et al. (1991); create organizational commitment, work motivation, job satisfaction and positive employee attitudes (Tsai and Wu, 2011).

Hunt and Morgan (1994) emphasised the importance of individual communication to respond to a person’s individually and provide them with appropriate motivation. This communication may help to understand the volunteer’s needs and motivation in relationships and how relationships can be achieved. According to S-DL, communication plays an important role in influencing people’s behaviour and actions however it delivers a particular perspective of phenomena to people (Lusch and Vargo, 2012). Communication is a way to share the information so the interaction between employees and managers can improve the work environment (Lusch et al. 2007). These arguments are aligned with the internal marketing implications that are explained by many researchers (i.e., Money and Foreman, 1995; Conduit and Mavondo, 2001; Ahmad et al. 2003).

This research will provide an extension of internal marketing and relationship marketing studies. There is an opportunity to develop a model to look into the
effects of outcomes such as volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions. The basic ingredients of the present research are communication, meeting volunteer needs, increasing loyalty, building commitment, maintaining and developing relationships. One thing that needs to be ensured in charity organizations is that marketing reaches all volunteers, not only a few volunteers, otherwise it will cause confusion. It will be valuable to have a special campaign programme to create awareness about the importance of the organization’s internal marketing activities, because these are ignored by some volunteers.

The effects of internal marketing are also studied in the present research: to add further insights into how internal marketing design aspects may also have a role to play in harnessing the attitude development pathway from moral emotions and moral identity through empathy towards desired outcomes. Internal marketing is developed to widen its versatility and used as one potential antecedent. It is expected that this construct would be developed from the literature as these reviews would be robust enough to generalize the views for any internal communication, given the large scale nature of charities.

It is likely therefore that volunteers who have a higher moral identity or more moral emotions, which predispose to internal marketing, will have greater impact on contributions. Interestingly internal marketing provides a useful communication based construct to assess organization performance in general or their perceptions of internal marketing. Also it is possible that internal marketing will harness the link from moral identity and moral emotions to empathy, identity salience and gratitude as these constructs involve the cognitive-affect based concerns and internal marketing may influence their link more effectively.
3.5.1 Marketing (Internal Marketing) and Moral Identity

Charity organizations have started using integrated marketing techniques but still they prefer to use direct marketing of which internal communication is an emerging form (Docherty and Sally, 2003). West (2004) concluded that communication about the self-identity is a major source of good response and it also influences marketing and managerial implications. The most effective appeals for donors are those which appear more altruistic (West, 2004). Further, other appeals like egoistic and self-interest uniformly influence donors. According to Aaker et al. (2009), effectiveness of communication comes from the words used for it. They found through experiment that words influence people’s behaviour to donate and meet their motives. For example a social identity can be evoked by words “how interested are you in joining others working for hope Lab? and how interested are you on joining others donating to hope Lab?” (Aaker et al., 2009: p.269). In ‘joining others’ the social context is highlighted, and evokes social identity and relationship with others. That is why it is necessary to use appropriate words for communication. However, it is not easy to answer the questions to what extent the emotional meaning of giving contributes to one’s identity establishment. For example if a person asked to give their time, it usually cues caring and other-oriented identity that becomes identity-congruent actions, but it is different if a person is asked for money, which cues transactional, self-focused identity and leads to identity-congruent actions (Aaker and Akutsu, 2009). However, it is difficult for an organization to judge one’s moral identity, but they can try to promote moral identity in their campaigns (Reed et al., 2007).

Therefore to design the appropriate marketing mix for charities it is necessary to focus not only on the needy or victims but also on the volunteers’ contribution.
According to Forehand et al. (2002) and Grier and Deshpande (2001) promotion and persuasion can influence the individual’s identity. So charities try to influence volunteers’ salient identity through the media and campaigns, because no one can change the volunteers’ identity. That is why this research looks into how self-benefits which are altruistic in nature such as moral identity and moral emotions, can be demonstrated by internal marketing campaigns to promote volunteerism.

3.5.2 Marketing (Internal Marketing) and Moral Emotions

All emotions have potential to persuade an individual toward pro-social action. Some of them have more potential to generate helping behaviour, as the above literature states. This study is more interested in those moral emotions that can be demonstrated through charities’ internal marketing, because volunteers may have desire to feel these emotions and associate their past experience of these emotions with what is communicated by charity campaigns. Various emotional responses including anxiety, guilt, shame, anger, sadness or fear could arise from negative appraisals of social messages. There is need to focus on the positive emotional responses along with negative emotions. Therefore this research looked into volunteers’ positive and negative moral emotions towards charity such as happiness, pride, sadness and guilt.

Radly and Kennedy (1995) identified that the success of an organization depends upon the communication, but the key issue is about ‘getting the word out’ to the right people. It is good to avoid sales tactics but be specific because any improvement in communication can help the charity organizations to meet its objectives. Moral emotions are a major persuasive force towards taking an action for the alleviation of negative emotions and for the enhancement of positive emotions. As Hoffman (1981) stated, guilt causes sadness and stress from knowing people are
in misery or in urgent need, which is why people help others to alleviate their feeling of guilt. According to Arnett, German and Hunt (2003) positive emotions increase the practice and expression of values and beliefs, e.g. some people feel proud to help others in need and this gives them an expression of their values and beliefs. Batson (1987, 1990) suggested that empathy based helping alleviates negative emotions and pursues positive emotions in relation to appeals’ beneficiaries and emotional valence. Negative emotions have a more simulating effect on people in comparison to positive emotions. However, not all feelings and emotions necessarily are conducive to action such as charitable giving.

3.5.3 Internal marketing and Volunteerism

In this commercial era, charities need to have relationships with volunteers to succeed. Burrent (1992: p.48) defined the fundraising relationship as “an approach to the marketing of a cause which centres not around raising money but on developing to its full potential the unique and special relationship that exists between a charity and its supporters”. The question is how to build and achieve such a relationship with volunteers.

Given the abundance of charity organizations, volunteers would like to work or continue their work if they are satisfied with the management and communication they receive from charity organization. Organizations should support employees in the process of becoming competent through training and educational programs (Lusch et al. 2007). Indeed, S-DL supports the marketing in services organization because services are interactive and relational and have network orientation. S-DL is dynamic and participatory and supports the learning of both employees and organizations (in current context: volunteers and charities) so that both meet their aims (Vargo and Lusch, 2008b). So the service-centred view, or S-DL, that is
explained by Vargo and Lusch (2004), can be adopted by charities in their marketing to motivate the volunteers. This view can be described as following:

- Development of core competences i.e. knowledge and skills.
- Establishment of relationships with volunteers to meet specific needs in developing in the values.
- Gathering the volunteers’ feedback to improve the charity’s performance and services to beneficiaries.

It is important for charity organizations to understand why, when, how and where people go to volunteer in order to construct effective strategies for marketing. There is a debate as to whether people engage in charity for altruistic reasons or to fulfil egoistic needs (Balson et al., 1989; Cialdini et al., 1987) and this is still not settled. Even though someone does volunteering for altruistic reasons, it may also bring rewards and recognition. Additional research is required to know why people volunteer in the first place and what increases their participation over time.

Bennet and Kottasz (2000) studied responses to volunteer recruitment advertisements and found that apart from altruistic motives, self-benefit appeals are more effective than altruistic appeals. It is a good strategy to provide career orientation, rewards and professional development and social impact in internal communication for volunteering. So if a volunteering appeal provides multiple advantages of time and effort in voluntary work, it will be successful. Thus it is concluded that such practices could improve recruitment and retention of volunteers. Rewards, recognition and relationships among managers and volunteers affect volunteer participation and commitment to the task (Karl et al., 2008). Most importantly these factors should not only be projected through advertisements, but can be easily adopted into charities internal marketing. However, an on-going
internal marketing process is required to make relationship marketing successful (Gronroos, 1991).

The appropriate level of communication between volunteers and the organization is required by means of internal marketing for volunteer stability and retention in a competitive market. Such communication is important because the main target of the organization is volunteers and donors, as they are the sources of resources for charity operations (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997). If there is a communication gap between volunteers and the charity, then it produces a gap between volunteers’ expectations and experience. Here internal marketing plays a role in satisfying volunteers’ need for information (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997). Further the separation of resource allocation and attraction causes a lot of uncertainty and ambiguity for volunteer managers, which is why relationship building through internal marketing is a major focus of this research, as internally focused marketing may be a good technique to handle this issue.

Future research is needed to know “how managers of [a charity can be] convinced of the appropriateness of embracing internal marketing as a pragmatic business philosophy when the number of [charities] with a strong marketing orientation is minimal at best” (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997: p. 40). Therefore the coming sections deal with the inclusion of emotional experiences and their influences as mediators on volunteers’ participation and intentions for a charity organization.

3.6 Empathy

Linking the aforementioned moral emotions and moral identity to the actual level of support or intentions for support may be a positive emotional support process. One emotion that has been referred to in the only study done on the effect of anti-child
abuse advertisements has been empathy. Empathy is not an isolated or discrete emotion, but rather an emotional process or experience or set of emotional reactions. Feshbach (1975) suggests that three components are essential: (a) the cognitive capacity to adopt another’s perspective (b) the cognitive capacity to accurately predict another’s affective experience and (c) the affective capacity to experience a range of emotions to cater for the other’s emotional experience. Coke et al. (1978) propose two stages; one that involves perspective taking and is more cognitive in nature, often coined the cognitive empathy stage, which facilitates the development of an empathetic concern or an affective desire to help which subsequently leads to actual or desired help. Sympathy, on the other hand, is a feeling of concern for another without matching the emotional experience of the other. Other-orientated empathy can also be differentiated from self-orientated empathy; the latter is not thought to have a positive effect on helping behaviour but other-orientated empathy is thought to have a positive and important predictive quality to helping behaviour (Batson et al., 1988).

Lazarus (1991, p.287) argued that “empathy should be regarded as an emotional capacity and a process”. Empathy is “sharing another’s feeling by placing oneself psychologically in that person’s circumstances” (ibid). Thus it is not simply an emotion. Wispe (1986: p.318) defines empathy as “the attempt by one self-aware to comprehend non-judgementally the positive and negative experiences of another self”. In other words it is related to sympathy, “the heightened awareness of the suffering of another person as something to be alleviated” (ibid). Empathy, however, is a broader concept than sympathy. For example according to Bagozzi (1992) empathy is like a self-regulation process which heightens the awareness about another person who is in danger and creates an urge to help him. Personal
dispositions, time, identification and cause involvement are all determinants of the level of participation (Gomes and Gunderson, 2003).

Empathy is an important component in business for relationship management, as it helps to take other’s prospective. This helps to understand the other party’s goals and expectations (Greenberg and Greenberg, 1983). Berry et al. (1993) applied this concept in service marketing and Smith and Johnson (1993) considered it in networking relationship between two parties. It is desirable to foster empathy for others, such as towards a charity, since (a) empathic reactions to others lead to concern for others (Feshbach, 1975), (b) such concern may then be manifested in helping or pro-social behaviour to alleviate the distressed individual (Batson, 1991; Eisenberg and Miller 1987; Feshbach, 1987) and (c) empathy can also inhibit feelings of aggression and other harmful behaviours towards the distressed group (Feshbach and Feshbach, 1969; Miller and Eisenberg, 1988). Thus, it would appear that empathy generation would be a desired output from managing moral emotions and moral identity within internal communication.

3.6.1 Empathy and its Dimensions

Dimensions of empathy have a significant effect on donation, generosity and charity behaviour. In personal behaviour empathy is studied multidimensionality in cognitive and emotional (affective) terms. Verhaert and Poel (2011) focused on empathy’s concern in relation to charitable behaviour. Verhaert and Poel (2011) examined how the psychological aspects and measures of empathy influence charitable giving. They measure empathy as empathic concern and personality traits with other traditional predictors (Verhaert and Poel, 2011). Basically they are interested to explore the role of empathy in helping behaviours. They also studied empathy as a personality trait in interpersonal reactivity with its effective
dimensions (Verhaert and Poel, 2011). According to Davis (1994), empathy is oriented to others and an expression of sympathy and compassion to help those who are distress. Many studies measure empathy through self-administered questionnaires as used to investigate volunteering and helping behaviour. They actually measured empathy and its contributions in donating behaviour (Verhaert and Poel, 2011). However, Griffin et al. (1993) argued that empathy is not a personality trait, but rather a mental state, so personal distress is not very relevant to charitable behavioural intentions. Psychological aspects (i.e. emotions, intentions), intentions and socio-demographics are all important for charitable giving. Verhaert and Poel (2011) concluded that empathy concerns have a positive influence on charitable behaviour by increasing the tendency to help others in need such as by donation to different charities.

To clarify why empathy is used in this research, rather than sympathy, the Figure 3.3 below explains the differences between sympathy and empathy (Escales and Stern, 2003: p.568).

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<td>Control</td>
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<td>Self-other differentiation</td>
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<td>Self-other orientation</td>
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<td>Relation to other</td>
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<td>Opposite</td>
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<td>Attitudinal effects</td>
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Source: Escales and Stern (2003: p.568)
Escales and Stern (2003) explained that, “empathy is conceived of as an antecedent of absorption or immersion likely to engender more positive attitudes than sympathy a more self-aware preliminary state” (ibid: p.569). They pointed out that empathy is a person’s absorption of another’s feelings, while Eisenberg and Strayer (1987) stated that empathy is an emotional state that is congruent to another person’s emotional condition.

Empathy plays not only a motivational but also an informational role like other emotions, but its distinct feature is that it drives the motivation to meet others’ needs. Moreover it indicates the level of concerns a person has about another person’s needs (Batson et al., 1995). Emotions tell about a person’s goals and values and his/her standing in relation to those goals and values, so emotion is a goal-oriented activity (Batson et al., 1995).

3.6.2 Empathy and Participation

Batson et al. (1995) mentioned that empathy increases when participants learn about others’ needs. So the increase in empathy and helping is a function of valuing others’ needs and welfare. It is raised when another person’s need is valued and that person is really “perceived to be in need” (Batson et al., 1995: p.310). They emphasized the link between empathy and valuing others’ welfare, which can be inferred from the empathic joy experienced when that person gets relief. So “valuing other’s welfare should provide a dispositional bridge, providing effects of a context-specific and time-bound empathic emotion” (Batson et al., 1995: p.311) which is important to consider for the volunteer’s participation. Empathy is a motivational function and a most authentic one. An empathic joy is about the pursuit of a positive emotional state, rather than a negative emotional state, however overall this empathic joy is more motivating for helping others (Radly and Kennedy, 1995; Batson et al. 1995).
3.6.3 Empathy and Marketing

Empathy is a strong driver that makes an individual compassionate towards others. Verhaert and Poel (2011) evaluated mail campaigns directed toward donors, focusing on empathic concerns and personal distress felt by the people from such campaigns who had not contributed before (Verhaert and Poel, 2011). But they did not measure the increase in donation behaviour caused by empathy. It is highly worthwhile to consider personality characteristics for strategies to target volunteers. The empathic concerns are also linked to development of future intentions to donate. People with positive future intentions are more responsive to charity. However, “if charities want to maximize the size of the donation, they should target donors with lower empathic concern or personal distress scores” (Verhaert and Poel, 2011: p. 1294). This argument is applicable to the volunteering context as well, that is examined in the present research.

It is concluded that effective marketing strategies can improve the donation and volunteering perspective of charity. However empathy is not the only means to promote charitable behaviour, other emotions also play an important, depending upon how strong are the elicitors and pro-social action tendencies (Haidt et al., 2002). As Sargeant et al. (2006) highlighted the values of personality measures in predicting charitable behaviour and suggested that further research is required to investigate other personality traits and perceptions.

3.7 Gratitude

Gratitude is an emerging social phenomenon as it is shaped or influenced by social structures. It is difficult to decide whether gratitude is a sociological or psychological phenomenon. Gratitude has both affective and behavioural aspects as
gratitude mediates the relationships between relationship marketing behaviour and outcomes. The feeling of gratitude depends upon the nature of benefit the recipients received (Morales, 2005). Gratitude comes from social interaction and provides the emotional basis of reciprocal behaviour as an obligation (Gouldner, 1960).

However, people who feel more grateful usually have a strong feeling to be loved or cared for by others. Gratitude has dual characteristics: it is a motivator for moral behaviour and also a response to moral behaviour. For example the beneficiaries feel grateful when a benefactor contributes towards their well-being. So in response, beneficiaries also behave in such way as to promote the well-being of others as they are grateful. So “expressing gratitude to one’s benefactors stimulates the benefactors to behave in the future” (McCullough et al., 2001: p. 250).

In contrast people feel grateful when they are recognized for positive outcomes and success publicly. Thus positive outcomes, such as pride are attributed to the self rather than to individuals or circumstances (Bagozzi, 1999). For example (Weiner, 1985: p.561) suggests at “restaurants everyone enjoys the meal, but only the cook of the meal will feel pride in achieving that goal and get credit for this”. People’s gratitude brings well-being of benefactors and promotes pro-social action (Fredrickson 2004). Morales (2005) noted that gratitude influences a person’s willingness to contribute for benefactors.

3.7.1 Gratitude and its Influences

In most psychological and sociological research on personality and emotions, gratitude is considered as an important ambivalent and sometimes archetypal emotion. Shell and Esienterg (1992) studied gratitude as an ‘affective’ response to being helped by others. Palmatier et al. (2009) suggested that gratitude is an
emotional appreciation for the benefit received that has a strong connection with reciprocation (a particular behaviour that is important in relationship marketing). Gratitude helps to maintain the pro-social orientation but failure to adopt adequate reciprocal behaviour causes guilt. In contrast the affective aspect of gratitude creates pressure to return the favour.

Gratitude might be a pro-social affect; it responds to those behaviours of others that bring welfare in one’s life (McCullough et al., 2001). Gratitude reflects the concern and sensibility towards people due to its pro-social disposition. McCullough et al. (2001) found that grateful dispositions are positively correlated with empathy, especially in case of self-report and informant methods. Furthermore, measures of gratitude are positively correlated with participation and pro-social behaviour (McCullough, Emmons and Tsang, 2002). So it is concluded that participants who considered themselves more grateful were reported to be more pro-social in their behaviour (e.g. providing favours) as compared to less grateful people and overall they have more pro-social traits (McCullough et al., 2002).

McCullough et al. (2002) explained that people who rated themselves or were rated by others as high in grateful disposition have pro-social characteristics. Such characteristics (as also mentioned in the questionnaire) guide people’s empathic responses and provide more concrete and emotional support to their peers. Such people are more focused on contributions rather that the outcomes with other people. Usually they do not have materialistic goals and overall they are positive minded people. McCullough et al. (2001) found a correlation between gratitude and pro-social behaviour. Fredrickson (2004) indicated that gratitude persuades people to share their positive experience with others, which produces positive word of mouth. This situation also applies to pride. McCullough et al. (2001) proposed that more
research is needed on gratitude and its role in motivating reciprocity and the relationship between gratitude and well-being. They suggested that this is because gratitude performs a unique function in terms of reciprocal and pro-social behaviour. McCullough, et al. (2002) also emphasised that future research is needed to expand the understanding of gratitude and its impact on individual and interpersonal functioning.

3.7.2 Gratitude and its Dimensions

Gratitude is highly dependent upon social cognition. It is different from other motivators that mediate the same relationship between benefactors’ pro-social behaviour and beneficiary’s reciprocity behaviour. Expression of gratitude is highly reinforcing to engagement in pro-social behaviour. McCullough et al. (2001) supposed that gratitude is positively related to moral traits such as empathy and perspective taking. There is a possibility that people express gratitude more publicly than privately because in public people (e.g. volunteers) might be able to get better standing as benefactors. Feelings of gratitude are expressed when people “perceive themselves to be the recipient of an intentional rendered benefit” (Emmons, 2004: p.9). The behavioural aspect of gratitude refers to actual giving of the act for favour. This action produces cycle of reciprocity between giving and counter giving that leads to a long term relationship (Emmons, 2004). The affect of gratitude refers to gratefulness for benefit received. Therefore gratitude is a good contribution in the field of marketing for building long term relationship.

Palmatier et al. (2009) explained gratitude as “emotion with an attribute” (ibid: p.88). “Customers’ level of gratitude, may be determined largely by the way the programme is delivered, framed and timed rather than by the actual cost of a relationship marketing programme” (Palmatier et al., 2009). In the marketing
literature (Baron et al., 2010) focuses only on trust and commitment and ignores gratitude, which is an important element because gratitude affects commitment. Palmatier et al. (2009) concluded that future research is required on the long term effect of gratitude on relationship development and commitment. They concluded that emotional state or emotional ties influence a person’s moral and interpersonal links and vice versa, but more work needs to be undertaken in this context (McCullough et al., 2001). So this research investigates gratitude as a response to benevolence and motivation for reciprocity. Future research is needed to explore the conditions under which gratitude is an evoked response to the receipt of help from others.

3.7.3 Gratitude and Marketing

According to Morales (2005) gratitude has not received much attention in the marketing literature, especially in a charity organization context, where commitment and relationship are critical and key issues for sustainability. Raggio and Folse (2009) considered commitment as an expression of gratitude that has a positive impact. They analysed the impact of gratitude, not in an interpersonal context, but in terms of the mechanism by which it works. They viewed the expression of gratitude in a mass communication context as a moral reinforcement. Those people who are already involved in volunteering or donation activities feel that the issue is important. They find gratitude reduces the potential of ingratitude, produces favourable outcomes and satisfies reciprocal involvement. According to Robert (2004: p.68) gratitude is “friendly and affectionate reciprocity”. That is why McCullough (2004: p. 295) has “taken into account the relationship between benefactor and recipient when investigating grateful responses to help”.

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Gratitude has a wide scope, being of interest in psychology, consumer behaviour, organization behaviour, anthropology, philosophy, religion and many others. However, the positive importance of gratitude is extracted from the psychology literature and reveals the expression of gratitude in mass marketing messages. This expression of gratitude encourages a relationship that progresses to the commitment stage (Raggio and Folse, 2009). In addition, they suggested that marketing should explore gratitude within strategic marketing and public policy contexts. Marketing managers need to cover a gap between the literature on gratitude to measure effectiveness and gratitude as a desired behaviour (Raggio and Folse, 2009). Charity, loyalty and self-sacrifice are major elicitors of gratitude. McCort (1994) explained how gratitude can build relationships with the help of solid expression such as marketing. He stated that

“Relationships offer that possibilities and should be cultivated by taking donors seriously. Simple expressions of gratitude for their offering, interests in their ideas, accountability to their giving and concerns for their development may not only bind them to the non-profit but also make them more valuable members of the organization.” (ibid: p.64).

Haidt et al. (2002) suggested gratitude is elicited by self-interest; someone’s good deeds in past promotes reciprocity. In the future more research is needed on positive emotions (i.e., gratitude) and their role in internal marketing. Therefore the present research not only focused on the emotions but also on the cognitive issues i.e. identity salience.
3.8 Identity Salience

“An identity is a set of meanings attached to the self that serves as a standard or reference that guides behaviour in situations” (Stets and Biga, 2003: p.401). Hoelter (1983: p.141) defined identity salience as “the relative importance or centrality of a given identity (and thus role) for defining oneself” (Hoelter, 1983: p. 141).

Identity salience, a term used in psychology (Erikson, 1968), is known as ego identity in sociology. “Identity salience is conceptualized (and operationalized) as the likelihood that the identity will be invoked in diverse situations” (Hogg et al., 1995: p. 257). In the literature many authors used either the identity theory, for example Stryker ((1968), Stryker and Serpe (1994) or the social identity theory for example, Tajfel (1974) and Tajfel and Turner (1985). Both theories have similarities, such as recognition that people have multiple identities e.g. student, parent, sports person or blood donor etc. People arrange these identities in a hierarchy according to their importance, so the most important is salient and can influence the behaviour more than other identities (Stryker 1968; Stryker and Burke, 2000).

Stryker (1980) gave a detailed view of the self in which roles are internalized part of the self as identities which really help to explain theoretically the movement between social person and social unit. Identities are organized in an order on the basis of their quality and characteristics (Stryker and Serpe, 1994). An identity becomes salient if it is supported by the self and others, as it is a prediction of behaviour and commitment (McCall and Simon, 1978). The more salient an identity is, the more affective response a person has towards that identity. Identity salience is more relevant for behaviour and performance.
Michalski and Helmig (2008) found that many authors used the terms role identity and identity salience interchangeably, perhaps due to the theoretical basis used for identification. They found two elements of identity, personal and social identity. The social identities are behaviours representative of an individual that occur because of membership and the individual’s role, while personal identity comprises those behaviours which are a part of a person’s self-description. So to fully understand the concept of identity in non-profits both aspects need to be covered. The previous studies only refer to one element of identity.

Activation and salience have different modes in social and role identity. In social identity salience is referred to as activation of identity in a situation. So salient social identity has more influence on perception and behaviour and increases the psychological functioning of group membership. In contrast to identity theory, salience reflects the probability that identity will be activated in a situation the more it gets activated, the more it becomes salient (Stryker, 1980). Social identity theory salience is situational activation of identity which is a function of perceiver and situation characteristics of interaction. According to Forehand and Reed (2002) many environment and situational factors that evoke social identity, can be controlled. These factors could be basic contributing factors for social identity development. Reed (2004) stated that the description of individuals as consumers (and in the present research volunteers) on the basis of social identity provides new insights about behaviour towards marketing stimuli. In this social identification the identity salience is most important to understand how an identity becomes salient and influences identity cues. This understanding of identity salience for attitude formation may enhance the research scope. He found that identity salience is evoked when people are exposed to highly self-important aspects of social identity to
evaluate an identity inducing object. An example is what people feel when a message is designed to trigger and motivate the identity element of an individual. He found that any manipulation of the self-importance of the social identity can lead to social identity salience. However, an individual has many identities, so it is important to know which one is more salient. Social identity could be salient contextually or in response to stimuli or chronic self-importance (Reed, 2004).

Reed (2004) argued that when social identity is salient, then people’s evaluations decisions and judgements are influenced by social identification. This social identification affects social behaviour. That is why identity expressiveness is an important part of social identity, social expression of identity and self-identification in attitude formulation. Yet marketing scholars should note that self-identity expressiveness contributes to the prediction of behavioural intention independent of attitudes.

As in non-profit organizations usually volunteers are attracted towards non-economic benefits in exchange for their contributions towards charity organizations. In this era of competition managers of charity organization tend to highlight these non-economic benefits in their promotional communications, as a better way to attract donors and build relationship with them (Arnett, German and Hunt, 2003). They also argued that the characteristics of relationships that lead to success in non-profits are different from those studied in the relationship marketing literature. They also suggested that non-profit relationship marketing is explained in terms of identity salience, a concept derived from sociology and social psychology. So they introduced identity salience as a new dimension in relationship marketing for charity. While identity salience is not a new concept in non-profit organizations, little research is found in this context. Therefore, identity salience is one of the non-
economic benefits that can play an important role in developing the relationship with the charity organization. This identity salience can bring donors more engagement with the organization’s activities (Arnett et al., 2003). Bhattacharya et al. (2003) mentioned that identification is not only derived from the relationship between a person and organization. It is a process that is manifested in the competitive area. Interactions and communications are relationship inducing factors and quite relevant to identity salience and participation (Michalski and Helmig, 2008). People who participate more in organizational activities are more likely to identify with the organization and this level of involvement brings the salient identity for them (Stryker, 1968, 1980). Usually people tend to behave in such a manner that they can achieve identity salience successfully. It is found that when people do not get any opportunity to obtain the salient identity, then a change might occur in the salience of identity (Arnett et al., 2003).

Stryker (1980) described identity salience as consequences of identity’s properties that are a cognitive structure of schema. Identity salience is like a cognitive structure. He also predicted that identity salience influences behavioural choices linked to available social roles. He stated that choice is a function of the relative salience of identities as a function of commitment at social and personal cost embedded in a role, based on identity. These costs reflect the strength of ties with a social network to which one relates by means of role or identity. The link between valuing other’s needs and identity salience is still untested.

According to Kolyesnikova et al. (2009) identity is associated with multiple roles that an individual plays in society; it is like a concept of self. In different situations and activities people have different identities. Identity salience is particularly associated with involvement in a certain activity (Kolyesnikova et al., 2009). Stets
and Burke (2000) related the term salience to activation of identity in a situation, Oakes (1987: p.118) explained a salient social identity as “one which is functioning psychologically to increase the influence of one’s membership in that group on perception and behaviour”. Social identity’s main cognitive process is depersonalization or a cognitive representation of a social category and the meanings that an individual associates with that group (Stets and Burke, 2000). That is why social identity theory is opted in the present research context.

3.9 Outcomes: Participation and Longevity Turnover

Intentions

According to the literature (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005; Framer and Fedor, 1999) it is proposed that relationship outcomes stemming from the application of internal marketing are volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions with the organization. Usually, volunteers get involved in charity organizations because of intrinsic motives, so to retain them, organizations should appeal to them at their on the basis of and as a response to those motives. Many non-profit and charity organizations are using the relationship building approach, although the question remains how effectively charities are achieving their goals through it; so there is a need to evaluate their practices and subsequent outcomes.

3.9.1 Participation

Participation in voluntary associations brings social well-being and cohesiveness to maintain service levels for a healthy democracy and social capital (Putmen 2000, Backman et al., 1997; Harrison et al., 1995). Batson (1990) explained that people contribute for different reasons; some people are altruistic and help without any gain, while others help due to their personal interests. While some researchers focused on
why people help others little research is conducted on people’s motivation for
collection to social well-being through different activities. Therefore, it is
interesting to know what factors and motives lead to volunteering participation. This
research is concerned with personal dispositions and attitude towards the charitable
cause as determinants of volunteering.

Both personal/dispositional (e.g., moral identity and moral emotions) and
contextual/situational (e.g., internal marketing) variables guide a person to decide on
volunteering (Serow, 1991; Daunt and Harris, 2012). Penner (2002) and Penner and
Finklestein (1998) mentioned that long term volunteerism comes from dispositional
variables as compared to situational variables. Empathy and altruism are among
these dispositional variables. Participation comes through a sense of belonging,
social norms and empathy. So, emotions have an effective role in participation. On
the other hand, Reicher et al. (2006) explained pro-social emotions as a basic aspect
of pro-social behaviour and participation. Further, Montada and Schneider (1989)
elaborated that pro-social emotions have many branches, such as guilt, empathy and
moral outrage, and which contribute to the generation of helping behaviour. For
example people who feel empathy about others’ feelings and welfare also feel a
responsibility to help others (Penner et al., 1995).

Empathy increases with demonstration of values and norms where participants
experience solidarity with unseen, unknown others, and at the same time an
emotional charge is added by moving through the range of moral empathy (Falm et
al., 2005). Identification also affects empathy with others (Camerer, 2003: p.76). So
altruism and social identity bring a rational approach to participation. It means
people who are transitive have a preference to engage in social welfare (Jackman,
1993). This participation brings many benefits, e.g., self-benefits, social benefits and
benefits to the preferred group. It was concluded that in typologies, participation and altruism versus and participation and social identification, people go beyond the self when they decided to do well (Fowler et al., 2007) but there is no need to avoid self-interests that are achievable. Moreover, the individual’s perception of the cause has potential to affect voluntary participation.

Many researchers (Stryker, 1980; Stets and Burke, 2000; Stets and Biga, 2003) suggested that the link between identity salience and behavioural outcome, such as extra time given to the role or its related activities, is well established. So, time in the role is a direct consequence of identity salience and psychological centrality and indirect of commitment. In volunteering, time in role is contextual as explained by Farmer and Fedor (2001). It has been proved that cognition is largely embedded in social networks and relationships. According to Stryker and Serpe (1994), information on time devoted to role can be ascertained from respondent such as how many hours they spend on role related activities on a weekly basis (same question is asked in the present study’s questionnaire as volunteering hours per week). As they noticed that time in the role, drive commitment and movement that are symbolic dimensions of participation. However, they mentioned that identity theory provides partial evidence of identity salience integration rather than its psychological centrality.

It is important to know how the volunteers’ participation can be increased through values exchange, reciprocal behaviour and effective communications programs. Actually S-DL focuses on relationships and participation through interactivity and on integration and value creation (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Lusch et al. (2007) briefly explained the S-DL that is “based on an understanding of the interwoven fabric of individuals and organizations, brought together into networks and societies,
specializing in and exchanging the application of their competences for the applied competences they need for their own well-being” (p.5). This logic is grounded on collaboration and commitment and it is a challenge to the management to promote and motivate the process of collaboration. In the present study, charity managers need to promote collaborative and participative behaviours. Here, participation is central, offering itself as a key element of relationship formation. Lusch et al. (1992) explained the key factors that influence participation:

1. To experience or to develop expertise.
2. A feeling of control over the outcome of the services i.e., volunteers participation can change somebody’s life.
3. Participation brings many benefits for both individual and organizations such as experiential benefits.

So, the benefits received influence the motivation, desire and level of participation (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). It is possible that if management focus on volunteers’ motives, then this will increase volunteers’ participation and longevity intention with the charity.

It is also evident from the NSM (New Social Movement) literature (Pichardo, 1997) that social behaviour has a feature of participation. Participation causes self-respect, integrity and generosity; and care concern about respect for others and morality (Matin, 1994). Jackson et al. (1995) concluded in their study that commitment depends on one’s awareness, perception and feelings about the cause. Participation comes through an altruistic and philanthropic attitude. However, sometimes these organizations need people’s contribution in terms of money and time. Some people voluntarily give their time and money to charity organizations for social causes, and as it is a fact that mobilization of resources like money and time could affect the
objectives of the movement (Schervish and John, 1997). Campaigns and movements are a two level game, one at the individual level and second at the organizational or societal level. At the individual level, the personal identity and its transformation are vital, but at the societal level availability of resources and networks for recruitment of members are important (Calhoun, 1994; Deng, 1997). So motivation is an enforcement of participation.

3.9.1.1 Participation and Motivation

Volunteers’ involvement is relational rather than transactional because it is value driven, as people do volunteering to express their values (Farmer and Fedor, 1999). Omoto and Snyder (1990) stated that if volunteers are not able get their expected outcomes they become dissatisfied, which can limit their participation in organizations. Participation is an action of taking part in political, social, cultural or economic events or activities. This participation may be exercised at individual, social, community, national or global level, and may take different forms, like information, physical or non-physical. The participation is an indication of agreement with a particular phenomenon. Attitude and subjective norms (personal norms) both determine the motivation to participate in a social movement.

Motivation for participation can be altruistic or egoistic. Altruism is pure helping behaviour, to help someone in need at any cost, regardless of any return (Martin, 1994). Egoistic motivation is based on the participation’s self-satisfaction and sense of accomplishment to avoid distress when he/she comes across a needy person (Piliavin et al., 1981). In the egoistic approach persons have concern for their own selves. Sometimes, this approach can be conducive to charity success, due to the potential for a donor to become loyal to that charity. Charity success relies on the
values that are shared by both supporter and victim, to strengthen their relationship
(Martin, 1994).

Stets and Burke (2000) suggested that participation has strong links with all levels of
abstraction (group, role, and person). Participation increases when one identifies
with a group, as people feel good if they belong to a particular group (e.g. belonging
to a charity organization) and perform a specific role (e.g. volunteering) and when
their personal identities are also verified (Stets and Burke, 2000). There is, however,
a lack of a coherent framework that can explain volunteers’ participation,
withdrawal from charity organization and basic drivers of volunteers’ behaviour. It
is possible that employees’ behaviour in other commercial organizations can provide
some basic elements to understand volunteers’ behaviour (Farmer and Fedor, 1999).
Farmer and Fedor (1999) were interested to know what volunteers feel when they
are volunteering, because literature says much about the motives and less about
volunteering experience. They suggested that it would be useful for organizations if
they communicate major promises or obligations to be fulfilled, which can help to
develop a positive psychological bond. Therefore interaction and communication
develop the psychological contract between the organization and employee. Such
messages and rewards that are explicitly communicated by the organization
influence different employees differently, even when they are exposed to the same
message. They explained the basic difference between employees and volunteers in
three categories: 1) structural or role related; 2) attitudes, values and motivation; 3)
differences in human resources management practices to manage employees and
volunteers. While these distinctions are not particularly clear, they do explain
surface differences (Farmer and Fedor, 1999). This perspective may provide key
insights for the present research.
Volunteers’ efforts really bring change for society and people’s lives (Laverie and McDonald, 2007). To understand volunteers’ actual motives there is a need to focus on antecedents that drive individuals to such participation. McAdam’s work with Ronnelle Paulsen (1993) tried to explain the individual activism factors, proposing that:

“The ultimate decision to participate in a movement would depend on four...[mechanisms]: (1) the occurrence of a specific recruiting attempt, (2) the successful linkage of movement and [salient] identity, (3) support for that linkage from persons who normally serve to sustain the identity in question, and (4) the absence of strong opposition from others on whom other salient identities depend’ (1993, p.647). ‘Prior ties would appear to encourage activism only when they (a) reinforce the potential recruit’s strong identification with a particular identity and (b) help to establish a strong linkage between that identity and the movement in question. When these processes of identity amplification and identity/movement linkage take place, activism is likely to follow...Movement analysts, then, need to be as attuned to the [cultural] content of network processes as to the structures themselves” (1993: p.663). Identity amplification and identity/movement linkage with activism are drawn in Figure 3.4.
In social cause activities, pro-social behaviour is exercised through participation. This participation brings some rewards for the participant in terms of good image, reputation, self-satisfaction, moral identity and in some cases monetary too. Likewise, there are many means used by organizations to trigger emotions for participation like recognition, media and campaigns. In charities giving behaviour is a major factor for participation; however Chong (1991) explained self-interest as a selective incentive and a factor for participation. Self-interest for participation has more ‘reputational identity concerns’. He said that “people expect consistency from us, we tend to oblige by forging and living up our reputations, and as Socrates advised, that easiest way to maintain a reputation is to become a person you want others to think you are” (ibid: p.299). Therefore to keep up the momentum of participation it is essential to develop an understanding about the volunteers’ longevity turnover intentions, which is explained in the next section.
3.9.2 Longevity Turnover Intentions

It is hard to identify work done on turnover related work attitude among employees/volunteers in a charity context. In recent literature Tsai and Wu (2011) studied organizational commitment and its influences on employees’ turnover at the individual level in non-profit organization. Many researchers (Griffeth et al. 2000 and Hom et al. 1992) have done work on a wide range of antecedents of turnover and work attitude. Tett and Meyer (1993) argued that organization support, satisfaction and identification are positively related with each other and negatively related to turnover. Yet no research is sufficiently comprehensive to provide a clear understanding of the motivation to either remain in or leave the organization. The studies omitted critical variables that contribute to causes of turnover, such as behavioural commitment and the psychological contract. Researchers and practitioners are still looking for a framework to deal with this issue.

Charity organizations are struggling to get key funders and volunteers due to high competition (Sergeant, 2001a). The possible solution to this problem is to build relationships with the existing pools of volunteers and donors. Therefore their major concerns are creating trust and commitment (Macmillan et al., 2005). According to Morgan and Hunt (1994), a relationship potentially brings both material and non-material benefits. They suggested that relationship benefits and communication are important to each other and that it is necessary to know what volunteers expect from the charity organization and how much they are certain or unsure about it. In general moral forces are part of internalized or personal values and they affect turnover behaviour and intentions. This research investigates how moral emotions and identity in the presence of the organization’s internal communication lead to intentions to stay. Constituent forces involve the relationship with an individual or a
group in the organization; that bond has potential to influence the turnover intentions (Carl et al., 2004). Carl et al. (2004) extended their framework by identifying the psychological mechanisms and looking into the cause and effects relationships between predictors and turnover. This provides a clearer picture of turnover motives which would facilitate interventions for turnover management.

Framer and Fedor (1999) proposed that their framework explained the reason for turnover, mediating linkages between predictor and turnover and integration of a content process model. They also suggested that more empirical research is needed to test the reliability of relationships. There are many factors that influence participation, withdrawal and behaviour such as family, volunteers’ activities and job duties that need to be explored, which is why sometimes it is difficult for charities to manage their volunteers (ibid, 1999).

Farmer and Fedor (1999) established a strong relationship between organization support and volunteers’ participation, which can lower the withdrawal levels and increase the participation level. So organizations can provide support to their volunteers by recognising and acknowledging their work, giving timely feedback on their efforts and by providing a good social network for them. Consequently if an organization provides support to volunteers then they tend to stay longer, with a high level of participation (Farmer and Fedor, 1999), although more work should be done in this context.

Chawla and Sondhi (2011) noticed that many researchers (i.e., Chiu and Francesco, 2003) considered the role of dispositional, personality and attitudinal variables for turnover intentions. However they focused on demographic and organizational factors for predicting the turnover intentions and did not cover the psychological correlations with turnover intentions which might have useful implication (Chawla
and Sondhi, 2011). On other hand, Chiu et al. (2005) criticized that in a few cases the turnover intentions are not personality dependent but derive from other motivations i.e. if an individual objective or needs satisfied by an organization it affects the intention to stay with the organization. It identifies the significance of training and counselling for specific types of personality to reduce the turnover. However, Van Dick (2004) suggested that social identification is constructive in an organizational context to explain turnover intentions, performance and well-being. For many organizations turnover is a major problem because it is extremely costly for employers. From a practitioner's point of view it would be useful to understand that how identity and satisfaction influence employee’s intentions to stay or leave the organization as it has implication for the management of employees’ attitude. Another view is that intentions might depend on the self-importance of social identity. There is a possibility that social identity evaluation provides the basis for understanding longevity turnover intentions. However expressiveness is a determinant of intention and behaviour. Thorbjornsen et al. (2007) described that “identity expressiveness focuses on the importance of behaviour as something that may be interpreted by others in the social construction of identity and by oneself in the repeated self-construction of identity” (Thorbjornsen et al., 2007: p.766). Hence repeated self-emotions maintain a particular role and behaviour for a long time which is also relevant to a person’s longevity turnover intentions to stay in organization.

3.10 Conclusions

The literature review of the constructs under study explained the importance of their role in the volunteering context. Relationships from the cognitive–affective pathway to meditational behavioural process and influence of internal marketing on
participation have been proposed by many authors. However it is decided to capture these constructs as moral identity and moral emotion, empathy, identity salience, gratitude, internal marketing, participation and longevity turnover intentions. This chapter concluded that without participation, change cannot be introduced at the societal level; it starts at the individual level and moves to the collective level. The relationships that exist among these constructs will be explained in the next chapter.
Chapter 4-Working Model and Hypothesis

Development

4.1 Overview

This chapter will explain the working model and the proposed relationship among different variables on the basis of the theoretical framework elucidated in the previous chapter. Identified variables that may be important in this research are drawn from previous research. Each link of this model is described by outlining the hypotheses with arguments from literature and underlying theory. These hypotheses, based on social identity theory, propose self-mediated social relationships that boost the behavioural occurrence of roles which are linked to social identities.

4.2 Social Identity Theory Modelling

From 1928 to 1997 major work in social psychology and behavioural sciences (e.g. McDougall, 1928; Festinger, 1954; Collins, 1990 and Cialdini et al., 1997) has been done regarding norms, emotions, identity and social participation. Most of these theorists agreed that for participation there must be antecedents for action or resource mobilization. Further, how people are affected by these antecedents depends upon their moral judgement and interests. People’s self-interest matters greatly when they exert effort. These interests could be intrinsic or extrinsic. For example, people may feel satisfaction or distinctive identity or derive physical reward through participation. The point here is: how to show this behavioural modelling in charity campaigns, specifically in internal marketing to get people’s support in desired forms.
Most theories of volunteerism are based on morality and norms in social studies. They explain that altruistic people are more helpful to needy people than other non-altruistic people. Their level of concern for the needy person depends upon their perception of the need and its causes (Batson et al., 1988). According to Foote (1951), altruism and social identity introduced a rational approach to participation. Therefore, it is important to know the “process of social identification whereby the self becomes a group member via the merging of mental representations of self and group” (see Smith and Henry, 1996: p. 255). Social identity helps to predict social behaviour and perception in a social context (Cameron, 2004). So it is important to understand how a model of social identity brings theoretical or psychological aspects for consideration and the possible consequences of belongingness to a social group (Cameron, 2004).

Many authors (e.g., Brown et al., 1986; Jackson and Smith, 1999; Ellemers et al., 1999) have agreed that issues regarding measurement and conceptualization of social identity are not completely resolved. For example, one of the main issues is whether social identification is a single dimension or a multi-dimensional concept that measures across different separable facets. Hinkle et al. (1989) use a three-component scale for identification: 1) emotional and affective association with the group; 2) the affective aspect, i.e., opposition between individual needs and group dynamics; 3) cognitive, which comprises perceptions and feeling for the group. Their study reflected the multidimensionality of social identity but mainly Hinkle et al. (1989) described one cognitive and two emotional components of identity that are related to evaluation, perceptions and togetherness. In identity building, contextual factors such as salience play a major role. Ellmers et al. (1999) and Jackson (2002) suggested that multidimensional measurement of social identity is
useful but more clarity is required about the nature of the construct and number of its dimensions. They evaluate the multidimensional model of social identification by using confirmatory factor analysis and validity approaches. Similarly, Cameron (2004) stated that the salience of self-categorization is a cognitive dimension of social identity. That is why momentary changes have a significant impact on perception and behaviour (Cameron, 2004).

A link between the emotional association and identification is assessed by many social identity based measures; indeed, Cameron (2004) agreed with Allport’s (1979: p. 293) definition of identification as “emotional merging of self with others”. However, two components of social identity, that is, the cognitive and affective elements, are commonly recognised by theorists (Jackson, 2002; Ellemers et al., 1999; Hinkle et al., 1989; Brown et al., 1986; Tajfel, 1978). Many researchers noted differences among measures of social identity. Social identity can be an independent or dependent variable and in both ways it affects perception and behaviour to reflect the social context (Ellemer et al., 1999). Cameron (2004) also found that the results indicated that the multidimensionality of social identity is advantageous for both theory and research. There are many theories that accompany the social identity theory and in all these theories, behaviour is a major player that manifests cognitive and affective responses. That is why the main focus of the present study is on the effectiveness of charity internal marketing in generating appropriate behaviour.

4.3 Working Model

Tomkovick et al. (2008) explained that behavioural learning comes from the relationship between stimuli and response. The same concept is demonstrated by operant conditioning, i.e., if reinforcement is strong or positive then people are
likely to engage in the same behaviour in the future. Almost the same concept applies in the social identity theory such as if the social identity plays a role of stimuli then it leads to socially-oriented responses. Previous studies on volunteerism have focused on general voluntary action and have not differentiated any component forms of voluntary action. That is why this research looks into how moral identity and emotions are encouraged through marketing campaigns to promote volunteerism. The framework of this study deals with behaviour outcomes as consequences. Essentially, this research focuses on moral identity and emotions bolstered through marketing, in terms of how effective the moral foundations are to promote volunteerism. The research is looking into the consequences that volunteers experience after participation, as it could vary from person to person, albeit with a number of common outcomes.

The research proposes social identity-based cognitive and affective components for investigating relationship building and retention of volunteers who are already involved with a charity organization. The uniqueness of this research involves investigating empathy, identity salience and gratitude as mediating the transformation of identification into participation and strengthening the relationship.

In the conceptual framework there are latent variables that are not directly observed but can be measured through the application of statistical methods like factor analysis on the observed variables. To this point, moral identity and moral emotions are latent constructs in the present study.

The layout of the present conceptual framework of people’s helping behaviour toward charities carried four stages, internal marketing is a contextual antecedent; moral identity and moral emotions are personal/internal drivers; empathy, identity salience and gratitude are treated as mediators and participation and longevity
turnover intentions as the behavioural outcomes. The framework is presented below in *Figure 4.1* and then an explanation of the key constructs follows with accompanying construction of the respective research propositions.
Figure 4.1: Conceptual Framework

- **Moral Emotions**
  - Positive moral emotions
  - Negative moral emotions

- **Moral Identity**
  - Internalization
  - Symbolization

- **Empathy**
- **Gratitude**
- **Identity Salience**

- **Internal Marketing**

- **Relationship Marketing Outcomes**
  - Participation
  - Longevity
  - Turnover Intentions
4.4 Dimensionality of the Constructs

In Crano and Prislin’s (2006) view, social psychology is still exploring the dimensions of attitude and persuasion and their relationships with each other. Basically these authors are concerned with attitude formation, emotion and attitude-behaviour consistency (Crano and Prislin, 2006). Therefore, before defining the hypotheses it is essential to understand the basic concept of a construct and its dimensionality which is explained below:

Moral Identity

The moral identity concept is studied in management and was adopted in marketing by Reed (2002). It relates to pro-social identity that volunteers can achieve from their work, and plays the role of an internal driver for persistent moral behaviour. That is why it is demonstrated through personal traits that are important.

In the present study, moral identity is tested against the moral traits/characteristics that provided the clear picture of the person’s mental representation, following Aquino and Reed’s (2002) study on moral identity. As explained in the previous chapter, moral identity has two components, internalization and symbolization. Internalization deals with a desire to have moral characteristics and their importance to self, and symbolization with the expression of these moral characteristics through the role or activities in which a person is involved (Aquino and Reed, 2002).

Moral Emotions

In the literature, emotions are discussed in terms of two main dimensions, positive and negative, in relation to any phenomenon. That is why two separate constructs have been used to capture the positive and negative moral emotions regarding volunteering work. This study is focused on emotion measures based on theory,
systematically related to complex and diverse phenomena. Pluckik and Kellerman (1989) stated that emotions in nature are difficult to define and measure as they are subjective and personal attributes. That could be a possible reason why emotions are qualitatively emphasised rather than quantitatively studied. In this study, social identity theory provides a basis for the description and measurement of emotions.

**Internal Marketing**

Effective internal marketing deals with employees’ (volunteers in the current scenario) expectations. It serves as a motivation for employees due to the sense of belonging that is delivered by internal marketing (Greene et al., 1994). It is expected that internal marketing might help charities to meet the volunteer’s expectation. Therefore, internal marketing is assessed from the volunteer’s point of view of whether the charity organization is able to meet their expectations through their communication or not. In this research, internal marketing is judged only in terms of its informational role rather than the performance and effectiveness of the medium.

**Empathy**

Empathy is a core of human moral system because it reflects both cognitive and affective elements but the present research looked into affective element of the empathy that is essential for understanding of the volunteer’s behavioural exchange (Tangney et al., 2007). It is interesting to know whether volunteers are able to take on the charity’s perspective on serving a particular cause and overall, what they feel about it.

**Gratitude**

In marketing the term gratitude is associated with relationship marketing. It is anticipated that it will introduce effective integration of relationship marketing with
internal marketing, because it is an emotion of appreciation for the benefit received (Palmatier et al., 2009) and has affective aspects. In this research gratitude is measured from the volunteers’ perspective as whether they value the experience they derived from their volunteering for the charity organization.

### Identity Salience

The main theme of this variable is to judge the importance of volunteering work and how volunteers identified themselves with the moral identity based role. Identity salience in a volunteering context is usually shaped by the volunteers’ perception and feelings about their work for the charity.

### Participation

Participation is an important measurement and this research is focused on time and role dimensions of volunteering work. Volunteerism can be defined as “long term, planned, pro-social behaviours that benefit strangers and occur within an organizational setting” (Penner, 2002: p. 448). A scale to assess the level of volunteer participation in terms of activities and extent of involvement is adapted from Schlegelmilch and Tynan (1988) and Johnson and Rapp (2010).

### Longevity Turnover Intentions

This research deals with longevity turnover intentions of charity volunteers. This construct has been employed to capture the future intentions of volunteers to work for a charity.

In sum, the constructs’ dimensionality and their sources are explained in Table 4.1 as follows:
## Table 4.1: Dimensionality of the Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Theoretical Composition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moral Identity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td>Aquino and Reed (2002) and Reed et al. (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Symbolization</td>
<td>Moral identity is a trait based concept because people's cognitive schemata are organized by moral traits with associations for the moral self. According to social identity theory, the self-importance of moral identity is important to understand its relationship with moral cognition and moral behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moral Emotions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative emotions (e.g., I felt sad)</td>
<td>Bagozzi and David (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive emotions (e.g., I felt happy)</td>
<td>Sargeant, Ford and West (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>According to the theory of emotion and adaptation, emotional reactions are important, moving towards stimuli that carry the information, to evoke the coping responses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive emotions</td>
<td>Boezeman and Ellemers (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social exchange theory suggests that donors are motivated to give when they perceive they can get some utility from their charitable work, because of the emotions they will have experienced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A social identity and social categorization theory assumption applied to understand how people think in terms of the group/organization that they belong to.</td>
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</table>
Positive emotions are relevant to the organizational commitment, and the notion of identification especially in case of voluntary work.

**Internal Marketing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal marketing</th>
<th>Money and Foreman (1995)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal communication</td>
<td>Ahmad, Rafiq and Saad (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal communication</td>
<td>Conduit and Mavondo (2001)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Organisational perspective
- Feedback
- Organisational integration
- Media quality
- Involvement in external
- Communication

It is necessary to understand the firm as a market in order to manage its people, products and processes more effectively. Internal marketing bridges the marketing and human resources management practice by attracting, selecting and retaining the best employees in the organization.

The key element in the organization that can influence and motivate the employees is internal communication. It should with consistent with external communication.

Internal communication is important for internal customer and market orientation. In services organization, employees need information and support from the organization so as to satisfy internal and external customers.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Empathy</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cognitive</td>
<td>Spreng et al. (2009)</td>
<td>Empathy is a component of social cognition that promotes pro-social behaviour by thoroughly understanding, and responding to, other’s emotions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Affective</td>
<td>Bagozzi and David (1994)</td>
<td>Empathy is a major coping reaction that takes place in response to emotions evoked by a stimulus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
|  | Sin et al. (2005) | Empathy is “the component of a business relationship that enables the two parties to see the situation from each other’s perspective. Empathy is defined as “seeking to understand the desires and goals of somebody else (p.187)”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Gratitude</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customers’ feelings of gratitude</td>
<td>Palmatier et al. (2009)</td>
<td>According to the commitment–trust theory of relationship, marketing can be mediated by gratitude. Gratitude is a component of human social interaction that provides the emotional foundation for pro-social behaviours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>McCullough et al. (2002)</td>
<td>Gratitude is an affective trait that affects the tendency to respond to others’ benevolence in positive ways.</td>
</tr>
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</table>
## Identity Salience

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identity salience</td>
<td>Identity theory describes the connection among self, role and society. That is why it explains the different levels of identity that a person posses. So the most important identity becomes salient to affect the behaviour. It has cognitive structure and operates at an individual level. Identity salience can be drawn form role-identity salience for self-definition, cognitive organization, and action.</td>
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## Participation

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer activity</td>
<td>People with different characteristics tend to get involved in different volunteering activities and spend their time, according to their perception of the importance of the cause they serve. They developed a scale based on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. This scale enables understanding of the different helping and supporting behaviours, demonstrated by customers, to help the organization.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Time spent volunteering for charities</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

## Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farmer and Fedor (1999)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers are different from employees. Their participation and turnover level is highly dependent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Hypotheses

In the present research, hypotheses were defined since the nature of the variables is clear and emerged through some exploratory research; which led to the constructs being sub-divided yet further. As Whetten (1989: p.491) puts it, “hypotheses are the testable statements” about the relationships existing among variables and also describe the researcher’s intentions. The framework shown in Figure 4.1 expressed both efforts to illuminate the constructs and paths in the model, and determine the antecedents of participation and intentions to stay with charity organizations.

4.5.1 Internal Marketing and its Influences

Attitude is an intermediate outcome (leading to behaviour) and for this attitudinal outcome, marketers need to develop a conceptual framework to accommodate psychological processes which produce attitudinal acceptance. How the message achieves attitudinal outcomes is of interest, especially in marketing. However, it is not an easy task for marketers to measure the message input that affects the attitudinal outcomes because situational factors could influence these outcomes (Shrum et al., 2012). It is true that exposure really affects the attitude positively but the cause-effect pattern of attitude change is rarely studied. This why social identity theory is used in the present study because it provides knowledge of the persuasion upon their psychological contracts. These develop through interaction between the individual and organization. So their psychological withdrawal can be assessed by their intentions to continue their work for the organization.
processes that changes or forms attitudes. This theory is applied to test how the exposure of internal marketing can affect attitudes (cognitive-affective, i.e., moral identity and moral emotions aspects) and the factors (empathy, gratitude and identity salience) that might possibly shape the attitudinal outcomes.

Empirical research in this area is limited and more research is needed on the impact of internal marketing on the organization’s internal and external aspects. Balabanis et al. (1997) emphasised that future research is needed to look into volunteers’ attitudes when exploring the impact of marketing to provide an ideal model or scale to measure whether charity organizations are able to attract and retain volunteers or not. According to Reynoso and Moores (1996), internal marketing is an effective application and has two-fold benefits. One is to deliver information and the second is to ask about feedback, which increases compatibility and strengthens the relationships. Lings (2004) highlighted the importance of communication in internal marketing as communication is an integral driver of internal marketing. This communication may take place face to face, via letters or by telephone conversation (Lings and Brooks, 1998; Lings, 2004). However, it is necessary to keep in mind that volunteers join charity organizations to meet or fulfil specific organizational needs but not on an infinite basis.

Indeed, it is becoming challenging for the marketing managers of charity or non-profit organizations to retain current volunteers/donors and attract new ones or increase the level of contributions (Sierra and Mcquitty, 2007). There are many marketing applications that are cost effective, such as internal marketing. And it is time to focus on internal marketing rather than external marketing, especially in charity organizations, in order to meet their objectives.
Sargeant et al. (2006) stated that the quality of non-profit communication campaigns has a significant impact on the donor’s contributions. The organization’s management should be supportive to internal marketing. It is assumed that internal marketing may communicate the charity organization’s mission more extensively and regularly to volunteers, and also acknowledge and recognize the volunteers’ contributions. Internal marketing can play an effective role to employ and retain the best volunteers/people for the best tasks. In other words, internal marketing is a marketing technique to deal with employees’ concerns within an organization. Internal marketing motivates the employees (in the current context, volunteers) to serve the cause to their best level. Internal marketing bridges the marketing and human resource policies for effective organizational output (Greene et al., 1994).

Green et al. (1994) postulated that in high-contact service organizations, service quality is dependent largely upon the service provider. That is why these service organizations need to be more focused on internal applications of marketing; the same applies to the charity organizations. The reason is marketing plays the role of stimuli which can trigger certain emotions as well as the willingness of the individuals to engage in perspective taking and empathy (Schmitt, 1999). Actually marketers view consumers as rational and emotional human beings who are concerned with achieving pleasurable experiences, for example social-identity experiences that result from belongingness to a group/society. Marketing implements such experiences through communications, visual and verbal identity, electronic media, etc. So marketing has an ability to create holistic experiences that integrate with individual experiences (Schmitt, 1999). Such experiences provide emotional, cognitive, and behavioural values. Therefore internal marketing can integrate with the individual’s emotional experiences and if emotions can perform
an information function, then the role of internal marketing will be more polished in the presence of emotions and people will more effectively comply with it. However, Bekkers and Wiepking (2007) have more precisely explained that the charity campaigns with moral emotional (either positive or negative) appeals stimulate actual giving. So the present study proposes that internal marketing has a positive relationship with both positive and negative moral emotions. The reason is that an application of positive moral emotions motivates volunteering by providing good experiences of volunteering. On the other hand, by addressing negative moral emotions, marketing can integrate with individual negatives emotions which may help to cope with negative feelings, i.e., guilt, and boost morale for volunteering. Hence specific hypotheses under this situation are:

**H1a.** Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with positive moral emotions.

**H1b.** Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with negative moral emotions.

Tajfel (1978) explained that social identity is derived from cognitive awareness of a person’s membership of a group, the evaluation of positive and negative implications of group membership and emotional involvement with a group. This self-awareness of association with an organization helps an individual to achieve a social identity. Tajfel and Turner (1979 and 1986) mentioned that positive social identity could bring a unique identity to the individual as a consequence of membership. Sometimes contextual cues influence the social identity (Aquino and Reed, 2002; Forehand and Deshpande, 2001; Forehand et al., 2002), e.g., visual images and words. Exposure to these cues increases the possibility that consumers may use social identity as marketing stimulus in the evaluation (Forehand and
Deshpande, 2001; Forehand et al., 2002). According to social identity theory the goal orientation of social identity provides a specific evaluative response to the stimuli relevant to that social identity. Above all, personality traits may affect the evaluation of contextual cues in the course of accessing the social identity. The personality factors (e.g., moral identity) that strengthen the social identity link with self are more sensitive to contextual cues in the environment. “In addition to strengthening the social identity components of the self-concept, interaction with groups is also likely to influence the goals individuals pursue and deem important to themselves and others” (Reed and Forehead, 2002: p. 22).

As Schneider (1986) mentioned, the sense of identity is also limited by a volunteer’s experience. It can produce satisfaction, lower turnover and raise level of performance. It is important to understand how identity is linked to the role and organization a person works for and how they feel the organization or its work is a part of the self (Kleine et al., 1993) and how they cannot imagine themselves without it (Oliver, 1993). Therefore, if volunteers receive clear information about their role they will be in a position to contribute much better than if they do not have this information (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997). A conclusion is drawn on the basis of Reed’s (2004) work on social identity suggested that the evaluated content is linked to a person’s social identity, which influences attitude formation and indicating the influence of communication (in the present research internal communication) as a contributor. Reed (2002) explained that people with a strong identity rely on internal cues such as feelings and people with new or relatively weak identity rely on external cues. Therefore for a strong and long-term bond with an organization, it is necessary to promote those identities that people find important for them. So if internal marketing addresses contextual cues (e.g., characteristics that might
describe a moral person, or activities that provides expression of these characteristics) that exist in the organization and are relevant to the individual’s moral identification then it can create a strong bond between volunteers and the organization. This logic suggests a hypothesis as follows:

**H1c.** Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with volunteers’ moral identity.

Many studies have focused on the role of emotions in consumer behaviour in different contexts, e.g., emotions evoked by advertisements affect consumer attitudes toward the advertisement and the related brand, and consumer behaviour (Burke and Edell, 1989; Malle and Holbrook, 2012). Indeed, consumer emotions (e.g., empathy, gratitude) have been hypothesized as a major mediating mechanism in the consumption experiences (Griffin et al., 1993).

According to Batchy (2007), emotional utility is a strong motivation to support a charity. This is facilitated by emotional constructs that drive commitment and charitable giving. However, Gomes and Gunderson (2003) concluded that volunteering has a strong relation with empathy; as such work reflects a person’s behaviour for others’ equity and welfare. All the same, if a person volunteers for an organization that serves needy people, then the organizations’ treatment of that person is important for volunteering, either short term or long term. Similarly, Lazarus (1991) and Daunt and Harris (2012) explained that both internal and contextual/situational factors lead to emotional responses especially if those factors have motivational relevance. This understanding provides a good marketing strategy for building relationships with volunteers (Kolyesnikova et al., 2009; McCullough et al., 2001). Hence an understanding of gratitude can potentially be used by marketing managers in their relational exchanges (Raggio and Folse, 2009)
with organizational stakeholders. From a marketing perspective, a vital concern is how individuals cope with emotions because coping can influence behaviour (Yi & Baumgartner, 2004). Therefore, internal marketing can help volunteers to cope with their emotions through promoting empathic and gratitude concerns between volunteers and the charity. Hence:

**H1d.** Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with volunteers’ empathy.

**H1e.** Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with volunteers’ gratitude.

Craig-Lees et al. (2008: p. 21) suggested that “the interaction between pro-social dispositions and participation may have nuances that should be explored, probably via more in-depth directed research”. In seeking to know how social identity salience derives from self-importance, Reed (2004) identified that identity salience is evoked through interaction between the self-importance of social identity/identity salience and its relation to the object evaluation which carried the identity cue (e.g. internal marketing: newsletters, emails etc). Further there is a relationship between social identity self-importance and identity relevant stimuli, especially identity salience evoked by exposure to an identity cue. That is why “managers in non-profit organizations should focus on salience of their donor [volunteers]’ organization related identity and developing such identities in potential donors” (Arnett et al. 2003: p. 102). In Arnett et al.’s (2003) research, identity salience played a major role for relationship marketing particularly in non-profit organizations. So, if internal marketing is adopted in charities as a means of relationship building with volunteers then it is necessary to understand the relationship between internal marketing and
identity salience, in regard to promoting volunteerism by addressing the volunteers’ salient identity. The hypothesis formulated here is:

H1f. Internal marketing is expected to have a positive relationship with volunteers’ identity salience.

4.5.2 Moral Identity and its Relationships

Identity and emotions are interdependent as sometimes identity evokes emotions and sometimes emotions evoke identity (Mesquita and Karasawa, 2004). Waterman et al. (2003) also stated that negative emotions such as sadness cause exploration processes, and similarly positive emotions activate the exploration and new ways of thinking (Isen, 1993). However, not much empirical research has studied moral identity as a source of motivation for moral behaviour. “It is still a fledgling research area, work on moral identity promises to move the field beyond predominant paradigms and focus on certain dimensions of morality (e.g., moral reasoning or moral emotion)” (Hardy and Carlo, 2005: p. 252). Waterman et al. (2003) also mentioned the possibility of existence of links between identity and emotions.

The present research focused on voluntary behaviour, and the pathway of its major drivers such as moral identity and positive or negative moral emotions for volunteer participation with the organization. The link from identity to emotions may have a more important role in moral behaviour than the link from emotion to identity may have (Hardy, 2006). Indeed, social identity theory suggests the cognitive–affective pathway which has a precise path from identity to emotion. Volunteering is a time consuming task that requires the proper planning to decide about participation, which is why the cognitive processes of volunteers have priority (Penner, 2002). The
question here is: how a person’s mental representation about his/her moral character that means moral identity influences his/her emotions for the welfare of the group/society? According to Waterman et al. (2003) emotions are reflected in the person’s behaviour as showing how one really thinks and whether they feel complete or fulfilled. So in the volunteering context, moral identity can evoke positive moral emotions (i.e., feeling of pride to be a volunteer) and negative moral emotions (i.e., feeling of guilt if not fulfilling the identity requirement). The proposed hypotheses are below:

**H2a.** Moral identity is expected to have a positive relationship with positive moral emotions.

**H2b.** Moral identity is expected to have a positive relationship with negative moral emotions.

Bergami and Bagozzi (1999) found that emotions have two aspects. One is a person’s feeling that he/she receives from the organization as a consequence of membership and the second is his/her feelings towards the organization, such as empathy, reciprocity and gratitude. Brewer and Garder (1996) stated that consumers and human beings generally are social individuals and will have an indicative example of a moral person in terms of moral traits or characteristics; such as being kind and honest, or having moral feelings such as empathy for others, or behaviours such as helping strangers and engaging in voluntary or charitable behaviours. A consumer moral identity would in effect be the degree to which this form of the image is an important part of the overall self-concept. The degree of such a moral identity is clearly important as it could be pivotal in motivating choice of behaviour, especially for those that show some pro-social intent and social responsiveness, such as empathy (Reed et al. 2007). Tangeney et al. (2007) suggested that in pro-social
behaviour some factors such as empathy mediate the moral decision, i.e., the
decision to help others. Similarly, Cameron (2004: p.259) stated that identification
affects empathy with others in a group and used the social identity theory to justify
this relationship because this relationship reflects on “interpersonal ties within the
group and/or perceptions of common fate and psychological well-being (including
self-esteem)”. These arguments suggested that there is a relationship between
identity and empathy as both are the reflection of moral traits which an individual
has which claim the following hypothesis.

**H2c.** Moral identity has a positive relationship with empathy towards a
charity.

It is interesting that social identity theory explains the social identification process
that links an individual to the organization. However the strength of this link is
dependent upon the organization’s role in engaging with the individuals (Tyler and
Blader, 2002 and 2003), which may generate the gratitude and empathy for the
organization. According to Kolyesnikova et al. (2009) and McCullough et al. (2001),
gratitude leads to compliance to feel affirmed, as gratitude helps to maintain social
ties and resources to maintain people’s well-being in stressful conditions. Gratitude
creates a positive link between beneficiaries and benefactors and fosters pro-social
behaviour. It is strongly relevant to personality traits (e.g., moral identity) and the
interfaces between a cause and people’s well-being. For example, if a person
attaches high importance to volunteering, that individual always tends to be involved
in volunteering (McCullough et al., 2002). Kolyesnikova et al. (2009) also implied
that moral identity is an antecedent of gratitude and reciprocity, especially if people
associate their identity with a particular activity that boosts self-esteem and
perceived social support (e.g., volunteering). Allied to this, it would be helpful to
determine how identity fuelled gratitude interacts with behavioural constructs (i.e., purchasing behaviour) (Kolyesnikova et al. 2009) and under what conditions it facilitates a person’s behaviour. Here, moral identity is approached as a trait which constitutes the self-schema that may affect the feeling of gratitude while working as volunteer for a charity. By implication, gratitude has a potential to mediate the link between moral identity and voluntary behaviour participation. On the basis of Kolyesnikova et al.’s (2009) arguments, it is proposed that moral identity is key driver of gratitude.

**H2d.** Moral identity has a positive relationship with gratitude towards the charity.

According to Reed (2004), moral identity is related to attitude formation and behaviour determination when an individual is likely to derive a salient identity that provides a basis for retention and continuing volunteering. Such behaviour is diagnostic to moral identity as volunteering is a moral activity. Kleine et al. (1993) said the importance of social identity is influenced by self-concept which enacts the behaviours. Smith (1993) also adopted social identity theory (Turner, 1987; Tajfel, 1982) to explain individual behaviour toward identity, although it is a complex and extensive theoretical model. He explained that when the personal identity becomes salient, a person thinks more in terms of their abilities and personality traits (i.e., moral identity). On the other side when social identity is more salient the individual thinks as a group member (Smith, 1994). As social identity theory explains the role of salient social identity in people’s perception for self-regulation in a particular context (Hogg et al. 1995), so, “a particular moral identity will enhance the salience of that identity, because actions can trigger cognitive schemas, even vicariously” (Weaver, 2006: p. 353). Arnett, German and Hunt (2003) also identified that identity
salience has an important role in developing the non-profit relationships at both individual and organizational levels. That is why this research is looking into how individuals behave when their moral identity becomes salient with the charity, through the following hypothesis.

H2e. Moral identity has a positive relationship with identity salience with charity.

4.5.3 Moral Emotions and its Relationships

Emotions play an important role in self-identification processes, according to social identity theory. The theory posits that individuals construct an identity that supports their emotions and preferred identities especially those who place value on belonging to a group (Tajfel, 1981). The contribution that Waterman et al. (2003) made in the field of emotions was explaining the role of emotions in self-expression. They considered the person’s expressiveness and feelings as “activities that reflects one’s core sense of being” (p. 1449). On the other hand, Merchant, Ford and Sergeant (2010a) studied positive emotions as motivation for an action and expectancy of feeling positive emotions (i.e., pride, happy) through helping in terms of charitable contributions. The key questions they addressed are how feedback works and how volunteers/donors are appreciated by charity organizations through notes of thanks and other communications.

According to Brown et al. (1997) positive emotions convert intentions into behaviours and increase the probability of experiencing the anticipated emotions. Bagozzi (2005) agrees that these emotions encourage a person to take action as people always want to change negative mood states and maintain/sustain positive states of mood/mind. However, Bagozzi and Moore (1994) mentioned that negative
emotions such as anger, sadness and guilt aroused by charity appeals, evoke empathy and hence a wish to take action and help others. They agreed that emotions, especially negative emotions strengthened empathy and also work as positive motivation which enhances the decision to help others. However, shame and guilt are related to empathy differently. Shame is not as closely correlated with empathy as guilt (Leith and Baumeister 1998; Tangney 1991, 1996; Tangney and Dearing, 2002). This could provide one explanation for charities choosing traditionally to focus on guilt in the belief that it may elicit more empathy and same with the present research. On the other hand Cialdini et al. (1987) argued that all motives for help and giving are not altruistic, as people help others to maintain their mood states by repairing negative mood states, not just because of selflessness. Neuberg et al. (1997) suggested different points of view about motives for helping; for example when there is no cost incurred in helping, altruism is conducive to help, but when there is a cost to providing help, then self-interest or non-altruistic motives influence the decision whether to help others. However, empathy is a ‘morally relevant emotional process’ as opposed to an actual moral emotion. Thus, it would appear that empathy generation would be an essential desired output from managing moral emotions (Tangeney et al., 2007) within charity campaigns as empathy is cited in central to the human moral emotions (Eisenberg et al., 2004). The present research also looked into positive moral emotions and negative moral emotions and empathy relationship in charities. It is interesting to know whether positive moral emotions or negative moral emotions are effective for arousing the empathy. It is worth examining the following hypotheses.

**H3a.** Positive moral emotions have a positive relationship with empathy towards the charity.
H3b. Negative moral emotions have a positive relationship with empathy towards the charity.

McCullough, Emmons and Tsang (2002) explained that gratitude is an ability to use the attribution to accommodate the majority of the people who contributed to people’s well-being. In contrast some people who are grateful do recognise other persons’ benevolence and positive outcomes but do not discount their own causal effort for it. According to them, gratitude is linked to other personality traits such as well-being, positive affective traits, pro-social traits and religiosity. It is true that grateful people have more positive emotions and well-being. They have positive views about everything in life and it is important to note that these people usually do not take benefits for granted and are able to sustain their well-being and happiness (McCullough, Emmons and Tsang, 2002). Webb et al. (2000) argued that “gratitude as another-oriented emotional response congruent with the perceived welfare of another person that can evoke motivation to help that person” (ibid: p. 52). This definition elaborated a close link with moral emotions, as moral emotions are also linked to welfare of an individual or group/society. Indeed, Raggio and Folse (2009) found that gratitude creates emotional attachment and strengthens relationships.

Lazarus and Lazarus (1994) considered that gratitude is similar to empathy and it works on perspective taking, such as capacity for recognizing other people’s beneficial action in one’s life. If empathy generation is desired output from managing moral emotions (Tangeney et al., 2007) then gratitude must be generated through managing moral emotions. Therefore there is a possibility that not only the feelings of positive moral emotions lead to gratitude but also the redemption of negative moral emotions, especially with support of organization, lead to gratitude as well. Similarly, Jackson (2002) also considered a perception of togetherness and
of group cohesion as an emotional facet of social identity. Thus the present research looked into that how the evocation of moral emotions establishes the volunteer’s gratitude for the charity.

**H3c.** Positive moral emotions have a positive relationship with gratitude for charity.

**H3d.** Negative moral emotions have a positive relationship with gratitude for charity.

In social identity, identity salience derives from the interaction between situational factors and the perceiver’s characteristics (e.g., caring, generous, helpful etc.). This salience deals with situational activation of identity at a particular level, but no research has focused on how this identity and its process guides behaviour in different situations (Stets and Burke, 2000) and how different emotional states influence its activation. To fit the characteristics of identity and situation together psychological centrality is important, which comes from a person’s emotional well-being (Stets et al., 2000). Brown and Gaertner (2001) also described that emotions play a major role in identity building. Ellemer at al. (1999) also studied the affective component of social identity theory with regard to salient identification with a group. However, people usually report positive emotional experiences with high identity salience (Stets and Tsushima, 2001) and negative feelings when they have less salience (Stets and Tsushima, 2001). So there is a possibility that negative moral emotions have negative relationship with identity salience as they feel low in their identification. On the other hand, it is proposed that positive moral emotions have a positive relationship with empathy. Thus, there is a possibility that volunteers can identify themselves more saliently in presence of moral emotions (either positive or negative), this suggested the hypotheses below:
**H3e.** Positive moral emotions have a positive relationship with identity salience with the charity.

**H3f.** Negative moral emotions have a negative relationship with identity salience with the charity.

### 4.5.4 Volunteers’ Empathy, Identity Salience and Gratitude effect on volunteer’s Participation and Longevity Turnover Intentions

Hypotheses in this section propose the relationship between mediation (empathy, gratitude and identity salience) and behavioural outcomes. Russell (1980) proposed that affect mediates the relationship among stimuli, cognitive process and behaviour. Palmatier et al. (2009) and Arnett et al. (2003) also suggested the mediation process for the relationship between cognitive-affective pathways on participation. The reason to study the mediation path is that social identity provides the basis for mutual influence processes, i.e., empathy due to depersonalization. And these processes mediate the link between attitude and behaviour, and behavioural contextual cues.

Participation brings many benefits, to self, to society and to the preferred group. Participation and altruism and participation and social identification are interrelated and both connections lead to helping others, either the out-group or the in-group respectively (Fowler et al., 2007). Relationship marketing constructs also affect the intention to stay or leave the organization at a given point of time and have an influence on the actual employee decision, which can lead to a new research dimension. Yavas et al. (1993) questioned: “Is there an identification pattern in this distribution to allow meaningful donor profiles?” “What is the relationship of
current reported donation behaviour to future donation intentions? What can be measured as a relationship between participation and intentions?” (ibid: p.66). Two main dimensions of their research in common with the present research that are respondent’s current behaviour and future intentions, measured by asking their current volunteering activity and their future intentions to stay with the charity. More specifically, this research explores empathy, gratitude and identity salience constructs’ relationships with participation and longevity turnover intentions.

Here empathy refers to “the welfare of a needy other, by providing aid or benefit, usually with little or no commensurate reward in return” (Webb et al., 2000: p. 34).

This definition is used to explain the context of charity and volunteerism. Empathy is a psychological and altruistic motivation (Hoffman, 1981; Simmons, 1991), as many researchers have hypothesised the empathy as altruistic (Batson, 1997). Haidt et al. (2002) view empathy is a means to promote charitable behaviour. Such behaviour may be conferring existing behaviour or future behaviour (e.g. turnover intentions) or both. Indeed, Falm et al. (2005) explained that empathy increases with demonstration of values and norms and also strengthens participation in social movements. Hall (2010) and Carmeli (2003) studied emotional intelligence including empathy and revealed its affects on the turnover intentions of the employees. In Hall and Carmeli studies, turnover intention was contextualised on the basis of intentions to leave the organization. However they found that empathy reduces the intention to leave because emotions such as empathy help people to recognize their own feelings and others as well, and use this knowledge to manage their thinking and behaviour. It is proposed that empathy may have positive relationship with participation and longevity turnover intentions in terms of intention to stay.
**H4a.** Empathy has a positive relationship with the volunteer’s participation with the charity.

**H4b.** Empathy has a positive relationship with the volunteer’s longevity turnover intentions with the charity.

Many researchers (Harpham, 2000; Roberts, 2000) agreed that gratitude is a positive emotion and a necessary feeling to be held by a person toward their benefactors. This study seeks to understand the characteristics of people who have a strong sense of gratitude. The psychology literature can help to find the impact of gratitude on human functioning. According to McCullough et al. (2002) gratitude is like other-oriented emotion and an affective trait that is also known as a disposition towards gratitude. This disposition has a general tendency to respond with grateful emotions, recognize other people’s benevolence in a positive way and the outcomes one could receive, and also experience an affect because social exchange creates feelings of gratitude. Therefore in an organization context, willingness to participate depends up on employees’ perceptions about the fairness of management and organization. In case of a positive perception employees’ behaviour and intentions become positive and they express their gratitude towards the organization. So the work related attitude and behaviour influence the turnover cognitions which is relevant to actual turnover (Freu and Osterloh, 2002). In Thorbjørnsen et al.’s (2007) view, emotions can maintain behaviour for long term basis which is relevant to person’s longevity turnover intentions with respect to staying with an organization. If this gratitude is related to the organization then it has a potential to affect the longevity turnover intention of workers. However it is also important to know the basic cause which can elicit positive outcomes from a particular organization (McCullough et al.,
2002). So, this research studied the role of gratitude for volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions. Therefore it is proposed:

**H5a.** Gratitude has a positive relationship with the volunteer’s participation with the charity.

**H5b.** Gratitude has a positive relationship with the longevity volunteer’s turnover intentions with the charity.

Identity salience provides a natural explanation of non-profit relationships and relationship marketing in this context. Many authors (Michalski and Helmig, 2008; Arnett et al. 2003) considered identity salience as an integral part of relationship marketing success in non-profit organizations. Also Arnett et al. (2003) found that identity salience plays a mediator role in the non-profit relationships that increase the level of participation in the organization. Meyer et al. (2002) and Riketta (2005) have found that identification was correlated with self-referential aspects of organizational membership and perceived organizational support and turnover intentions. Meta analytic studies also supported that both identification and commitment constructs have strong correlations with turnover intentions (e.g., Meyer et al. 2002; Riketta, 2005).

However, Aaker and Akutsu (2009) suggested it is important to understand the domain of giving and how different identities cause different action tendencies. Indeed, Arnett et al. (2003) also mentioned that non-profit organizations need to focus on increasing the salience of donors’ organization-related identities, and on nurturing and developing such identities in potential donors. Charity managers’ efforts to build donors’ organization related identity would encourage donors’ intentions to provide to the organization in the future. The same logic may be adopted by charities with respect to volunteering; that is, it is important to
understand how identity salience affects volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions toward their organizations. Yet, marketing scholars have not explored identity expressiveness as a driver of charity volunteers’ behaviour and intentions. The present study focuses on the identity salience concept’s relationships with volunteer participation and turnover intentions.

H6a. Identity salience has a positive relationship with the volunteer’s participation with the charity.

H6b. Identity salience has a positive relationship with the longevity volunteer’s turnover intentions with the charity.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter employed social identity theory to explain the basic constructs of the working model. This theory introduced the cognitive–affective pathway of attitude formation that takes centre stage in the model. These concepts are studied as moral identity and moral emotion, which have not been studied together in attitude formation. It is assumed that these constructs may introduce useful insights for behavioural implications—that is, ultimately, the model looked at participation and longevity turnover intention as desired behavioural outcomes. Overall, the model aims to explore how internal marketing can stimulate the cognitive–affective base of attitude in order to influence volunteers’ behaviour.

Development of the working model and associated hypotheses leads to the next stage of testing those relationships. This empirical stage to the study and how it evolved procedurally will bring rigour and credibility to the research. The next chapter will explain how the proposed relationships were tested appropriately through selection of an appropriate methodology and statistical analyses.
Chapter 5-Research Methodology

5.1 Overview

This chapter will explain the nature of the methodology for the implementation of the research study. To provide a clear picture of how this research was conducted to get the most reliable results, it will discuss the research philosophy and methods. The chapter will explain the step by step process of methodological decision making leading to the development of the instrument for data collection. It will then include the scales used for the questionnaire, sampling procedures and data analysis techniques.

5.2 Philosophical Stance: Ontology and Epistemology

Issues

Each research study is dependent upon some philosophical questions such as what reality is (ontology) and what the nature of knowledge is (epistemology). It is necessary to know the differences between ontology and epistemology to choose the appropriate methodology (Tuli, 2010). Still, from Whetten’s (1989) point of view, scholars have used the terms ontology and epistemology interchangeably. Saunders et al. (2003) explained that ontology designates the study of how something exists, its nature or being and usually answers the question of ‘what’. On the other hand, epistemology is often considered as a theory of knowledge, in which we know something exists, and it answers the questions ‘how’ and ‘what’ in natural or social sciences (Saunders et al., 2003). Indeed the research philosophy is reflected by the research questions of ‘what’ and ‘how’. 
Schulze (2003) considered the study of human behaviour is the same as in the natural sciences, which is why in social sciences most of the research is founded on the epistemological view of two philosophical stances: positivism and interpretivism. According to Neuman (2003), positivism supports the empirical evidence that exists and operates cause and effect patterns of social reality which can be combined with deductive logic. For example, multivariate analysis of statistics is a good illustration of the positivist approach (Neuman, 2003). In contrast, as Ulin, Robinson and Tolly (2004) explained, interpretivism is a qualitative process for the discovery of facts, which is highly valid but less generalizable. The positivism approach helps to measure behaviour with standardised tools and psychological testing (i.e., structured questionnaires) (Tuli, 2010). Positivistic researchers have used epistemological approaches to measure psychology and behavioural constructs by using standardised tools to produce more generalizable findings (Tuli, 2010). Overall, positivists support quantitative methods and interpretivists qualitative methods.

On the other hand, ontology deals with the question of ‘the nature of reality’ in two ways: that reality is an independent phenomenon and that reality comes from social processes (Neuman, 2003). Positivists believe that reality exists in this world and just needs to be discovered by using standardised methods (Neuman, 2003). Interpretivists oppose this idea and see reality as a human construct (Mutch, 2005). Overall, interpretivist ontology explains that reality can be contextualised and their epistemology indicates that researchers have more freedom in in-depth forms of research. Positivist ontology considers reality as objective and draws on deductive logic; while its epistemology favours quantitative methods that separate the knower and the things to be known (Tuli, 2010).
In conclusion, positivism is objective and seeks to generalise from facts and information. It accommodates large samples by using quantitative methods. Therefore, an existing theory can be used to develop hypotheses for findings which are closer to social reality (Remenyi et al., 1998). However, interpretivism is subject oriented and used when details of subjects and their situations are important to understanding. In this approach, the researcher has to be active with and responsive to individual participants. Thus, it is only applicable to small samples and uses qualitative collection methods (e.g., in-depth interviews) (Saunders et al., 2009). In the light of these considerations, the present research is based on the positivist philosophical stance, which is the norm with the marketing literature generally, and the services marketing literature specifically. Within the focal field, a deductive approach using a survey can work well to obtain primary data (Saunders et al., 2003).

5.3 Research Design

Research design is a proposed plan to carry out research that includes primary and secondary data resources and the overall strategy to collect and analyse data (McNiff and Whitehead, 2000). The details of the present research design are as follows:

5.3.1 Primary and Secondary Data

This research is a combination of both secondary and primary data. Secondary data (e.g. literature reviews) are like re-using other’s work, what they have done on a particular topic and how it provides the foundation for empirical research. The quality of secondary data highly depends on what resources the author uses for review. Here, secondary data were collected from reliable and authentic sources, i.e., published reports, journal articles, newspapers and book chapters. Moreover, a few official websites, i.e. guardian.co.uk, were used for the facts they report. On the
other hand, primary data collection of the present research was carried out in two waves: 1) the pilot study, and 2) the actual study. More details of primary data collection are available in section 5.8.

5.3.2 Deductive and Inductive Approaches

The deductive approach is quantitative and inferential in nature, which is why it supports the positivist stance (Saunders et al., 2009). Tuli (2010) also described that the quantitative method is positivist because it treats social observations as entities, just like as natural science treats physical phenomena. In contrast, induction is flexible and semi-structured, employing qualitative methods such as interviews, which have less generalizability. Sometimes inductive research can be protracted, but it plays a significant role in the knowledge generation processes, and the formulation of a theory (Saunders et al., 2003).

Saunders et al. (2009) did a comparison between deductive and inductive approaches: see below in Table 5.1. This comparison guided the present research suggesting that a deductive approach would offer the best fit to the phenomena under study. Deductive methods are useful for empirical research (Black, 1949) and work with hypotheses that help in the selection of the variables and measures for research (Black, 1949). It takes a more structured approach to construct conceptualisation and operationalization and testing associations among constructs, which leads to generalizable findings, as compared to induction.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deductive Emphasises</th>
<th>Inductive Emphasises</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific principles</td>
<td>Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving from theory to data</td>
<td>A close understanding of the research context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need to explain causal relationships between variables</td>
<td>The collection of qualitative data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The collection of quantitative data</td>
<td>A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The application of controls to ensure validity of data</td>
<td>A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The operationalization of concepts to ensure clarity of definition</td>
<td>Less concern with the need to generalise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A highly structured approach</td>
<td>The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher independence of what is being researched</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


5.3.3 Descriptive and Other Modes of Study

Based on research purpose and structure, research design can be classified into three groups: exploratory, descriptive and causal. Exploratory study seeks to find new insights and new areas of research; descriptive study has the purpose of describing the characteristics of the events or phenomena of interest; and causal (explanatory) study aims to identify cause and affect relationships in any phenomena (Robson, 2002). However, research can have more than one purpose and combine the two
modes together, if the research question asked reflects both descriptive and explanatory concerns (Saunders et al., 2003).

In the present research, a descriptive study is undertaken to understand the nature and characteristics of variables of interest in the particular context. The thesis effectively examines the characteristics of organizations and individuals following certain practices (Sekaran, 2002). Indeed, the present study intends to understand the characteristics of individual volunteers of charity organisations in a way that explains their attitudes and behaviours. Importantly, Sekaran (2002: p. 122) explained that descriptive study is useful in many aspects such as:

- Understanding the characteristics of a group in a given situation
- Thinking systematically about aspects in a given situation
- Offering ideas for further probing and research
- Helping make certain decisions

Similarly, Saunders et al. (2003) stated that it is necessary to have a clear picture of phenomena before any data collection efforts are made. In the case of understanding the volunteering phenomenon, sufficient prior work exists in order to theorise and plan a rigorous study. The intention is deploy descriptive skills to evaluate and synthesise associated data.

Descriptive study is especially valuable and worthwhile in business and management research if it can lead to the next stage of the research process, namely explanation. To this point, descripto-explanatory studies are possible. Descriptive studies can be the precursor of causal (explanatory) work; in this, Saunders and colleagues (2003: p.140) described descriptive study as “a means to an end rather than an end in itself”. Pure descriptive study provides a profile and description of a situation that may useful to change policy, take corrective steps and even suggest
possible solution (Sekaran, 2002). It is important not to over claim from this mode of study.

According to Robson (2002), descriptive study can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. The present (finite) study time frame suggested that it should be cross-sectional. Hence data are collected at a single point of time in a precise time period. According to Saunders et al. (2003) and Robson (2002) cross sectional survey research has wide scope and can provide detailed information from a sample representative of a larger population. Therefore, it was decided to choose a survey strategy for data collection in the present study. According to Rindfleisch et al. (2008), a survey questionnaire is a feasible means obtaining data in marketing. The survey is a widely adopted approach in situations where the researcher is sure about the ability to control response bias; which is potentially caused by measures or informants in a cross sectional study (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). In sum and in line with the positivistic philosophy of the researcher, a deductive approach with survey techniques was chosen for this cross sectional study.

5.3.4 Survey Design

It is necessary to ensure that survey designs carefully tap into the particular research area. A well designed survey and its findings provide fruitful avenues and directions for future research. In general, quantitative data can help the researcher to expand on the qualitative data, but also can reveal opportunities for in-depth research to interpret unexpected study findings (Gillahm, 2008). Surveys employ highly structured instruments designed on what is known and what is intended to be known. Importantly, the UK is very much a survey society, which means a lot of information can be gathered through surveys; there is wide spread familiarity with these methods.
In this research, charity organisation volunteers were surveyed. The survey questionnaire was developed using the Bristol Online Surveys (BOS) website. A web link was produced so that respondents could access the questionnaire and complete it online; still, the questionnaire was also made available through postal mail. Moreover, in order to reach more respondents, the web link was placed in emails and in posted mail that was sent to the coordinators of different charities and volunteer centres. To get a good response rate, it was necessary to make sure that the survey reached to potential respondents and they understood how to complete it.

5.4 Questionnaire Development

Questionnaire survey is suggested mostly for marketing strategy, marketing channels, relationship marketing and externally oriented constructs with highly educated/knowledgeable adults in the sample (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). The present research hypotheses and the constructs were drawn from literature which was relevant to the study. Therefore, the questionnaire was designed on the basis of the data needed to test the hypotheses; prior measures were revealed in a literature review and appraised in pre-study (pilot study) interviews with volunteers. The priority in designing the questionnaire was that it is easy to understand; in a clear and convenient format that gives flow to the time-pressed respondents (who effectively carry out volunteering in their spare time). That is why it was decided to have the same format for all questions using multi-item scales. For successful implementation, a clear layout with easy to understand and apposite instructions is essential.
5.4.1 Questionnaire Format

In designing a survey, an issue to be considered is that there must be link among the questions, which is known as routing a response (Gillham, 2008). That is why the present study questionnaire was developed and formatted in user friendly way. The questionnaire has the following main parts:

1. Information Sheet (see Appendix 2)
2. Consent Form (see Appendix 3)
3. Questionnaire-Main body (see Appendix 4)
   - Check question: to ascertain whether respondents have volunteering experience or not
   - Moral Emotion and Moral Identity, Identity Salience, Gratitude, Empathy
   - Internal Marketing
   - Volunteering Outcomes
   - Respondents Demographics

The front information sheet contained the researcher’s identification, university association with the research, survey purpose and instructions. The questionnaire was accompanied with a consent form due to ethical issues such as respondents’ confidentiality and anonymity (Bell, 2005), which was duly signed by the respondents. The main questionnaire body had questions to be answered by the respondents regarding their volunteering experience. The very first question was a check question to make sure that only those people who had volunteering experience at that point in time could participate.
The first part of the questionnaire tapped psychological constructs of cognition and affects to understand what volunteers think and feel about their volunteering work. Secondly, internal marketing perceptions were assessed to capture how volunteers perceived organisational internal efforts to help volunteers. The questionnaire continued to ask what outcomes volunteers achieve from their volunteering work. In the end, it was requested if respondents would be willing to provide some personal information such as gender, age, income, occupation, education and ethnicity.

All the scales were preceded by an instruction statement to guide respondents and to avoid any ambiguities. All the main study constructs were measured by multi-item scales, adopted from the most relevant existing studies. All questions were assessed against seven point likert scales from ‘1’ strongly disagree to ‘7’ strongly agree with the middle point ‘4’ as neutral; with the exception that demographic and longevity turnover intention questions were categories. Plutchik (1983) explained that item measurement is like the assignment of numbers to an event or object under certain rules. It is beneficial as numbers have universal meaning to all and are understandable in the same way for describing different events and objects (Pluckik and Kellerman, 1989). Due to the format and content of the questionnaire, the time required to fill it out was about 10 minutes. To ensure efficient completion, apposite instructions were provided throughout the questionnaire.

5.5 Measurement Scales

The nature of the measures in the present study is interval (Pallant, 2007). These variables can nonetheless be tested by measures of association (e.g., correlation analysis); scale responses are meaningful and have clear difference among their
values (Stevens, 2002). The author adapted measurement scales from already available scales in the literature. The sources of the multi-item scales are below:

‘Moral Identity’ from Aquino and Reed (2002)

‘Moral Emotions’ from Boezeman and Ellemers (2008)

‘Internal Marketing’ scale was adopted from Foreman and Money (1995)

‘Empathy’ from Spreng et al. (2009)

‘Gratitude’ from Palmatier et al. (2009)

‘Identity Salience’ from Callero (1985)

‘Participation’ from Schlegelmilch and Tynan (1989)

and

‘Longevity Turnover Intentions’ from (Farmer and Fedor, 1999)

All of these measures are reflective except ‘longevity turnover intentions’. It is a continuous ordinal measure, as it has eight categories (O’Connell, 2006) more details on measurement are available in Table 5.2. In reflective constructs, indicators are usually correlated and that is why indicators are interchangeable and the dropping of any does not alter the meaning of the construct (Jarvis et al., 2003). In continuous measurements, one is not certain whether they are on a linear scale, the only trustworthy information being the rank order of the observations. For example, if a scale is transformed by an exponential, logarithmic or any other nonlinear monotonic transformation, it loses its interval - scale property (Atkinson, 2012: p. 235). The scale measurements passed through many steps from searching the literature for contextually relevant and valid and reliable measures, pilot study testing, through to the final development of questionnaire. According to Hunt (1991),
in a survey questionnaire the measurement of constructs must be accurate as without adequate measurements, the survey-based study cannot succeed. It is necessary that all constructs have sufficient items, as Carmines and Zeller (1979) suggested that a minimum criterion for a scale validation is at least three items to maintain its reliability. Adding more items progressively will have less impact on scale reliability. Bollon (1989) criticised authors who use single indicator or a minimum number of indicators for constructs.

The final questionnaire was developed using seven point likert scales. The questionnaire has two open ended questions about the charity organization worked for and how much time the volunteer spends with the charity; questioning about the volunteer’s intentions was categorical; and all remaining questions were multi-item. The details of these scales with items and their sources are summarised in Table 5.2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct and its Source</th>
<th>Adopted Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moral Identity</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aquino and Reed (2002)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A big part of my emotional well-being is tied up in having these characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I strongly desire to have these characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Having all these characteristics is not important to me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I often buy products that communicate the fact that I have these characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moral Emotions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sargeant, Ford and West (2006)</td>
<td>Thinking about the charity cause makes me feel sad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If I never volunteer for this charity I would feel stressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I often give to this charity because I would feel guilty if I didn’t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If I never give to this charity I would feel bad about myself.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Positive moral emotions | I feel happy that charity organization is serving the social cause.  
|                        | I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause.  
| Boezeman and Ellemers  | I am proud of being a member of a charity organization.  
| (2008)                 | I feel good when people describe me as a typical volunteer.  
|                        |  
| Internal Marketing     | This charity organization communicates organization’s vision well to volunteers  
| Foreman and Money (1995)| This charity organization teaches volunteers why they should do things and not just how they should do things  
|                        | This charity organization gathers data from volunteers to improve their roles and develop the strategy of the charity organization  
|                        | This charity organization communicates to volunteers the importance of their contributions  
|                        | In this charity organization, volunteers who provide excellent services are rewarded for their efforts  
|                        | This charity organization has the flexibility to accommodate the differing needs of volunteers  
|                        | This charity organization places considerable emphasis on communicating with its volunteers  
|                        |
| **Empathy** | I really feel sympathy for the charity cause (a)  
| Sin et al. (2005) | My charity organization and I know how each other feels  
| | I always see things from the charity organization’s point of view  
| | My charity organization and I understand each other’s values and goals  
| | My charity organization and I care about each other’s feelings  
| **Gratitude** | I feel grateful to this charity organization  
| Palmatier et al. (2009) | I feel thankful to this charity organization  
| | I do not feel appreciative to this charity organization (*)  
| | I feel indebted to this charity organization (a)  
| **Identity Salience** | My volunteering is something I rarely even think about  
| Callero (1985) | I would feel a loss if I were forced to give up this voluntary work  
| | For me, being a volunteer means more than just a contribution  
| | My volunteering is an important part of who I am  
| **Participation** | I help the charity organization in sponsorship seeking  
| Schlegelmilch and Tynan (1989) | I help in door to door and street collection  
| | I help the charity organization to provide the needed services for community (a)  
| | I help the charity organization in their
Demographic information is important to understanding the characteristics of the sample. After reviewing the literature, no consistent scale has been found on the demographic measures so two online sources (http://blog.vovici.com/blog/bid/18176/Demographic-Questions-Sample-Survey-Template and http://www.businessballs.com/demographicsclassifications.htm) provided useful templates for use in this research. During the pilot study these scales provided consistent results and the respondents appreciated their clarity. Details of these scales are available in Appendix 4 and Table 5.2. Moreover, an open ended question was added on the recommendation of respondents in the pilot study, asking about the volunteer’s profession. A few respondents thought that it will be a new contribution and practically insightful to know the kind of professions which support volunteering activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Longevity Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Farmer and Fedor (1999)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up to 3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-6 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indefinitely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** * represents the reverse/negative worded items and (a) additional items
5.6 Language Issues of the Questionnaire

The wording is a major obstacle to achieving survey objectives. This questionnaire was implemented in England, and so in the English language. During the pilot study the researcher did not come across any problems of language, which is no doubt connected to the respondents’ profile; the thrust of the respondents were white people and middle class. According to Green and White (1976), questionnaires in English really help to avoid many problems of translation equivalence. According to Campbell (1958), language is not only the tongue but also includes the ‘scientist frame of reference’, like what are the interest and comparative aspects that need to be generalized. Changing the question ranking or rating and modifying the questions can increase the possibility of getting an answer (Don, 2007). Therefore, in the present study the issue of language was addressed by getting feedback from knowledgeable colleagues, supervisors and key informants in the pilot study stage.

5.7 Sample Frame and Sample Size

There are many possible sampling techniques and non-probability sampling is one of them that was applied in the present research, due to time constraints and problems with accessibility to suitable respondents. Actually, non-probability sampling with a convenience sampling technique can work well for obtaining detailed and accurate information. Usually in this sampling technique participants are selected on the basis of the researcher’s opinion, as those who know the best (Sutton, 2004). Another reason of selection of non-probability sampling is to ensure a good response rate. This research targeted the sample sensibly through contacts at voluntary centres and charities in big cities of England were contacted by making phone calls and sending letters and emails (see Appendix 5). This research is mainly
concerned with the nature of voluntary work and, hence, geographical location was not deemed relevant. However, most of the responses for the present study were received from London, Manchester and cities in the Yorkshire region (e.g., Leeds). Respondents were diverse in terms of their association with all kinds of charities from small to large, national to international, which brought generalizability to the work. These charities are mainly involved with a variety of social issues i.e., health and care, children protection, counselling, poverty and human aid programmes.

So two platforms: charities and volunteer centres were used to reach the desired sample of volunteers. Many charities agreed to be a part of the present research but the only problem was that the researcher could not have the contact details of volunteers, due to the data protection issues. However, their volunteer managers agreed to forward this survey to the volunteers on the researcher’s behalf. Nevertheless, due to this restriction the response rate is dampened because it proved difficult to follow up the survey request with would be informants.

Another reason that affects the response rate was that this survey had to be filled only by people currently working as volunteers. To enhance response rate, it was decided that volunteer centres should also be involved in data collection processes. The reason for choosing volunteer centres is that they have a database of volunteers, since they provide the platform for people who are looking for voluntary work and help charities to recruit the right people as volunteers. Therefore, to reach a larger pool of volunteers, this research requested coordinators and managers of volunteer centres to pass this survey to their volunteers. This endorsed approach helped to increase accessibility to volunteer responses.

Sample size is a major part of survey research and it is good to have a large sample as it gives more statistical significance. Furthermore, the present research required a
large sample for structural equation modelling. Sample size should be sufficient for statistical tests and parameter estimates, especially for structural equation modelling (SEM) that is based on asymptotic theory and sample size (Bollon, 1989). SEM results can be unreliable with small samples (Hair et al., 2010). Clines (1998) suggested that sample sizes with 200 or more cases can be considered as sufficient. This said, normality and complexity of data are critical issues, rendering it difficult to determine the ideal sample size. In many studies, the survey researchers are not in a position to specify the desired level of precision in advance (Fowler, 1993: p.34). However, Bentler and Chou (1987) mentioned that there should be at least a 5:1 ratio for the sample, which means the sample size should be five times the number of estimated parameters in the model.

The present research managed a sample size of 221 cases with complete information. Furthermore, this research sample size comprised of both students and non-students; which is a fair reflection of the breakdown of those who have volunteering experience. Previously, most studies have used student samples for data collection pertaining to the charity context. Indeed, similarities were found in the student sample responses as compared to other, non-student samples. The diversity of the present research sample serves to increase the generalizability, due to the heterogeneity of responses. This said, for further purification normality testing has been applied to the data, as explained in the next chapter.

5.8 Data Collection

Data collection is an important part of empirical research that includes a brief plan about data collection tools and its methods (McNiff and Whitehead, 2000). In the present research, before any structured data were collected, exploratory research (see
section 5.8.1) was carried out in two stages: one was exploring and reviewing literature to identify the key constructs (see chapter 4), and the other stage involved a small scale pilot study with a mixed method of interview and survey. Afterwards, data collection was conducted through a large scale survey.

The pilot study was conducted in-person on the basis of face-to-face discussions and filling the questionnaire out via these. However in the main study, data were collected by using both web and paper based survey procedures. In the main study the sample size requirement was more stringent. BOS was used to develop the online survey, which was accessible through https://www.survey.bris.ac.uk. It is a secure tool, especially regarding ethical issues, as it is managed by a university, so no third party could access the data. Further, this web based system is easy to use; has a good interface; and provided basic tools of analysis. Still, hardcopies of the three-page self-administered questionnaire were sent out with a consent form and information sheet for the convenience of respondents.

This questionnaire was designed to explore the differences among volunteers with respect to their own volunteering attitudes and behaviours. Although the topic is of potential interest to volunteers, in the pilot and main surveys follow-ups were sent to charity/volunteer centre coordinators and managers (who passed these on to individual volunteers). Without follow-ups the response rate will be something like 20-40 percent lower than normally attained; follow-ups were designed carefully with a timeline like a reminder service (Don, 2007). Two reminders were sent out and they were slightly different in format. Each data collection effort had three phases and each stage was followed by a two week time period.

- First phase: Distribution of introduction and questionnaire
• Second Phase: Sending a reminder letter or email about the importance of participation

• Third phase: Final reminder to fill in the questionnaire

5.8.1 Exploratory Phase

The main objective of exploratory study is to build a solid foundation for the proposed research and strategy for data collection and analysis. In deductive research, objectives can be met by developing a good instrument for data collection and its basis comes from the literature. However, a good literature review is necessary but not sufficient. To develop the questionnaire, three tasks were performed, as summarised in the Table 5.3 which clarifies the purpose and the contribution they made. Therefore, a pilot study is proposed before final collection of the data to assess the operationalization of the constructs. Also, before the questionnaire was finalised for the pilot study interviews, all the scales and measures being used in the questionnaires were evaluated many times by the researcher and the supervisors. All efforts were focused on picking or adapting those measures that support the practical and theoretical background of the study.
Table 5.3: Summary of Exploratory Phase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review of Relevant Construct Scales</td>
<td>To know the operationalization of each construct</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics to select items for measurement scale that fit into context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from literature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilot survey filled out by volunteers (n=14)</td>
<td>To understand the practical side of questionnaire</td>
<td>Content analysis for final amendments in questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informant Interviews (n=7) with volunteers</td>
<td>To know volunteers’ opinions and what they think about the research topic</td>
<td>Content analysis is the questionnaire matched with the real phenomena</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.1.1 Pilot Study

The basic objective of the pilot test is to provide a benchmark for further, more comprehensive study. These tests identify errors and other complications in the questionnaire (Hunt et al., 1992). The pilot study was employed here to test the readability and impact of the questionnaire (Kelly et al., 2008) and to understand which measures needed to be changed, deleted and added; and which ones are viable in estimating relationships between constructs in line with the research model. The reason for conducting a pilot study is that it enhances the experiential knowledge of
the researcher, even if it is limited to a few cases and is limited in scope. It provides some procedural competencies that might contribute to the main study. In sum, pilot studies offer the following benefits:

- Helps to improve the accuracy of the hypotheses and conceptualization
- Leads to a clearer picture of the main study
- Helps in the evaluation of the data collection and subsequent analyses
- Assesses the different measures in order to provide clearer results for the study
- Leads to cost and time efficiencies

The pilot study used a multi-method approach that focused on both quantitative but also qualitative data. The reason is the same multiple means were going to apply for final questionnaire survey however on the other side it was found useful that before going into the online phase, the questionnaire was tested in a series of face to face discussions (Raggio and Folse, 2009). Indeed, a main focus of the pilot testing is to check face and content validity, clarity of context and understanding. That is why in this research phase respondents who filled in the questionnaires were concurrently interviewed to find out their views in more detail. Therefore, it provided insights into whether the conceptual framework and operationalization were effective enough to carry out the present research or not. In the end all feedback collected and compiled was used to improve the questionnaire for the main, final study. So the pilot test was like training to learn how to identify with and accommodate the respondents.
5.8.1.2 Recruitment of the Respondents

Respondents were recruited by sending requests to a few charity organizations in the Leeds area so the respondents could be approached easily. This request was sent to management to seek their approval to contact their volunteers for data collection. It was made clear that it was a pilot study and required participation in both questionnaire and interview, and that information would be anonymised. The managers conveyed this message to their volunteers on the researcher’s behalf, and when their volunteers consented they scheduled a meeting between the researcher and each volunteer. Despite the lengthy procedure of recruiting the volunteers, the pilot study was completed within six weeks time due to the cooperation of managers.

5.8.1.3 Questionnaire Testing

For questionnaire testing, consent was obtained from all respondents to fill out the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. The involvement of the researcher was important at this point in time so if respondents had any opinions or problems in understanding the instruction or content they had the opportunity to ask the researcher. This is an example of active research that facilitated the researcher to know about any difficulties with the questionnaire. Further this exercise provided a clue to the time required for this questionnaire to be filled out. It was observed that on average respondents took 15-20 minutes for the questionnaire, but the reason for taking this much time might be due to interaction and conversation between respondents and researcher. However, it was less time in the final research, due to the absence of the researcher.

The questionnaire was formatted and structured as it would be in final stage with multi-item questions. At this stage the BOS online service was used to launch the survey online link to judge how helpful it would be for the final data collection. The
questionnaire was also accompanied by an information sheet and consent form. At the pilot stage, only a few items were found complicated and needed modification before moving to the next stage.

5.8.1.4 Semi Structured Interview

Semi structured interviewing allows the natural flow of questions during discussion on a research topic and it is useful to explore themes (Sandures et al., 2003). However, in the present pilot stage, the themes were arranged in the same order as they were in the questionnaire. This was a preferable approach because this interview was conducted with the questionnaire together, to find out whether the content was valid or not and if this questionnaire was effective enough to cover the interest of the study. Due to the multi method of data collection, effort was made to keep the interviewing as short as possible, so the respondents did not become fatigued, avoid answering questions, or try to be manipulative.

5.8.1.5 Administration of Pilot Study

Mixed methods were applied at the pilot study stage in terms of questionnaires and interviews. Indeed, it was decided that before the final survey a few preliminary and questionnaire surveys and interviews would be organised, to focus on the interviewee’s point of view and gather detailed information. It provided an insight into the interviewees’ perceptions about the importance of quantitative research, which is usually regarded as a nuisance and discouraged’ (Bryman and Bell, 2007: p.474).

To enhance the conducting of interviews, the researcher made some notes on the research topic and its themes so any question rose during the interview could be answered by the researcher. To gain confidence, a meeting was held with the
supervisors about what to ask and how to ask it during the interviews. Moreover, the
interview technique was practised with the help of other colleagues and discussion
and feedback gathered from them helped to make the final plan for the interview.
Finally, for this interactive session of interview at pilot stage, a meeting was
scheduled with respondents by making a phone call and by sending a confirmation
email. At the start the researcher introduced herself, her university and area of
research. A short briefing was given on the importance and contribution of their
participation.

After the introduction, the questionnaire was handed over to respondents and they
were asked to clarify any ambiguity found in the questionnaire. All the issues raised
in this process were noted down by the researcher. On completion of the
questionnaire, respondents were asked permission for interview which was recorded
in a Dictaphone anonymously, by avoiding asking for any personal details. On
average this interview took 20 minutes but in total each respondent gave 40 minutes
of his/her quality time to this research at the pilot stage.

In the pilot study, SPSS was used to check the reliability of measures and
correlations among the items of the constructs. The measures’ item-total correlations
or variance signified their contribution and effect. It was assumed that low item-total
correlation and variance could be because of confusion in statements, formatting and
wording of the questions. Further, low scores might be due to small sample size
(Hair et al., 2006). Findings of the content and face validity checks in the earlier
exploratory phases fed into this analysis of the individual items. Finally, a report
was written on the overall analysis to develop the questionnaire for final study,
which suggested a few amendments to the questions.
5.8.1.6 Results of the Pilot study

Overall respondents agreed that this questionnaire was understandable and made sense to them, although it was seen as being a bit long. They mentioned the study questions each had their own use and value. The majority of respondents considered the scaling and anchors to be good, providing a realistic array of options. Yet, the responses to statements containing the word ‘not’ tend towards disagreement and these statements did not work for them because they found it unnecessary to ask questions in this way. On recommendation, a few words (i.e. giving, work, job, routine, gratitude, compassionate) were changed in the questionnaire for more understandable expressions. Also a few items were deleted and a few were reworded to give the final shape to questionnaire.

Due to time constraints and issues surrounding the accessibility of volunteers, the researcher could not to get a large sample for the pilot study; however, it was enough to be ready for the next stage. Under these circumstances basic quantitative analysis was conducted by looking into the variability among responses and correlations, which provided useful insight into how items were related to each other. A summary of the pilot results in Appendix 6 and the final questionnaire can be found in Appendix 4.

5.8.2 Final Survey Administration

The questionnaire survey of the present study was launched in mid-2011 and the required responses were achieved by the beginning of 2012 from volunteers (and the institutions they represent) participating in the survey. Both volunteers’ centres and charities were instrumental in data collection, as noted above.
Kelly et al. (2008) recommended both paper survey and web based survey approaches to increase the response rate. It reduces delivery cost and response time and increases response rate. Also Zhang (2000) mentioned that it is advisable to make a survey available online for a long time period to increase the response rate. Moreover, they suggested an online survey can improve the quality of data, which saves time for data analysis; it overcomes many errors such as skip patterns, automation, and transcription and also measurement errors that often occur in pen and paper, self-administrated surveys. The technology can transfer responses directly to a data base so as to reduce transcription errors and provide input validation as a logical check of respondents’ answers. With respect to non-response bias, online surveys can indicate the appropriateness of the online sample.

However, to manage the cost and obtain a good response rate, questionnaires were posted to people who could not respond via email or did not have access to the online questionnaire. So in this study emails (with the information sheet, consent sheet and questionnaire attached) and web links and mail questionnaires were used together to collect data. Each made an equal contribution for responses. Since follow ups or reminders can improve the response rate (Don, 2007), two reminders were sent out to all potential respondents. These reminders helped to deal with the major problems of survey completion, such as forgetfulness, situations at the point the survey arrives, and motivation that interrupt completion.

5.9 Data Analysis Methods

Surveys are subject to statistical manipulation. “The differing responses can be thought of as a variable (an attribute on which people vary) and such attributes can be combined to form hypothetical constructs” (Gillham, 2008: p.03). That is why
quantitative data analysis needs a firm understanding about statistics and methods and their application. It is important to understand that the quality of analysis and interpretation is highly dependent upon how the collected data are organized and displayed. As data analysis is a reflection of research objectivity so during analysis misinterpretation and false presentations of statistics should be avoided. Therefore statistical inference was used to draw broader conclusions about concepts and hypotheses, which involved testing or evaluating how well the data 'stack up' against a hypothesis or a model.

There are many software packages available for data entry, coding and analysis of quantitative data such as Microsoft Office Excel, SPSS and AMOS. They provide output in the form of tables, graphs and figures that are common in all type of research methods. In the pilot study, a few informal interviews were conducted with volunteers to find out their opinions about the research and the questionnaire. The qualitative data collected during the pilot study was manually analysed (i.e., without use of software) due to the fact it was conducted on a small scale and was quite simple. Further details are below:

- After reaching a satisfactory level of response in the main study, all the questionnaires were scrutinized for missing, incomplete and impossible responses. After this scrutiny mail survey questionnaires were manually coded in SPSS while online responses were directly exported from the BOS online system into SPSS for analysis. The details of each analytical test will be explained in the next chapter. They include: Descriptive analysis: to know the trends of the responses
- Multivariate data analysis: normality, reliability of scales
Inferential statistics: EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) and CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and SEM. Indeed, SEM techniques were used for factor extraction (CFA) and to judge the structure of relationships among the constructs in the data on the basis of path analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was useful in purifying the measures initially, though CFA is more thorough in appraising construct validity (Babin et al., 2008).

SEM provides a meaningful arrangement of phenomena and measurement theory (Barry et al., 2008). In studies dealing with psychology and behavioural issues in particular, SEM assists researchers to draw clear conclusions that take into account measurement error. SEM represents data and relationships among variables controlling for measurement bias. Indeed, in the late 1990s, research in marketing started using SEM techniques rather than simply correlations and regression analyses. According to Babin et al. (2008), SEM has quickly become a required tool for assessing models, and achieving publishing standards, in marketing. This said regression is a satisfactory alternative in certain circumstances (e.g. low measurement error). It is a common perception about SEM that it adds value to studies if used in a confirmatory fashion only (Babin et al., 2008). Thus, the technique is used to test the focal theoretical model. For extra precision and better model fit a parsimonious model was implemented in testing the structural model in particular. AMOS, EQS and LISREL are the most frequently used software packages of SEM. AMOS was used presently for its many advantages, such as:

- It is added to SPSS setup
- It is user friendly with no need to write a program or syntax
- It has a graphical interface helps to estimate the SEM model.
- It is easy to learn.
Data can be directly imported from SPSS to an AMOS file.

5.10 Research Process

In summary, according to the positivist approach, the research process involves the steps of developing, assessing, analysing and modifying the propositions or hypotheses before concluding the outcomes of the theory. This research process is outlined in three steps, below:

1. The research topic was identified and expressed through research objectives and questions. After having a basic idea of the research, an extended literature review was done from previous studies to grasp a real understanding of research issues and contributions. Most of the literature was focused on volunteers’ perceptions and roles in charities, social identities and role of internal marketing. This literature review provided the foundation for development of the hypotheses that led to conceptual model design. This theoretical base and framework provided a road to go to the next stage.

2. The hypotheses and model were tested empirically on the basis of collecting primary data. In particular, this stage extended two waves of study: pilot and final. A pilot study was conducted to develop the main questionnaire survey, with mixed methods of filling of questionnaire and interviewing by volunteers. This pilot study helped to understand how volunteers perceived measurement scales for constructs used in the questionnaire and how the questionnaire could be improved for the final stage. The respondents also offered key information regarding effective means of data collection. Therefore, the questionnaire was well scrutinized and ready for launch in the final study. As per recommendation, all possible means have been utilised to
reach respondents, such as a web service for online survey link, email and postal service to deliver the questionnaire. The preference for quantification of data were because it provides a more standardized and consistent benchmark for analysis (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It can handle non-manipulative variables and provides good results from a large sample (Bryman and Bell, 2007). More details of the pilot study were discussed earlier in this chapter.

3. A most important stage of the present research is data analysis and interpretation, to yield an unbiased discussion and set of implications concerning the research findings. In the final study, quantitative data were analysed by using SPSS and AMOS for EFA, CFA and SEM. The findings interpreted the influence of the cognitive–affective pathway and internal marketing on volunteers’ participation is mediated by many other factors, in contrast with the literature. These findings provide some major implications for charities, which will ultimately be discussed. The process is reported in *Figure 5.1.*
5.11 Conclusion

This chapter explained the procedure of the present research. It described how and why a particular research method and strategy was used. The procedures used are important to develop research objectivity and demonstrate the construction of research from a valid theoretical stance. The present research is quantitative and uses attitudinal and behavioural constructs with standard scales and measures that are strongly rooted in theory. Further, careful survey design was applied for effective completion of the research. The data for this study were collected from individual volunteers via charity organizations and volunteer centres. The main criterion applied for selecting the respondents was volunteering experience. This chapter explained all the processes of data collection and analysis. The next chapter will provide the details of the initial data analysis.
Chapter 6-Descriptive Analysis

6.1 Overview

This chapter includes simple analysis of respondents’ demographic information and also insights into the basic descriptive analysis such as descriptive statistics. This chapter reports the constructs and their items’ performance by using means and standard deviations to find out which variables are problematic.

6.2 Respondents’ Demographics

Survey is a useful method because it can cover the basic information such as demographics: age, gender and education, etc, which are difficult to ask during interview (Gill, 2008). This research survey asked about demographic information at the end of the questionnaire, which included gender, age, ethnicity, education, profession, occupation and income. It was noticed that the majority of respondents were female; the age group was between 20-35 years and 88% of respondents were white, this being the dominant ethnic group. It is interesting to know that most of the respondents had education up to postgraduate level. Further, about 21% respondents were full time employed and 19% were retired. However among all questions the subject of income is most sensitive; 18% of respondents did not report it and most respondents indicated that their income level was between £5001-20000. Additionally, it was found that people involved in volunteering were engaged in various professions, with health, education and accounts/finance being the dominant professions in this research sample. Therefore this sample is considered appropriate in terms of demographic diversity, although not all the respondents provided their
personal details. More details of the demographic information are available in

**Figure 6.1.**

However some additional information about respondents’ profile is available in

‘**Appendix 7**’. These results are similar to the categories provided by the many
‘citizenship surveys’ that signify that our sample is a representative of the
population. According to a survey published in ‘The Guardian’ (2010), volunteer
core groups were largely composed of well educated, middle-aged professionals and
40% were females with degrees (http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/joepublic
/2010/aug/24/). Another citizenship survey about volunteering, in 2008/09, claimed
that its respondents were 42% female and 38% male, 42% white and 34% from
other ethnic group, and a majority were from the 35-49 age group
(http://www.ivr.org.uk/ivr-volunteering-stats). However, in 2011, the ‘citizenship
surveys’ found an increasing trend of volunteering among the 26-49 age group. This
survey also noted similar trends among employed people, rather than among
economically inactive people (http://www.guardian.co.uk/voluntary-sector-
network/2013/mar/22/statisticschanges -volunteering-levels). These results indicate
the variability in volunteers’ statistics. Such variability may be caused by some
uncontrollable/situational factors.
After presenting the demographic information of the respondents, the present research addressed their responses to and statistics concerning the main study constructs. Descriptive statistics transform raw data into meaningful information that can be used to explain the variables and their performance (Sekaran, 2002). Descriptive statistics summarise the data set in a meaningful way and represent the characteristics of data, for instance in terms of the mean, variance and standard deviation. All items of the constructs were measured against a seven-point likert scale ‘1-strongly disagree’ to ‘7-strongly agree’ except one question about volunteers’ role which measured with a scale of ‘1-to a low extent’ to ‘8-to a high

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 6.1: Demographic Profile of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Female: 61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Male: 38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Missing: 1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- under 20: 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 20-35: 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 36-50: 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 51-65: 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- above 65: 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- GCSE: 27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Diploma/Cer: 18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Grad: 14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Post Grad: 3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- others: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Missing: 21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Fulltime: 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Part Time: 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-Employed: 21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Retired: 1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Unemployed: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Student: 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- others: 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Missing: 5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
extent’. Descriptive analysis was used before testing any relationships among constructs. In the present research the mean and standard deviation of each construct is shown in the Table 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3, below. Generally, it is desirable for a mean to not be at the extreme of the scale. Moreover, the standard deviation should be at a respectable level to allow co-variance.

### 6.3.1 Antecedents

In the present research, at the start of the questionnaire, respondents were asked about their moral emotions which have two dimensions positive moral emotions and negative moral emotions. In negative moral emotions item, ‘5b’ (Thinking about the charity cause makes me feel sad) was potentially the most influential among other items as it had the highest standard deviation. In positive moral emotions ‘5h’ (I feel good when people describe me as a typical volunteer) performed well among other items, as it had a high standard deviation. It can be depicted from these responses that charity organizations can influence volunteers’ moral emotions by focusing on the social cause that needs to be served and their contribution in this regard.

Moral identity has two dimensions: internalization and symbolization and in internalization item ‘6d’ (Having all these characteristics is not important to me) stood out as it had the highest standard deviation. Similarly in symbolization, item ‘6e’ (I often buy products that communicate the fact that I have these characteristics) had the highest standard deviation. These items signify that if charity organizations concentrate on the activities volunteers want to be involved in to express themselves then charities can promote the volunteers’ moral identity.

Finally, internal marketing was studied as a main driver of volunteerism in charities. Here, an important item was ‘10c’ (This charity organization gathers data from
volunteers to improve their roles and develop the strategy of the charity organization) with the highest standard deviation. This item gives a clear indication that volunteers are more concerned with how charity organizations want to serve the social cause and involve volunteers in their role and strategy development. Therefore it can be assumed that if in future charities are successful in this communication then they can manage their volunteers better.

Among moral identity, positive moral emotions, negative moral emotions, and internal marketing (antecedent constructs), positive moral emotions had the lowest standard deviation and highest mean, while negative moral emotions, conversely, had the lowest mean and highest standard deviation. This reveals that in moral emotions, negative moral emotions are more dominant than positive moral emotions. These results are also shown in ‘Table 6.1’ below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>5.b.Moral emotions</td>
<td>3.470</td>
<td>2.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.c.Moral emotions</td>
<td>2.910</td>
<td>1.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.d.Moral emotions</td>
<td>2.710</td>
<td>1.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.e.Moral emotions</td>
<td>3.120</td>
<td>1.991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>5.a.Moral emotions</td>
<td>6.530</td>
<td>1.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.f.Moral emotions</td>
<td>6.340</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.g.Moral emotions</td>
<td>6.340</td>
<td>0.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>5.h.Moral emotions</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.210</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.31</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Identity:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td>6.a. Moral identity</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>1.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.b. Moral identity</td>
<td>5.510</td>
<td>1.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.c. Moral identity</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>1.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>6.d. Moral identity</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.200</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.86</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolization</td>
<td>6.e. Moral identity</td>
<td>3.710</td>
<td>1.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.f. Moral identity</td>
<td>4.690</td>
<td>1.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.g. Moral identity</td>
<td>4.750</td>
<td>1.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.h. Moral identity</td>
<td>4.950</td>
<td>1.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>10.a. Internal marketing</td>
<td>5.760</td>
<td>1.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.b. Internal marketing</td>
<td>5.700</td>
<td>1.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>10.c. Internal marketing</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.120</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.689</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.d. Internal marketing</td>
<td>5.800</td>
<td>1.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.e. Internal marketing</td>
<td>4.800</td>
<td>1.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.f. Internal marketing</td>
<td>5.710</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.g. Internal marketing</td>
<td>5.510</td>
<td>1.573</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Construct Total Effect**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>5.9629</td>
<td>0.8891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>2.9124</td>
<td>1.54257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral identity: Internalization</td>
<td>5.6697</td>
<td>1.05872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral identity: Symbolization</td>
<td>4.5245</td>
<td>1.31025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>5.4857</td>
<td>1.18979</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numerical labelling represents the position of the item in questionnaire.*
6.3.2 Mediators

Empathy, gratitude and identity salience are a significant part of the present study as they explain the emotional process that occurs during interaction of individual and organization. The descriptive analysis explained that these mediators have satisfactory standard deviation and mean as reported in ‘Table 6.2’. These mediators are important to explore in the volunteering work environment.

Firstly, by comparing the responses among construct items individually it was identified that in empathy item ‘7b’ (My charity organization and I know how each other feels) had the highest standard deviation. Similarly in gratitude, ‘9c’ (I do not feel appreciative to this charity organization) had the highest standard deviation. In identity salience ‘11f’ (My volunteering is something I rarely even think about) had the highest standard deviation. However gratitude is potentially more effective than empathy and identity salience, because it has the highest standard deviation value among them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.2: Descriptive Statistics of Mediators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Construct Total Effect

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>5.175</td>
<td>1.28346</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>4.7805</td>
<td>1.41153</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity salience</td>
<td>5.5506</td>
<td>1.12322</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numerical labelling represents the position of the item in questionnaire.

6.3.3 Outcomes

Participation and longevity turnover intentions are studied as desired outcomes in the present study context. In participation the dominant item is ‘13d’ (I help the charity organization in their administrative work) with a high standard deviation. So charities can retain volunteers for a long time period by giving them opportunity to take part in their desired activities such as administrative work.

Through descriptive statistics it is also analysed that participation is a more desired outcome than longevity turnover intentions; as participation has a higher standard deviation, as reported in Table 6.3. However, participation is reflective and longevity turnover intentions are a continuous construct (for details see section 5.5), so this difference of composition might affect the mean and standard deviation.
scores. More clarification can be found from further analysis that is explained in chapter 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>13.a.Participation</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>1.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.b.Participation</td>
<td>1.729</td>
<td>1.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.c. Participation</td>
<td>4.380</td>
<td>2.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.d. Participation</td>
<td>2.920</td>
<td>2.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.e. Participation</td>
<td>2.262</td>
<td>2.025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Construct Total Effect

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Longevity Turnover Intentions</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.7084</td>
<td>0.62188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2296</td>
<td>1.45506</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The numerical labelling represents the position of the item in questionnaire.

### 6.4 Conclusion

This chapter described the respondents’ profile in detail to understand target sample characteristics. A second focus of this chapter was the descriptive analysis, which explained each construct’s measurement properties on an item-by-item basis. The results suggested satisfactory means and standard deviations for each construct. All constructs have high means except the construct of negative moral emotions, gratitude and longevity turnover intentions, which had lower mean values in their respective category. However, standard deviation was also relatively high in all constructs except positive moral emotions and longevity turnover intentions. Further examination of constructs’ standard deviation reflects that there is a significant
amount of variation among the responses to the constructs’ items. The next chapter will provide the details of the data analysis tools, techniques and results criteria that were used in the present study.
Chapter 7-Data Screening and Measurement

Specifications

7.1 Overview

This chapter will focus on the main statistical analysis of the present research. Firstly, it will discuss the data screening process in preparation for the multivariate analysis. Secondly, the chapter explains the testing of dimensionality of constructs using EFA and then CFA. Here, measurement models were used to examine the manifest to latent construct fit. At the end, the chapter provides some results of reliability and validity tests. Overall this chapter deals with data purification and with added value from reliability and validity, which are major issues of survey research.

7.2 Data Screening

As soon as analysis starts it is necessary to make sure that the collected data are sufficient and appropriate for analysis. That is why data should be screened before any statistical test is applied. So, firstly the data were copied and coded into SPSS and then various tests of accuracy and multivariate analysis were applied to check normality and missing data.

7.2.1 Data Entry and Accuracy

In survey research coding is very important to represent key variables of the research (Punch, 2000), to maintain data quality and accuracy, so all the entries were rechecked against the respondents’ eligibility and data adequacy. On the other hand, data entry error is an important issue. Usually such errors occur when responses are
recorded in one format (e.g. typing hardcopy into a computer; Feng, 2004). So before analysis, it is necessary to make sure that all data entry errors are removed. The only problem the present research faced at this stage was that a few cases had major missing data; therefore it was decided to exclude them from analysis. The authors followed Hair et al.’s (2006) recommendation that if more than 30% of data are missing from the case, then it is not good to consider it.

Another issue of this research is that the questionnaire contained four items that were negatively worded, which had to be transformed before analysis. Mowday et al. (1979) suggested that care is required during analysis for negatively worded items. Sometimes these negatively worded items might have high correlations than other positively worded items. On the other hand, negatively worded items were used to control the respondents’ acquiescence response tendency. “So the removal of such items can increase this tendency” (ibid: p. 244). Therefore, the ‘Recorded into different Variables’ function in SPSS was applied by using the reverse coding technique to sort out this problem.

### 7.2.2 Missing Data

After all screening had been completed; a few cases were still found with missing values but less than 30% as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). The crucial issue is missing data handling in analysis and various techniques can be applied to deal with it (e.g., mean imputation, pair wise computation, case wise deletion), though they can cause biased parameters and standard errors (Bentler, 1990). However the most commonly used method is a replacement of missing values with the mean of that variable. So in the present research, Brown’s et al. (2005) technique was applied to fill in the missing value with mean substitutions by performing a ‘Transformation’ function in SPSS. In the end this research managed to retain 221 questionnaires.
with complete information for analysis. However, missing data in the demographic section was not replaced, as an exact picture of respondents’ profile could be obtained.

7.3 Multivariate data Analysis

Multivariate analysis is widely seen to improve the accuracy of data analysis and results. Usually normality, homoscedasticity and linearity are required within multivariate analyses. The following sections consider these aspects.

7.3.1 Normality

Micceri (1989) identified that empirical data are rarely normally distributed, which is why most of the time normality is overlooked in empirical research. Similarly, Hair et al. (2006) argued that the non-normality effect usually diminishes when sample size exceeds 200 cases (note that this research has n=221). The results in Table 7.1 show that only the constructs of positive moral emotions, internal marketing, participation and longevity turnover intention violated the normality conditions as their values are not in the range of -1<skewness<1 as explained by Money (1989). On the other hand, if skewness is greater than one but less than two, it should only marginally effect the parameters’ estimate; however if the skewness exceeds two then there will be a serious problem (Miles and Shevlin, 2005: p.74). On this basis skewness the results are acceptable in this study. Further, Hair et al. (2006) mentioned that this skewness test is good for a small sample, as a large sample could affect its accuracy. This is the reason why maximum likelihood approach is used for a model fit test under the condition of normality. In the absence of normality results tend to be either positively skewed or negatively skewed, which will affect the findings and their interpretation.
### Table 7.1: Skewness Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral Identity</td>
<td>-.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>-1.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>-1.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>-.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>-.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>-.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>1.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longevity Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>-1.780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.3.2 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Multicolinearity

Linearity is a condition of relationship accuracy. Correlations can represent the linear relationships among variables but nonlinear effects are not represented by correlation values. On the other side, homoscedasticity deals with how a dependent variable reflects the same level of variance with changes in independent variable variance (Hair et al., 2006). These problems only occur when the responses are homogeneous, which is quite common in survey research. To control the homoscedasticity problem, the researcher tried to maintain diversity in the sample by targeting different charity organizations and volunteer centres.
However, linearity and homoscedasticity can both be judged from score patterns and relationships among variables. For this purpose, residual scatter plots (these are also used to check for outliers) were checked (see appendix 8). They performed well, as Table 7.2 explained the ‘Tolerance’ and VIF test. The results showed that in all independent constructs the ‘Tolerance’ values are greater than 0.10 and ‘VIF’ are less than 10 that indicated that the data set has good variability and have not violated the homoscedasticity and linearity assumptions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.857</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>2.811</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>2.552</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>5.706</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Identity</td>
<td>2.192</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another issue of multicollinearity is important to address before structural modelling is applied. This problem happens when independent variables are highly correlated (i.e. r =0.9 and above) and it affects the interpretation of the coefficient path among independent variables (Farley et al. 1998). Correlation of independent variables is reported in the Table 7.3 which shows that multicollinearity is not a problem in this research; as independent variables are not highly correlated (r < 0.9). The details of relationships among constructs are reported in the next sections 7.5 and 7.6.
### Table 7.3: Constructs Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral identity &lt;-- Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative ME &lt;-- Moral identity</td>
<td>.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive ME &lt;-- Moral identity</td>
<td>.587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative ME &lt;-- Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive ME &lt;-- Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive ME &lt;-- Negative ME</td>
<td>.260</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 7.4 Internal Consistency of Measurement Scales

The American Psychology Association (1985) identified that it is necessary that measures should have content, criterion-related, and internal consistency. In the present research this was assessed in the pilot study, as explained in section 5.8.1.1. Internal consistency is established when items in a measure are homogeneous and correlate with the total test score (Hinkin, 1995). For the present study they are reported in section 7.4.

#### 7.4.1 Reliability of Measurement Scales

Good research requires reliable scales with acceptable alpha value. Hair et al. (2006) described that two tests of reliability are important: test–retest and internal consistency. Test–retest requires conducting research at two different points of time with the same respondents; this approach was not feasible in the present research time frame and also since the researcher was not in direct contact with informants.
Therefore, the research focused on internal consistency, which provides the inter-relatedness of items within the same scale (Cortina, 1993). Hair et al. (2006) discussed reliability criteria giving the following rule of thumb:

- Inter-item correlations (correlations between pairs of items in a scale) >0.30
- Item-total correlation (correlation of each item to its scale) >0.50, there is conflict among researcher on this criteria as Kline (1986) stated, if item-total correlation is below 0.20, then item should certainly be rejected from the scale.
- Cronbach alpha (a coefficient of consistency) >0.70

Similarly, Field (2009) stated that between 0.70 and 0.80 is an acceptable value of Cronbach’s alpha for a reliability check. The value of alpha is affected by the number of items in the scale, which is why many authors emphasised that there should be at least three items in a measurement scale (Cortina, 1993). Field (2009) also suggested that if a questionnaire has subscales for a construct then alpha should be measured separately for each subscale. Thus, the reliability of subscales of moral identity (internalizations and symbolization) and similarly subscales of moral emotion (positive and negative moral emotions) were calculated separately. To improve the reliability of the scale, a few items were deleted (e.g., where item-total correlation values were low). Therefore, the research has deleted a few items from the scale to improve the measurement model and obtain a high value of alpha. Therefore, in the present research, to have good reliability all scales were maintained to have a minimum of three items. Further Bollen (1989) stated that for construct identification to reflect latent constructs, the rule of three applies as at least three indicators should be in the measurement model. All the constructs used in the
questionnaire and in the measurement model met these criteria. More details of scales’ reliability are explained in the next sections.

7.4.1.1 Inter-Item Correlation

Inter-item correlation is one of the outputs of the internal consistency which explains the correlations among items of the scale. It is observed that all the correlations are positive and exceed the 0.30 threshold, which indicates that items are associated with each other. A detailed inter-item correlation matrix of all constructs is reported in Tables 7.4-7.12, below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.4: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix- Moral Identity: Internalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.a. Moral identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.b. Moral identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.c. Moral identity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.5: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Moral Identity: Symbolization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.e.Moral identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.f.Moral identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.g.Moral identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.h.Moral identity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.6: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Moral Emotions: Positive moral emotions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.c. Moral emotions</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.d. Moral emotions</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.e. Moral emotions</td>
<td>.426</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.7: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Moral Emotions: Negative moral emotions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>5.f. Moral emotions</th>
<th>5.g. Moral emotions</th>
<th>5.h. Moral emotions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.f. Moral emotions</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td>.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.g. Moral emotions</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.h. Moral emotions</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.8: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Empathy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.b. Empathy</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.c. Empathy</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.645</td>
<td>.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.d. Empathy</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>.645</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.e. Empathy</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.9: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Gratitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.a.Gratitude</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.b.Gratitude</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.d.Gratitude</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>.471</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.10: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Internal Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.a.Internal marketing</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>.565</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.426</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.b.Internal marketing</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.c.Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.565</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.d.Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>.584</td>
<td>.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.e.Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.426</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.f.Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.584</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.g.Internal Marketing</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7.11: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Identity Salience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>11.g.Identity salience</th>
<th>11.h.Identity salience</th>
<th>11.i.Identity salience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.g.Identity salience</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.566</td>
<td>.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.h.Identity salience</td>
<td>.566</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.i.Identity salience</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.12: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix-Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>a13</th>
<th>b13</th>
<th>d13</th>
<th>ee13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a13: sponsorship seeking</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b13: door to door collection</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d13: administrative work</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ee13: organize event</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.4.1.2 Item Total Correlation

Item total correlation reports how each item correlates with the whole scale by giving the degree of consistency of each item. This value suggests how the reliability of scale can be improved or impaired by deleting any item. It was found that all construct’s items met the 0.20 threshold. The Cronbach’s alphas of scales and sub scales with item-total statistics are summarised in Table 7.13, below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internalization (0.764)</td>
<td>6.a. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.b. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.c. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolization (0.815)</td>
<td>6.e. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.434</td>
<td>0.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.f. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>0.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.g. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td>0.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.h. Moral identity</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>0.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions (0.774)</td>
<td>5.c. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.d. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td>0.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.e. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.623</td>
<td>0.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions (0.795)</td>
<td>5.f. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>0.646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.g. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.h. Moral emotions</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy (0.849)</td>
<td>7.b. Empathy</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>0.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.c. Empathy</td>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>0.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.d. Empathy</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.e. Empathy</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td>0.803</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above reported results showed that none of scale has a Cronbach’s alpha less than 0.737, which shows the high consistency and reliability of the items in the scales to measure their constructs. Overall, all items and scales are performing well as inter-item correlation and item-total correlation meet the requirements.
7.5 Analysis Procedure of Operationalizing the Constructs

This study operationalized a set of cognitive–affective constructs among volunteers working in the charity context to understand how charity organizations’ internal marketing affects such constructs. These cognitive–affective constructs are conceptualised as moral identity, moral emotions, empathy, gratitude, identity salience, participation and longevity turnover intentions. The measures used in data collection were taken from the literature that have already been tested and validated previously, but EFA provided more clarity about the scale and each items’ contribution.

7.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Field (2009) explained that the basic purpose of EFA is to reduce and screen in order to achieve the most appropriate data. It makes it easy to judge the contribution of the factors and to use individual scores for any further analysis. It is a useful technique to deal with collinearity problems in the data. SPSS was used to perform EFA in order to purify the scale for the subsequent CFA stage.

7.5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis Performance

EFA seeks to map items onto latent constructs without pre-specification of item to factor paths. Hair et al. (2006) pointed out that EFA has a latent basis so it will extract only those factors whose eigenvalues >1. Stevens (2002) interpreted that only those factor loadings whose value is greater than 0.4 should be focused, which account for 16% of variance in the variable. However, the significance of factor loadings is dependent upon the sample size. Therefore in the present study EFA was performed by setting ‘Coefficient Absolute Value’ at 0.40.
There are various techniques to extract the factors in this analysis such as principal component analysis, image factor and principal factor analysis. Here the principal component analysis was performed as it is the most prevalent test (Field, 2009). ‘Principal component analysis is a psychometrically sound procedure... less complex than [other] factor analysis’ (ibid, p: 638). However, to achieve admissible factor loadings, this analysis has to perform the rotation function. Usually there are two types of factor rotation. One is orthogonal rotation, which keeps factors unrelated and independent while rotating them and the other is oblique rotation, which allows factors to correlate with each other. Orthogonal rotation provides ease in interpreting the solutions. There are three types of orthogonal rotation: such as quartimax which maximises the spread of factor loadings, varimax which maximises the dispersion of loadings and equamax, which is a combination of both that behaves randomly (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Principal component analysis best fits with the varimax rotation method: varimax loads a smaller number of variables on each factor, which provides a much better solution and interpretation (Field, 2007: p. 644).

Despite all these criteria, a decision to keep or delete any item/factor is drawn from both theoretical and empirical backgrounds, including the Cronbach alpha coefficient (Devellis, 2003). The following are a few guidelines for good scale criteria and consideration for EFA:

1. KMO (Kaiser Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy): this statistic varies between 0 and 1. Further Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) explained the KMO values such as: a value between 0.5 and 0.7 is mediocre, 0.7 to 0.8 is good, and 0.8 to 0.9 is great and a value more than 0.9 is outstanding. Its value increases with high correlation, increased sample size, increase in
number of variables and decrease in factors. In the present study KMO was greater than 0.70 in all cases which is good.

2. The loadings of a correlations matrix are most important as they predict the association between variables. The magnitude of a relationship reflects the strength of the relationship (Hair et al. 2006). The inclusion of a variable in the analysis is possible if its value has a 0.45 threshold in this matrix.

3. Communality: as the name depicts it reports variance accounted by factors of each variable. At this stage the researcher needs to be careful that each variable’s factor solution is reported properly. Usually variables with communalities less than 0.50 are not considered as effective contributors (Hair et al. 2006). According to Stevens (1992: p.366) “pragmatic position that low communalities are those below 0.40 and all the loadings in rotated factor matrix must be higher than 0.40”.

### 7.5.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Three sets of EFA principal component analyses were performed. All loadings below 0.40 were suppressed and excluded in the present analysis. The results of the EFAs are reported below in Table 7.14, Table 7.15 and Table 7.16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.14: Rotated Component Matrix-Antecedents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Items and Factors Loadings</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.d. Internal marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.g. Internal marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.a. Internal marketing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The **KMO value** of antecedent constructs (moral emotions, moral identity and internal marketing) is 0.833 which meets the criterion that it must be greater than 0.70. Each item loads onto one factor and in total four factors are extracted and all items in the communality column meet the criteria.
In Table 7.15 purification of the mediator scales was checked and it was found that their KMO value is 0.783, which is greater than 0.70. In total three factors were extracted in individual components; however in communality all the loadings are above 0.40.
Finally, the **KMO value** of the outcome construct is 0.70, which is meets the threshold value of 0.70. *Table 7.16* has successfully extracted the two factors and all the communalities are above 0.40.

In sum, the EFA procedures revealed that all items ‘communalities and their rotated loadings were above 0.40. So this EFA leads to CFA which constitutes the more powerful factor analysis technique that explained below.

### 7.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA tests model fit by using the hypothesised set of parameters. According to Hurley et al. (1997), CFA moulds the items of a scale as variables because it considers correlations, covariance, and factor loadings. CFA is used to either confirm or reject the measurement theory. Consequently, EFA is a useful technique

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items and Factors Loadings</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a13: sponsorship seeking</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b13: door to door collection</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td>.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d13: administrative work</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ee13: organize event</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Longevity Turnover intentions</strong></td>
<td>Longevity</td>
<td>Turnover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Rotation converged in 3 iterations.*

$$Table 7.16: \text{Rotated Component Matrix-Outcomes}$$
to develop a scale and CFA is used to analyse the path or relationships between measurement variables (Hurley et al. 1997).

7.6.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Process

In this research CFA was performed by using AMOS 19 with Maximum Likelihood estimation (ML). ML estimates are similar to the standard least-square of regression coefficients. The basic reason for applying ML estimation as mentioned by Byrne (2001) is that it supports large samples, multivariate normality, continuous variables (i.e., likert scales) and hypothesised models and degree of freedom (DF) (Byrne, 2010). Their details are below:

**Sample Size:** sample size is a critical issue due to normality and complexity of the data set collected; therefore to perform CFA, a sample size of 200 or more is considered large (Klines, 1998). Nevertheless, Bentler and Chou (1987) provide a rule of thumb for appropriate sample size for the right parameter estimate with a ratio of 5:1 but they further stated that 10:1 is much better to obtain significant tests. In this study, due to the difficulty of accessing the appropriate respondents and time constraints, it was chosen to focus on the 5:1 ratio for sample and 221 cases were used for analysis. Therefore to meet this requirement, the model was split into two CFA models and details of these models are available in section 7.7.

**Multivariate normality:** is an assumption for CFA and SEM. Chou and Bentler (1995) noticed that the ML technique is used to check the violation of multivariate normality. Baumgartner and Homburg (1996) recommend that in future multivariate normality needs to be taken more seriously. It deals with the normal distribution of each variable with each other’s variables.
Continuous variables: all the variables used in the model are continuous and estimated against a 7-point likert scale with the exception of longevity turnover intention which is a categorical variable. However, ML estimate can be applied on according to the recommendation of Bentler and Chou (1987) that if a variable has more than four categories then continuous methods can be applied on it. The latent variable may be observed through categorical variables. The ‘turnover intention’ variable has eight categories in ascending order, so it can be tested by ML.

Hypothesized model: this model is drawn in AMOS with the help of its graphic tools. All the constructs and paths drawn among variables are based on literature and theory. The present research aimed to explore how measures represented the constructs and relationships which are defined on the basis of theory as errors in drawing the model can bring false results.

Degree of freedom (DF): comes from the measurement model as it can be taken from structural model formulation. So it is possible to separate the latent model from the measurement model due to measurement model specification to divide total number of degrees of freedom (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). Sometime the problem with goodness-of-fit statistics degree of freedom is increased and a ‘P’ value is exaggerated in a large sample size (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). Byrne (2010) mentioned that the value of chi-square is acceptable if it is less than 3.5 times the degree of freedom.

7.6.2 Model fit indexes

Model fit indices check the specification of the model in light of the data. They reveal the level of fit between the empirical data and hypothesised model. It is suggested that a set of measures are better than a single measure in terms of
furnishing model fit (Hair et al., 2006). Byrne (2010) reminds that for model fit not only the numbers but also the theoretical basis of the measures is important to consider.

In SEM software, two main types of indices are important for model fit justification (Hair et al., 2006):

- **Absolute fit indices**: Chi-square, GFI (Goodness of Fit), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation).
- **Baseline Comparisons/Incremental fit indices**: CFI (Comparative fit index), IFI (Incremental fit index), Hoelter’s N.

However AMOS is the only software that also provides ‘Hoelter’s N’: which gives a number of appropriate sample sizes. If the research sample size falls into this number it means the collected data are sufficient. If the sample size is small it causes a problem of inefficient estimators of the parameters, which is why predication percentages are reported on the whole data set. The criteria of the CFA fit indices for interpretation are as follows:

**GFI (Goodness of Fit)**: measures the variance and covariance jointly reported by the model (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1984). A value in the region of 0.90 indicates a good fit (Hair et al., 2006).

**RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation)**: estimates inconsistency between the sample and fitted covariance matrix per degree of freedom. According to Hu and Bentler (1999) RMSEA should be less than or in the region of 0.08. In RMSEA’s case the smaller the value the better.

**IFI (Incremental fit index)**: also known as delta 2. It evaluates the difference between the chi-square of the independence and the target model,
and the difference between the chi-square of the target model and the DF of the target model. A value exceeding 0.90 indicates a good fit, although this can exceed 1 (Bollen, 1989b).

**CFI (Comparative Fit Index):** works on the discrepancy, degree of freedom and non-centrality of parameters. It is derived from NFI (Normed Fit Index) also known as delta 1, which provides a comparison of the hypothesized model with an independence model. Generally a good fitting model will yield a CFI greater than 0.90 (Kline, 1998).

In assessment of the measurement model, only those items could be used which improve the psychometric properties of the measures/constructs by using reliability and EFA analyses; items that did not contribute much were eliminated (Laura, 2007). The items deleted in the present research were negative statements, as Hunt (1991) mentioned that in some cases negative statements create the validity issue. So these items were deleted from scale to maintain internal consistency and reliability. However, care was taken that at least three indicators should be in the measurement model because the rule of three was applied (Bollen, 1989) for construct identification in reflective latent constructs. The final, post-purification set of measures used for the measurement model and structural model are shown below in the Table 7.17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.17: Final Scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Constructs</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Positive moral emotions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Negative moral emotions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Internalization</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Symbolization</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Internal Marketing</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Empathy</strong></td>
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</table>
These measures were used to assess the measurement model of antecedent and outcomes and afterwards the combined structural model. If pattern scores occur according to the model fit criteria then it means observed variables are appropriate and fit in the model. So each path co-efficient was tested with statistical significance for the hypothetical relationships where t-value (critical ratio) accompanying each path co-efficient. Therefore if t-value is greater than 1.96 then this indicates the statistical significance at 0.05 level and if t-value exceeds 2.58 then it shows the statistical significance at 0.01 level, for two tailed test (Mueller, 1996) and significance at 0.001 level is shown up when t-value is above 3.30. The graphical presentation of these models and results is explained in the next section 7.7.
7.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Structure in AMOS

7.7.1 Measurement Model 1

This model deals with cognitive–affective and internal marketing constructs in the charity context. In the present study cognitive–affective constructs are conceptualized as moral identity, and positive moral emotions and negative moral emotions. In the model positive and negative moral emotions function as lower-order factors but moral identity is a higher-order factor with its own dimensions. Overall, there are four factors, first-order measurement structures for positive moral emotions, negative moral emotions, internal marketing, and a second-order level for the moral identity construct where internalization and symbolization are its first-order factors. The CFA results implied that there were no notable cross loadings and each item loaded only on one factor. The detailed CFA results are shown in Figure 7.1.
Chi-square is large due to its sensitivity to sample size. However, it still meets the requirement recommended by Byrne (2010) that \( \chi^2 < 3.5 \times DF \) (320.196 < 3.5*162), so the chi-square result is acceptable. All the model fit indices have met their threshold value. Details of the construct loadings and t-values are clarified in Figure 7.1: Measurement Model 1.
Table 7.18. Loadings are sufficiently high and significant; indeed, the second-order moral identity construct exhibits satisfactory first-order loadings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.18: Measurement Model 1-Mediators and Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral identity Internalization</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Moral identity Symbolization</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### 7.7.2 Measurement Model 2

This model deals with mediating and outcome variables that correlate with each other in the present study context. There are five factors in the first-order measurement model, consisting of empathy, gratitude, identity salience, and participation and longevity turnover intentions. Longevity turnover intention is represented here as a single item with its error constrained to 0.10. The results mean of scales are efficient and all the error terms uncorrelated. The detailed CFA results are shown in Figure 7.2.
Model Fit Index of this model is:

**Chi-square** = 125.836, **degrees of freedom** (DF) = 81, **Probability level**

= .001.

**GFI**: 0.928, **CFI**: 0.968

Chi-square is large due to sensitivity to sample size, but is < 3.5*DF (125.836 < 3.5*81) so the chi-square test is acceptable. All the model fit indices met their threshold values. More details of the constructs of measurement model 2 are reported in *Table 7.19*.  

Figure 7.2: Measurement Model 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Standard Regression Weights</th>
<th>Critical Ratio (t-value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>@7.b. Each other feels</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@7.c. Point of view</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@7.d. Understand</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@7.e. Care</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>@9.a. Grateful</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@9.b. Thankful</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@9.d. Indebted</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>@11.g. Feelaloss</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@11.h. Volunteer means</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>@11.i. Myvolunteering is imp</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>a13: sponsorship seeking</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b13: door to door collection</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d13: administrative work</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ee13: organize event</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longevity Turnover</td>
<td>Longevity turnover</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentions</td>
<td>intentions</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note: ***Significant at p&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.8 Construct Performance and Validity

*Table 7.18* and *7.19* suggested all factor loadings are close to or exceed the requirement of greater than 0.45. Indeed Hair et al. (2006) specify that the factor loadings should be 0.50 in order significantly indicate the high standard regression. On the other hand, Stevens (1992) mentioned that, for practical purposes, the low loadings are those which are below 0.40. However in the present research all the loadings are above 0.45. Furthermore, only three items are below 0.50. This may be because it was the first time the constructs were under study in relation to charity organizations, increased participation, and longevity turnover intentions with regard to the application of internal marketing. However, these loadings provide the valid *Average Variance Extracted and Convergent validity* (see section 7.8.1).

On the other side, *t*-values reflected a statistical significance of construct and its items relationships significant at 0.001 level. For individual item reliability squared multiple correlations $R^2$ are reported in *Table 7.20* where all values meet the threshold of 0.30. These numbers of parameter estimates indicated that the constructs have good reliability and validity. Reliability, convergent validity, composite reliability and discriminant validity are important measures of construct performance.
7.8.1 Average Variance Extracted and Composite Reliability

CFA helps to settle the reliability of the scales and construct validity, as construct validity is the extent to which measurements reflect the construct of interest adequately. In particular, convergent validity is established when two different sources correspond to the same measure (Sekaran, 2002). Both reliability and convergent validity can be accessed through Average Variance Extracted (AVE). It is necessary, as Stevens (2002) and Steenkamp and Van Trijp (1991) stated, that composite reliability of each construct must be significant and greater than 0.70 and similarly average variance extracted values must be higher than 0.50. AVE is a percentage ratio of variance captured by a construct and measurement variance. It is explained by the formula below:

\[
\frac{\sum \lambda^2}{\sum \lambda^2 + \sum (SE)} > 0.50 \text{.......................... (AVE)}
\]

As Table 7.20 indicates, all construct AVEs are greater than 0.50; therefore all measures have authentic psychometric properties as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). In addition to AVE, composite reliability was also measured as a reliability test of whether constructs are consistent in their measurement or not. According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) composite reliability must be greater than 0.70. The Composite reliability formula is below:

\[
\frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum (SE)} > 0.70 \text{ ................. \text{(Composite Reliability)}}
\]

Interestingly all constructs’ composite reliability is greater than 0.70, as reported in Table 7.20. So it is concluded that all constructs are consistent as they have met the criteria of convergent validity and composite reliability. Further, R^2 is an important measure that should be explained for each structural equation. Baumgartner and
Homburg (1996) recommended that authors should report $R^2$ for each structural equation as it reports the percentage of variance in the endogenous constructs accounted for by the exogenous constructs. Therefore, Table 7.20 also reports the $R^2$ scores.

<p>| Table 7.20: Factor Loadings, Average Variance Extracted Variance and Composite Reliability |
|------------------------------------------|----------|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------|
| Construct                               | Items    | Factor Loading                  | Average Variance Extracted $&gt;0.50$ | Composite Reliability $&gt;0.70$ | $R^2$   |
| Empathy                                  | 1        | 0.657                           | 0.59                             | 0.768                         | 0.431649 |
|                                          | 2        | 0.737                           |                                  |                               | 0.543169 |
|                                          | 3        | 0.859                           |                                  |                               | 0.737881 |
|                                          | 4        | 0.805                           |                                  |                               | 0.648025 |
| Gratitude                                | 1        | 0.961                           | 0.694                            | 0.833                         | 0.923521 |
|                                          | 2        | 0.961                           |                                  |                               | 0.923521 |
|                                          | 3        | 0.486                           |                                  |                               | 0.236196 |
| Identity Salience                        | 1        | 0.666                           | 0.544                            | 0.744                         | 0.443556 |
|                                          | 2        | 0.815                           |                                  |                               | 0.664225 |
|                                          | 3        | 0.745                           |                                  |                               | 0.555025 |
| Participation                            | 1        | 0.784                           | 0.5                              | 0.707                         | 0.614656 |
|                                          | 2        | 0.473                           |                                  |                               | 0.223729 |
|                                          | 3        | 0.594                           |                                  |                               | 0.352836 |
|                                          | 4        | 0.794                           |                                  |                               | 0.630436 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive moral emotions</strong></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.8649</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Negative moral emotions</strong></td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.772</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.558</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.747</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.357604</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Moral Identity</strong></td>
<td>0.865</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>0.586</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Internalization</strong></td>
<td>0.566</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.752</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.748225</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Symbolization</strong></td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>0.788</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Marketing</strong></td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.877</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.583</td>
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<td>0.583696</td>
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<td>0.531441</td>
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<td>0.769129</td>
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<td>0.403225</td>
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<td>0.481636</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.736164</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
7.8.2 Discriminant Validity

Hair et al. (2006) explained that discriminant validity shows how similar concepts are distinct from each other. To be confident that each latent variable has discriminant validity with other latent variables in the model of present study, the approach of Fornell and Larckner (1981) was used. According to this approach, the latent construct should explain the variance, in the observed variables associated with it and in other constructs within the conceptual model. It can be easily accessed by comparing the squared correlation of the construct with other constructs and it is suggested that squared correlation values must be smaller than the AVE of each construct (Fornell and Larckner, 1981). The Table 7.21 indicates that all constructs have good discriminant validity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Moral Identity</th>
<th>Positive moral emotions</th>
<th>Negative moral emotions</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
<th>Gratitude</th>
<th>Identity Salience</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Internal Marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral Identity</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>0.0580</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.590</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>0.544</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td><strong>0.50</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td><strong>0.583</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Squared Correlation values are appearing in the diagonal of Table 7.21 that are smaller than the AVE of the construct which appear in bold diagonal values.

### 7.9 Conclusion

This chapter explained the procedure adopted to validate the measures and prepare for hypothesis testing. For this purpose data were purified by managing the missing values. Further, the scales very purified and EFA and CFA were applied, which demonstrated effective sets of measures of the construct scales. In these analyses, measure reliability and validity were assessed, and tests yielded positive results. All these tests were explained with their significance and criteria in comparison to what the present study achieved. The next chapter will provide a brief account for the structural model, which builds on the CFA procedures, and hypothesis testing.
Chapter 8-Analysis of the Structural Model and Proposed Relationships

8.1 Overview

To test the hypotheses, the theoretical model with relationships among the variables of interest was drawn within AMOS. Such SEM techniques assess the model and its paths to test and confirm hypothetical relationships drawn on the basis of theory. These are confirmatory techniques and explain relationships between constructs and between constructs and measurements. Measurement validity was already addressed through the measurement models. The current assessment concentrates on structural paths between constructs.

8.2 Structural Model

SEM was used for the analysis of the structural model of construct relationships, which is an established procedure for testing hypotheses whilst controlling for measurement bias in cross-sectional data (Bollen, 1989). SEM is able to represent data in a comprehensive style in order to verify simultaneously every construct relationship in the theoretical model (Kline, 2005).

To represent the relationships between latent variables at this stage of the present research, the researcher linked multiple construct measurement structures together to form the structural model. In the present research, full estimation of the structural model was initially used. Full estimation provides an optimal solution by ascertaining the influences on multiple dependent variables specified in the structural model by isolating the measurement and sampling errors (Joreskog, 1973). Goodness-of-fit statistics were also reported in the present research to assess the
The structural model fit. The structural model that was analysed is displayed in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Structural Model

Model Fit Index is:

**Chi-square** = 679.152, **Degrees of freedom** (DF) = 384,

**Probability level** = .000

**GFI**: 0.828, **CFI**: 0.915

**IFI**: 0.916, **RMSEA**: 0.059

The figures above reflect a good fit to the data for the overall structural model, as the model’s GFI, CFI, IFI and RMSEA meet the criteria of good model fit. The constructs’ relationships that are hypothesised in the structural model and their path coefficients with critical ratios are presented in Table 8.1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Hypothesised Relationship</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Critical Ratio (t-value)</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>0.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1d</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1e</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>0.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1f</td>
<td>Internal Marketing</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Positive Moral Emotion</td>
<td>0.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2c</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2d</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2e</td>
<td>Moral identity</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a</td>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b</td>
<td>Negative Moral Emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3c</td>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>0.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3d</td>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3e</td>
<td>Positive moral emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>0.343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3f</td>
<td>Negative moral emotions</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>0.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>---&gt;</td>
<td>Longevity Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>-0.070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This section provides the results and discussion of hypothesised relationships. In total twenty three relationships were tested in the hypothesised model, of which nine relationships were found not significant, but fourteen hypotheses yielded significant relationships. All the results including path coefficient and critical ratio (t-value) are displayed in Table 8.1. Each hypothesis is discussed below.

### 8.3 Hypotheses Testing Results and Discussions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Pathway</th>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>Critical Ratio</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H5a</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5b</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Longevity Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>-0.726</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6a</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6b</td>
<td>Identity Salience</td>
<td>--- &gt;</td>
<td>Longevity Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>3.85***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *** Significant at $p < 0.001$ (one-tailed tests)

** Significant at $p < 0.01$ (one-tailed tests)

* Significant at $p < 0.05$ (one-tailed tests)

### 8.3.1 Hypotheses on Internal Marketing and its Relationships

Several studies (i.e., Mitchell and Donald, 1996) investigated the volunteer’s characteristics as antecedents of their moral and pro-social behaviour for helping
others. The present research treated cognitive-affective pathway and marketing as the main antecedents. This group of hypotheses falling under H1 (H1a, H1b and H1c) deal with internal marketing and moral (positive and negative) emotions and moral identity. The results in Table 8.1 showed that internal marketing has positive relationships with both positive and negative moral emotions. However, the path coefficient indicates that internal marketing ($\beta=0.153$, $t=1.936$, $p<0.01$) seems to have a stronger positive relationship with negative moral emotions as compared to positive moral emotions ($\beta=0.133$, $t=1.901$, $p<0.01$). It means negative moral emotions can be more easily improved through internal marketing, or internal marketing is more useful when volunteers are suffering from negative moral emotions.

On the other side, internal marketing is positively linked to moral identity ($\beta=0.241$, $t=2.894$, $p<0.001$). This means internal marketing supports volunteers’ moral identity or internal marketing is useful to promote volunteer’s moral identity. This finding is significant since moral identity is a relatively new topic in the charity marketing literature, and its drivers are not well understood. In sum, the hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c are all accepted.

Internal marketing is a major focus of the present study. Therefore, the group of hypotheses (H1d, H1e and H1f) deal with internal marketing and mediation, as communication is a key antecedent of non-material benefits and this also influences how people perceive the relationship with a charity (Macmillan et al., 2005). Table 8.1 shows that all relationships between internal marketing and mediation affect of empathy and gratitude are positive and significant, except internal marketing to identity salience. Internal marketing has a stronger relationship with empathy ($\beta=0.713$, $t=8.138$, $p<0.001$) as compared to gratitude ($\beta=0.424$, $t=6.245$, $p<0.001$).
Even though in the relationship marketing literature a relationship between marketing and identity salience was suggested (Arnett et al., 2003), it was not supported in the present study: the findings did not support the internal marketing to identity salience relationship ($\beta=0.099$, $t=1.374$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, internal marketing potentially affects volunteers’ empathy with and gratitude to the charity organization. So the hypotheses H1d and H1e are accepted but H1f is rejected.

### 8.3.2 Hypotheses on Moral Identity and Moral Emotions

The hypotheses H2a and H2b focused on cognition to emotion relationships between moral identity and moral emotions. Moral identity has a positive relationship with both positive and negative moral emotions in support of these hypotheses. The estimates indicated that moral identity has a stronger relationship with positive moral emotions ($\beta=0.533$, $t=5.303$, $p<0.001$) than with negative emotions ($\beta=0.298$, $t=3.378$, $p<0.001$). The figures in Table 8.1 show that volunteers’ moral identity is slightly better at explaining variability in positive moral emotions ($\beta=0.533$) than in negative ones ($\beta=0.298$). Nonetheless, the cognitive–affective pathway plays an important role in volunteering behaviour, as both relationships are of high magnitude so both hypotheses H2a and H2b are accepted.

### 8.3.3 Hypotheses on Moral Identity and Effects of Mediation

Hypotheses (H2c, H2d and H2e) explain the relationships between moral identity and emotions mediators’ empathy, gratitude and identity salience. The results are reported in Table 8.1, which show all relationship between moral identity and empathy, gratitude and identity salience are positive and significant. However, the estimates indicate that the relationship between moral identity and identity salience
(β=0.342, t=3.049, p< 0.001) is stronger than those between moral identity and gratitude (β=0.211, t=2.21, p< 0.05) and empathy (β=0.192, t=2.269, p< 0.05).

The figures in Table 8.1 reflected the importance of moral identity. For example, in the presence of moral identity, mediation effects of empathy, gratitude and identity salience potentially play a positive role for the relationship between the volunteer and charity organization. Thus, moral identity is a most influential antecedent in the present study context. In sum, hypotheses H2c, H2d and H2e are all accepted.

### 8.3.4 Hypotheses on Moral Emotions and its Relationships

According to Smith and Ellsworth (1985), and Tangney et al. (2007) additional research is needed to explore how the relationship between environment and behaviour is mediated by emotions which can cause a change in behaviour. The group of hypotheses H3 (H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e and H3f) is based on relationships between moral emotions and empathy, gratitude and identity salience (these concepts then shape behavioural outcomes).

The results displayed in Table 8.1 show that only the relationship between positive moral emotions and identity salience (β=0.343, t=3.406, p< 0.001) and the relationship between positive moral emotions and gratitude (β=0.136, t=1.692, p< 0.01) were significant, as per H3e and H3c respectively. All the other H3 relationships, those of negative moral emotions with empathy (β=0.045, t=0.724, p> 0.05), identity salience (β=0.026, t=0.333, p> 0.05) and gratitude (β=0.034, t=0.483, p> 0.05); and positive moral emotions with empathy (β=0.041, t=0.586, p> 0.05), are insignificant. It should be noted that positive moral emotions has a stronger positive relationship with identity salience (β=0.343) in comparison to gratitude (β=0.136).
McCullough et al. (2001) explained three levels of emotional process: Empathy operates when a person gets an opportunity to respond to another person’s well-being. Guilt or shame operates when a person fails to meet the standards. Gratitude operates when a person is an object of, or receives, pro-social behaviour. They suggested that gratitude is a response to pro-social behaviour and almost the same conception is delivered by the present study.

On the other hand, relationships between positive moral emotions and empathy and between negative moral emotions and empathy, gratitude and identity salience are not significant. The reason might be that in the present study emotions are specified as positive moral emotions and negative moral emotions, which is a contribution of the present study. According to the reported data, no significant relationships were found in negative moral emotions with the mediators but positive moral emotions only did not work with empathy. So these figures signified that empathy has no relation with either positive or negative moral emotions, but identity salience and gratitude mediate effects only in the presence of positive moral emotions (for mediation details see section 8.3.5). In sum, hypotheses H3a, H3b, H3d and H3f are rejected, and hypotheses H3c and H3e are accepted.

8.3.5 Hypotheses on Mediation and Outcomes: Empathy, Gratitude, Identity Salience, Participation and Longevity Turnover Intentions

As Michalski and Helmig (2011) suggested, additional research needs to look into attitude and behaviour of volunteers’ participation. Therefore, the present research measured the cognitive–affective pathway in attitude formation and its effect on behavioural outcomes of participation and longevity turnover intentions. The group
of hypotheses (H4a, H5a and H6a) explains relationships between the mediator constructs empathy, gratitude and identity salience and the desired outcome of participation. For example, Tajfel and Turner (1979) mentioned that sustainable commitment is an alignment among identity, emotions and participations. The present study identifies that the relationships between identity salience and participation ($\beta=0.054$, $t=0.602$, $p>0.05$); gratitude and participation ($\beta=0.017$, $t=0.189$, $p>0.05$) are insignificant though McCullough et al. (2001) agreed that gratitude is a force for acting pro-socially. Only the relationship between empathy and participation ($\beta=0.210$, $t=2.189$, $p<0.05$) is positive and significant. Similarly, Bagozzi et al. (1996) stated that empathy significantly affect donors’ behaviour. Therefore, it is concluded that only empathy could mediate the influence of moral identity and internal marketing on participation. The identity and transformation of self come through participation which influences the commitment to an action (Drury and Reicher, 2005). The present study did not find any evidence of relationships between gratitude and identity salience with participation. Therefore, hypotheses H4a is accepted but H5a and H6a are rejected.

Chawla and Sondhi (2011) focused on demographic and organizational factors for predicting turnover intentions but did not cover the psychological factors’ correlations with turnover intentions, which might have useful implications. Therefore they recommend that for a comprehensive understanding of turnover intentions, future work should capture the interplay among organizational and personal variables in predicting these intentions. This is a better approach than focusing on one type of predictor, because such a conceptualization would explain the organizational environment in which an individual can predict the intention to stay with the organization (Chawla and Sondhi, 2011). So, in the present research
longevity turnover intentions were treated as future behaviour of volunteers in the charity.

Indeed, much literature on social identity theory suggested participation is an outcome in the social movement context, which was tested in a charity context in this study. Participation and longevity turnover intentions are both expected outcomes of membership and the relationship with the organization. The group of hypotheses (H4b, H5b and H6b) deals with the other outcome of interest in the present study, which is longevity turnover intentions. The results explain that only the relationship between identity salience and longevity turnover intentions ($\beta=0.374$, $t=3.85$, $p<0.001$) is significant. The other links, between empathy and longevity turnover intentions ($\beta=-0.070$, $t=-0.721$, $p>0.05$), and gratitude and longevity turnover intentions ($\beta=-0.066$, $t=-0.726$, $p>0.05$), are insignificant. In sum, only hypothesis H6b is accepted and hypotheses H4b and H5b are rejected.

Gratitude is a two-fold emotion and brings well-being and strengthens human values. It acts as a motivator and as a response to moral behaviour (McCullough et al., 2001). In the present study it acts as a motivator of volunteering behaviour but not as a response to moral behaviour. Therefore, the present study clarified that identity salience mediates the influence of moral identity and positive moral emotions on longevity turnover intentions. Longevity turnover intentions are not much studied in charity organizations even in a commercial organization context.

However, it was observed that mostly the hypothesized paths (H1f, H3a, H3f, H3b, H3d, H4b, H5a, H6a and H6b) have no significant relationships which were linked to mediators. So for further confirmation ‘the Sobel Test’ was applied by using the online facility that can be accessed through a link (http://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc3/calc.aspx?id=31). This test confirmed that not all proposed
mediation worked in the context (see Appendix 9), except the mediation of empathy from moral identity ($z=1.571$) and internal marketing to participation ($z=2.111$) and mediation of identity salience from positive moral emotions ($z=2.550$) and moral identity to longevity turnover intentions ($z=2.380$).

8.4 Trimmed Model

On the basis of the results provided by the structural model, it was decided to trim the model to improve the goodness of fit of the hypothesised model, by removing insignificant paths between constructs. Nevertheless, it is crucial to reiterate that the formulation of alternative models must be guided by substantive theoretical and empirical considerations and they must be practically meaningful (Hair et al., 1998). The trimmed model is used to get the absolute value of hypothesized relationships and focus on significant relationships. The factor loadings and pathway results of the trimmed structural model are shown in Figure 8.2 below.
Table 8.2 shows a comparison between the hypothesised and trimmed models which indicates that the trimmed model improves the chi-square model fit, but not the goodness of fit indices generally. Notwithstanding this, to check the robustness of the pathway results and the goodness of fit indices observed above, it is necessary to implement a parsimonious version of the trimmed model.
Parsimony is a scientific method applied to get findings that are less prone to errors and provides an achievable and meaningful model when problem solution is a critical issue in research. This improves the understanding of the problem and factors that influence it and increases the reliability and generalizability of the findings (Sekaran, 2003: p. 26).

### 8.5.1 Model Fit

“A model is said to be identified if [...] the number of parameters to be estimated should not exceed the number of distinct elements in the variance-covariance matrix of observed variables” (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996; p: 146). According to Iacobucci (2010) chi-square behaves when a model is true and showed contentment with the null hypotheses that a model holds with large sample, and also explained the values of test statistics and degree of freedom (DF). The rule of degrees of freedom being non-negative is easy to check (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). However, Bentler (1990) suggested the use of CFI fit indices in the case of high power to reject a model due to large sample size which also evaluates the degree of misspecification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>IFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesised</td>
<td>679.152</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trimmed Model</td>
<td>684.038</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irrespective, given the sensitivity of certain fit indices to model complexity and sample size considerations, the present study decided to implement the parsimonious structural model as recommend by many authors (Williams and Hazer, 1986; Bentler and Chou, 1987; Anderson and Garbing, 1988). The hypothesized model is acceptable but the parsimonious technique improves the theoretical explanation and goodness of fit of the model.

8.5.2 Parsimonious Model

SEM is sensitive to sample size and the parameter-observation ratio. As a rule of thumb, sample size should be five times the number of estimated parameters to achieve fully reliable estimates (Bentler and Chou, 1987). Therefore, Williams and Hazer’s (1986) technique of parsimonious estimation was applied to deal with the sample size issue. In sum, it was decided to perform the parsimonious model in the present research to achieve the rule of thumb sampling requirement of a 5:1 ratio of observations to estimated parameters.

The parsimonious model was performed by computing the composite measures of all items as indicators of latent constructs. In reflective constructs the value of the path between latent construct and composite indicator is set to the square root of scale alpha coefficient and the error term at one minus the alpha value. However, it is different for single item constructs, e.g., longevity turnover intentions. For the present research, it was assumed that the reliability of single item constructs is 0.90 (Anderson and Garbing, 1988). By applying this technique the Hoelter index (relates to model Chi-square and its p-values and tells about a sample size) provided the exact measure of sample size the present research used. This parsimonious model is reported below in ‘Figure 8.3’.
Model Fit Index of this model is:

**Chi-square** = 48.135, **Degrees of freedom** (DF) = 28, **Probability level** = 0.010

**GFI**: 0.957, **CFI**: 0.961

**IFI**: 0.962, **RMSEA**: 0.057

After adding the composite measures and their constraints to the model, results were achieved again through running the model fit in AMOS. The path coefficients remained stable between the full information and parsimonious models. Thus, the hypotheses results explicated above are robust to the sample size issue. It is significant to note that the parsimonious model improved the goodness of fit results markedly. For example, degree of freedom was reduced to 28 and chi-square was only 48.135. The probability level now showed the actual level of 0.010.
8.6 Conclusion

This chapter explained how the hypothesised relationships were tested by applying structural model estimation using the AMOS application. The model provided results that many of the proposed relationships exist. This chapter also provided an interpretation and discussion of the results for the conceptualization of the cognitive–affective constructs. In general, moral identity and moral emotions do have benefits in terms of the development of pro-social behaviours reveal the same dimensions in charity context. They showed a positive association with other constructs, especially with the emotional processes of empathy and gratitude. Also, internal marketing, adapted from operational organizations, performed well in the charity context as a driver of psychological processes of volunteer motivation. More detail of the present study’s contributions and limitations will be provided in the next chapter.
Chapter 9-Conclusion and Implications

9.1 Overview

The present research is an empirical study that systematically and quantitatively analysed the application of internal marketing for promoting volunteerism in charities. This chapter provides a brief outline of findings achieved from the cross sectional survey and explains their implications for the literature and practitioners. This chapter is structured around three main research issues: 1) key findings and contributions, 2) implications and 3) limitations and directions for future research. Contributions and implications have been drawn from the findings and conclusions derived from both measurement and structural models. It is believed that the present research has managed to fill a gap that existed in the literature to date, in the charity context, and contributes in marketing and strategy scholarship applied to charities.

9.2 Research Summary

A major stream within research on social marketing for charities is volunteers’ management. And since volunteers closely resemble the existing supporters that the present study is interested in, it is worth exploring the conceptualization of volunteer attitude formation. It is possible that this research has important groundings necessary to develop and understand the initiative of exploring existing volunteer attitude development further. Social identity theory was used to explain conceptual aspects of the present research, not least to provide generalised and broader applications. The dimensions of the cognitive–affective pathway identified within this study of charity organization are potentially applicable to all non-profit organizations.
To conduct this research, careful selection of the research approach, strategy, data collection, analysis and overall research methodology was effected after contemplation of the research purpose. Indeed, to address the research objectives, this study adopted a hypothetico-deductive approach where hypotheses carried the proposed relationship between key constructs (details are in section 4.5). To develop a survey instrument the hypotheses and a conceptual model was formulated from the literature. Volunteers were also consulted in the process of conceptualizing and operationalizing the model and constructs. Indeed, in the present research knowledgeable volunteers were surveyed who work for the charities. These volunteers formed a group of well informed respondents who know about charities’ practices. Ultimately, valid quantitative data were collected via mails, emails and web-based link.

The results were presented and subsequently analysed by using descriptive statistics, reliability and validity checks and multivariate data analysis. However, the operationalization of constructs was tested by using EFA, CFA and associated validity tests. In the end, SEM was run to examine the model fit and test the hypotheses. The present empirical study examined relationships (see Figure 4.1) among internal marketing, moral identity, moral emotions, emotional processes, participation and intentions. Within such a nomological net, comprising variables that are at the same time exogenous and endogenous, SEM is an appropriate analytical technique. Then, results were interpreted in light of the study context and more generally in relation to the extant literature. Many of the issues which highlight the need for this research also become more salient as the investigation progressed; such as, the implications of investigating attitude development for marketing
strategy became more relevant in the present research for volunteers increased participation and retention with charities.

Overall the present study suggested that it is a good exercise for charities to use internal marketing to build positive expectations for new volunteers’ engagement. Acknowledgement of factors that influence volunteering can assist volunteers’ intentions to stay with organizations and increase volunteers’ participation. This research identified that there is a relation between cognitive elements and future behaviour intentions. The following Table 9.1 summaries the research objectives and research questions, and the results from measurement and structural models which answer the research questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Path Analysis and Measurement Model</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 1</td>
<td>Question 1</td>
<td>H2a, H2b</td>
<td>H2a, H2b: Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 2</td>
<td>Question 2</td>
<td>H2c, H2d, H2e, H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3f, H3e</td>
<td>H2c, H2d, H2e, H3c, H3e: Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H3a, H3b, H3d, H3f: Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td>Question 3</td>
<td>H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H1e, H1f, H4a, H4b, H5a, H5b, H6a, H6b</td>
<td>H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H1e, H4a, H5b: Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H1f, H4b, H5a, H6a, H6b: Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td>Empirical Fieldwork</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9.3 Findings and Contributions

The main purpose of this research is the contribution to knowledge and to bridge the gaps found in the literature. The majority of the hypothesised relationships in the present research are significant except for a few. For example, identity salience had not been empirically tested before in the internal marketing context and this research did not find any evidence of a relationship between internal marketing and identity salience, even though identity salience has performed well with relationship marketing (Arnett et al. 2003). It is also observed that identity salience and gratitude mediate effects only in the presence of positive moral emotions. The reason for this may be that the conceptualization of identity salience and gratitude is new in a negative moral emotions context because the relationship between emotions and identity salience, and gratitude in general, has been significant in previous research (i.e., Fredrickson, 2004; Stryker, 2004) but such research is also very scarce. Conversely, gratitude and identity salience relationship with participation are relatively new (in terms of both conceptualization and contextualization) in the volunteerism literature. However, the present study did not find any evidence of their relationships. Yet gratitude has not been contextualised in charity context when measuring the longevity intentions so the present study is the first to test this relationship, which has been found to be insignificant.

On the other hand, empathy has been a significant contributor in previous research, and it has been tested with emotions and contextualised in charitable contexts (i.e., Bagozzi and David, 1994). It did not perform with positive and negative moral emotions in the present study. The reason may be the conceptualization of empathy in the present study needs reconsideration. Similarly, empathy is major influence for turnover intentions in voluntary work (see Hall, 2010), but did not show up in
the present research. So it is assumed that empathy re-conceptualization can change the results.

However, this study has contributed significantly to many aspects of marketing, and volunteers’ attitude formation in a charity context, by conceptualizing and testing the theoretical model. The present research has contributed to theory, literature, methodology and practice.

9.3.1 Contribution to Theory
Firstly, the study is novel in using social identity theory to encapsulate multiple facets of cognition and affect in the context of charity volunteering. The present research thus adopted a cognitive–affective view, which was conceptualised as moral identity and moral emotions for the first ever time in charity research. The research offered a thorough representation of the pathway between moral identity and moral emotions, ultimately leading to volunteer participation and retention in charity organizations (Reed et al. 2007; Bagozzi and Moore, 1994; Tangney et al., 2007). A review of the previous work on volunteerism (e.g. Reed et al., 2007 and Tangney et al., 2007) is suggestive that additional research capturing the broader links between moral identity and moral emotion is required.

Moreover, this research applied the social identity theory to reveal how the attitude development of volunteers is linked to their participation and retention in charities. The development of the conceptual model in this study proposed relationships between attitudes and actual behaviours, based on social identity theory (as explained in section 8.3). The model ultimately predicted the desired outcomes of increased volunteer participation and longevity turnover intentions towards the charity. In sum, the study provided empirical results of social identity in a charity
organization that might be generalized to other organizations to develop strong commitment and relationships between service workers and their organizations.

Secondly, prior research within the charity and volunteering context has mainly focused on demographic information (e.g., gender) and relationship characteristics (e.g., Taniguchi, 2006; Wilson, 2000) rather than on understanding the internal/trait base underscoring volunteers’ behaviours. Accordingly, prior studies have described volunteers’ behaviour and motives without testing the intricate nature of volunteers’ attitude formation. Despite the high demand for volunteers in the non-profit and charity sector, there has not been a study to operationalize the cognitive–affective constructs in this context.

Thirdly, this research is novel in exploring the application of internal marketing in charity organizations and how this practice can stimulate volunteers’ attitudes towards positive behavioural outcomes. Internal marketing may be used as an efficient and effective means to deal with the cognitive (i.e., moral identity) and affective (i.e., moral emotion) bases of motivation. For practitioners working at the charity organizations, facing budgetary constraints that impede in many instances use of external marketing, internal marketing can be a powerful tool. Targeted internal marketing, rather than broader communication tools, can help them to improve their marketing practices given that if they over communicate, their messages can create exhaustion and volunteers and donors might gradually stop responding to them. Thus, this research contributes to prior work on marketing interventions in the public sector (Small et al., 2009) and to the internal marketing literature generally (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005; Mitchell and Taylor, 2004), by studying internal marketing as an antecedent to volunteers’ attitudes and pro-social behaviour formation in charities.
Fourthly, previous studies of charities focused on empathy or other relevant emotions as motivation for participation (Bagozzi and Moore, 1994; Fisher et al., 2008). This study has expanded research on affective moral grounds in order to advance a set of intermediary concepts, that is, empathy, gratitude and identity salience; these play an important role in transmitting cognitive–affective attitudes through to behavioural outcomes in terms of participation and longevity turnover intentions. Thus, this study presented a broader view of the role of cognition and affect in charity volunteering behaviours than may be observed in the base literature (Aquino and Freeman, 2009; Karl et al., 2009; Reed et al., 2007; Tangney et al., 2007; Oliver et al., 1993).

9.3.2 Contribution to Methodology

The contribution to methodology is in proposing and applying certain practices that enabled respondents to take part in the research data collection. All the constructs used in this context went through intensive literature review and pilot testing before empirical data were gathered and analysed from the questionnaire survey.

Not much academic and marketing research has focused on the volunteers’ own experiences of volunteering in terms of their identity and emotions. This study is different from many other studies of volunteers’ behaviour conducted in an artificial environment with students (e.g., Bagozzi and Moore, 1994; Arnett et al., 2003; Michalski and Helmig, 2008); the context of this study was real volunteers working for charity organizations. It was difficult to explore the central concepts among volunteers as volunteering is time consuming as compared to donors, who may not spend enough time and know much about organization practices. Still, the study was able to overcome such difficulties in achieving a sizeable sample.
Waters (2009) suggested that charity organizations can conduct surveys through their database to know the standing of the relationships between the organization and its volunteers and to assess the effectiveness of their management strategies. This research aimed to uncover this option by applying appropriate practices to generate a good response from volunteers (see the details in section 5.7). To get a clear picture and appraise the depth of the phenomena many authors (e.g., Arnett et al., 2000) focused on a single charity organization, which potentially lacks generalizability. Therefore, an attempt was made to prevent this limitation in this study by involving many charities and voluntary centres in collecting data.

Mixed methods (interviews and a questionnaire survey) were applied in the pilot study to understand the volunteers’ novel point of view, which is not the mode usually followed in other research. Accordingly, in the main study, all questions were asked simply with easy language so respondents could understand them and respond accordingly. Here, all possible means were used to collect data such as mail questionnaire, online web link and email questionnaire, which is not common in quantitative studies. Most studies used either one or two means for data collection. The main reason for combining approaches is so that the questionnaire was available to these busy respondents at their convenience, which helped to avoid the limitation of a low and/or slow response rate.

For the analysis, more or less the same tests were applied as used by previous researchers. This standardization enhances confidence in the findings. The analysis proceeded systematically through descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, CFA and structural modelling. However, one SEM-based technique that is rarely used in marketing and especially in charity/non-profit studies is the parsimonious estimation technique; this research tested the parsimonious model of relationships.
between constructs in order to ascertain the robustness of the results achieved in the full model. This approach provided the valid and generalizable findings (see section 8.2). No study in the charity context has analysed the data on the extensive level that was done in the present study.

9.4 Managerial Implications

The present research aimed to develop meaningful insights which facilitate practitioners and policy makers involved with charity decisions. This research provides these implications for the charity organization context, which is a most under-researched area in both the marketing and management areas. A comprehensive set of implications is discussed in the section below.

9.4.1 Volunteers’ Management

To develop a volunteer network is crucial for charities and important for the organization's operations. In this regard, launching a comprehensive recruitment campaign is not particularly affordable for charities. Kotler (1979) stated that charities are dependent upon private grants, but the major problem is the market place where charities managers are struggling to manage themselves in a highly competitive public and private environment with a lack of resources, changing attitudes and growing social needs (Kotler, 1979). Charities are service and social oriented organizations that are dependent upon volunteering support which may come either in monetary or non-monetary form (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997). It is difficult for charity organizations to manage resource allocation and resource attraction separately. Therefore retention becomes important once recruitment has been done. That is why charities need an alternative strategy that helps to find and retain the volunteers without expensive campaigns.
Volunteer management addresses multiple issues in charity organizations, from volunteers’ retention and participation to their longevity turnover intentions (Shields 2009; Karl et al., 2008; Peterson, 2004). In the current climate, volunteer management is a basic issue of survival for charity organizations because they are dependent on volunteers for their work force. The present research identified that if charity organizations succeed in managing volunteers’ feelings and emotions then they can retain them. This research has found that empathy, gratitude and identity salience play important roles in building relationships, positive intentions and participation. Therefore, if these attributes are delivered by charity organizations in their internal marketing then charities can better manage their volunteers. This research identified that the volunteer retention problem can be solved by increasing volunteers’ participation and their intention to stay. The results suggest the starting point for this should be the application of internal marketing, which might, for instance, deliver satisfaction to volunteers in terms of the organizations’ objectives, training, and rewarding practices.

The present research provided relationship marketing implications for dealing with volunteers’ participation and longevity turnover intentions as the structural model confirmed that empathy mediates moral identity and internal marketing to participation and identity salience mediates positive moral emotions and moral identity to longevity turnover intention. It is therefore suggested that empathy and identity salience are major mediators that intervene in the relationship between volunteers’ attitudes and their participation and longevity turnover intentions. This research explained that when volunteers identify themselves with an organization, they tend to exert extra effort for its well-being. Furthermore, social identity theory applied in the present study suggested that if organizations can enhance feelings of
belongingness with the organization, then volunteers tend to prolong their stay with the organization. As this study identifies, identification is an essential attribute and motivation for volunteers to be associated with an organization.

In sum, the present research provided an understanding of volunteers’ attitude and behaviour that may be beneficial for volunteers’ retention that would provide a tentative solution to charities’ many resourcing problems. Of course, once volunteers are recruited, the next step is to retain them and this should not be taken for granted. So, by deploying internal marketing to deliver a sense that the charity is a desired place to serve, it is possible for charities to effectively motivate volunteers and achieve important outcomes.

9.4.2 Marketing Framework

This research provided a comprehensive framework for volunteers’ motivation by improving their participation and intentions to work for charity organizations. Volunteers need the information to perform their duties because participation depends upon the individual’s locus of control; if they feel they have control over the outcomes, they will perform better in terms of their voluntary participation (Finkelstein, 2012; Solomon et al., 1979). The results (see table 8.1) showed that internal marketing constitutes a good starting point to influence volunteers’ retention rates because internal marketing is an effective way to enhance an organization’s volunteer membership and relationships therein, which influences an individual’s locus of control.

It should be taken into account that volunteers’ behaviour is different from that of consumers and from paid employees’ behaviour, because the relationship between the organization and employees or customers is transactional in that it involves
obvious give and take (Farmer and Fedor, 1999). In the case of volunteers it is different. Volunteers offer their services without asking for any compensation. However, there are reasons and motivations for volunteering that can be captured by understanding the volunteers’ attitude and behaviour. Here, this study identified moral identity and moral emotions as internal forces for volunteering that are influenced by effective internal marketing applications.

Internal marketing is a comprehensive programme that includes the communication of vision, teaching/training, feedback, acknowledgement and rewards, and accommodation of the volunteer’s need. These components together draw a clear picture of charity functions in the minds of volunteers. This study found that such communication really affects people’s moral identity and moral emotions (e.g., H1a, H1b and H1c), which have a positive but indirect effect on participation and longevity turnover intentions. This effect reflects the volunteers’ positive attitude (see the H2 and H3 sets of paths) toward the charity. However, on the other hand, this internal marketing directly influences volunteers’ emotional process of empathy and gratitude (H1d and H1e); ultimately such relational associations with the organization can hinder any decision to leave volunteering service.

Usually volunteers want to serve a charity that they perceive as worthwhile and where their contributions can really make a difference to an individual, group or society. Internal marketing can fulfil these requirements of volunteers by providing clarity about the charity objectives and motivation to stay and participate. That is why at the organizational level it is becoming more important to design and implement effective internal marketing strategies.

In sum, this study found that internal marketing creates an emotional association between volunteers and charities which serves as motivation for retention. Internal
marketing plays an important role to retain volunteers by creating the awareness about the value of volunteers’ retention, providing information to volunteers that can help them in their task, and removing obstacles to volunteers’ retention. It bolsters volunteers’ social identity attitudes and ultimately increases their participation and longevity turnover intentions towards the charity.

9.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Limitations are an aspect of research that happens due to trade off decisions made to make the research work. This section explains some limitations of the present research and suggestions for how to deal with them in future research.

The research methodology approach used in this research can be adopted in future research as it is the best approach identified to collect data from volunteers. Most studies are either conducted in an artificial setting or other non-profit organizations (e.g. hospitals) or with a student segment of volunteers, which causes a generalizability problem. This problem is overcome in this research by targeting actual volunteers who work for a particular charity organization.

Generalizability is a common problem in the social sciences. It is assumed that the present research covered the diverse nature of charity and volunteering work across England but still there is an issue pertaining to the unequal representation and participation of different charities in the sample due to time and respondents accessibility constraints. Therefore convenience sampling was used that may not have fairly represented the volunteering population. In future research, through superior planning of the sampling frame, this issue can be resolved, which could enhance generalizability.
This research was focused on one key informant group of the present study that is volunteers and their identity and emotions. It did not take into account the perceptions of charities as there may be a difference between the charity perceptions and volunteer perceptions. A more integrated stance should be adopted to identify the range of relational benefits and it is suggested that future studies survey the management’s point of view. Efforts to validate the conceptual model would be improved by replication using multiple respondents from the charity management and volunteer bodies.

Another limitation is the cross-sectionality of the present study, which restricted the ability to draw causal inferences on the constructs proposed. The conceptual model has antecedents, mediators and outcomes that may affect each other over time. However, the cross-sectional design only provides a snapshot of correlational relationships, not the causal data which would be needed to make inferences (Henning et al., 2002). In future, longitudinal research may be useful to establish the hypothesised arrangements of events over time. It should be noted that around 94 percent of articles in marketing use cross sectional approaches (Till, 2005). However the issue in cross sectional approach is that information obtained at one point of time cannot be proven stable and lead to actual measures in the long run. That is why a survey for data collection encountered with some limitations which restricted the data analysis options such as skewness. Therefore longitudinal studies and future research is needed in the present study context that can obtain more valid measures that would clarify the questions. Another limitation in the present research is: a use of self-reported, subjective measures and one measurement format; used throughout the survey. This might cause a problem of common method variance in the analysis, which cannot be ruled out at this stage as an explanation for effects in the model.
Certain procedures were taken to limit methods bias, such as by guaranteeing the anonymity of respondents. However, a better means of facing the challenge of reducing methods bias would be to confirm the present study results with a longitudinal study.

The main objective of the study was to see how emotions and cognition can be influenced by internal marketing to change behaviour in the context of charity volunteerism. The study has only taken small steps towards this end. As such, future research is needed to expand the implications of the findings within charities to attract and retain volunteers in the long run. However the relationship between moral emotions and empathy is not significant which is surprising it may be due to certain characteristics of respondents. Therefore future research is required to learn about the relationships between moral emotions and empathy.

Further, the model may be extended to accommodate more variables which influence charitable behaviour (e.g., moderators of the direct relationships studied). Such work may give a clearer understanding of the relationship between cognitive–affective measures that can be further developed to understand the relationship between attitudes and behaviour such as values and norms. As Soscia (2007) found, attribution or appraisal influence individual feelings about positive and negative outcomes and develop different behavioural responses to success and failure. More research is also needed to demonstrate the present study’s model across different contexts (e.g., different charitable contexts or employees’ volunteering at commercial organizations) and using different measurement methods.

During the research process it was experienced that volunteer centres are involved with charities to help them. It is recommended that future research focuses specifically on the role of volunteer centres in charity organization and the
recruitment of volunteers. What is more, technology now plays an important role in all fields of life, even for charities. During data collection from the charities it was noticed that Facebook is a medium for charities to communicate with present volunteers and recruit new volunteers. There is considerable scope for investigating this role of Facebook in internal marketing.

9.6 Conclusion

This research provided a foundation into issues pertaining to charity volunteers’ decision making. The study provides an understanding of why people get involved in an unpaid and effortful activity for altruistic motives. Overall the proposed model predicted that the attitude formation process can transform behaviour; the cognitive–affective pathway in the presence of positive simulation such as internal marketing positively influences relational and behavioural outcomes. Stimulated by internal marketing, moral identity and moral emotion motivate individuals to volunteer and stay with charity organizations. According to volunteers’ responses, it is true that empathy and identity salience positively mediate the influence of internal marketing, moral identity and moral emotions on participation and longevity turnover intentions. According to the literature review and the present research findings it will be useful to incorporate this study finding into charities’ practices. However, more empirical support is needed for conceptualization and generalization of volunteering behaviour and motivation.
References


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Saridakis, C; G,Baltas; S,Tsafarakis & N,Matsatsinis. Forthcoming. Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization with mutation for optimizing industrial product lines: An application to a mixed solution space considering both discrete and continuous design variables.*Industrial Marketing Management*.


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http://www.ivr.org.uk/ivr-volunteering-stats (accessed on 30th March 2013)

http://www.guardian.co.uk/voluntary-sector-network/2013/mar/22/statistics changes-volunteering-levels (accessed on 30th March 2013)
Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethical Approval

Shaheera Amin
Business School
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT

AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee
University of Leeds

28 June 2011

Dear Shaheera

Title of study: The Effect of Cognitive-Affective Interplay on Volunteerism: An Empirical Study of Charity Organizations

Ethics reference: AREA 10-065

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and following receipt of your response to the Committee’s comments, I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Date</th>
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</thead>
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<td>27/06/11</td>
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<td>AREA 10-065 Summary.docx</td>
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<tr>
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<td>AREA 10-065 information sheet.docx</td>
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</table>

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval. This includes recruitment methodology and all changes must be ethically approved prior to implementation.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited.

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie
Research Ethics Administrator
Research Support
On behalf of Dr Anthea Huckleby
Chair, AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee
CC: Student’s supervisor(s)
Appendix 2: Information Sheet

Dear Sir / Madam,

**Letter of Introduction to Participations**

The researcher is (Shaheera Amin) from the University of Leeds; and she is collecting data from people who offer their services as a volunteer. The research seeks to understand the role that a charity organization’s internal communications play in motivating the volunteers and their key influences on volunteers’ retention.

A survey will be used for the purpose of data collection and will take between 8-10 minutes to complete. The results will only be shown in graphical and tabular forms. All information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and no respondent will be indentified.

If you consent to participate in the survey, please sign the attached consent form. This questionnaire is also available online, which can be found if you use the link below:

[https://www.survey.leeds.ac.uk/volunteerism/](https://www.survey.leeds.ac.uk/volunteerism/)

It is up to your convenience either you like to use online link or a hard copy provided.

Thank you in anticipation for your assistance. If you have any queries regarding this study please use the following contact information.

Yours sincerely,

Shaheera Amin
Doctoral Researcher
Leeds University Business School
Maurice Keyworth Building
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT
Email: bnsam@leeds.ac.uk
Mobile: +44(0) 7576293183
Appendix 3: Consent Form

Participant Consent Form

Title of Research Project: The Effect of Cognitive-Affective Interplay on Volunteerism: An Empirical Study of Charity Organizations

Name of Researcher: Shaheera Amin

Initial the box if you agree with the statement to the left

1 I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet/letter dated explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project. ☐

2 I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. The contact detail of Lead Researcher is bnsam@leeds.ac.uk and ph: 07576293183. ☐

3 I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. ☐

4 I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research ☐

5 I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the principal investigator should my contact details change. ☐

________________________   __________________
Name of participant       Date            Signature
(or legal representative)

________________________   __________________
Name of person taking consent       Date            Signature
(if different from lead researcher)
To be signed and dated in presence of the participant

Shaheera Amin

________________

____________________

Lead researcher       Date       Signature

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant
Appendix 4: Final Questionnaire Survey

No.____

Questionnaire

Please tick the appropriate answer.

Q1. Have you done any work as a volunteer for a charity organisation in the UK?

1. Yes  2. No

If your answer is ‘Yes’ in ‘Q1’ then you can proceed to ‘Q2’.
If your answer is ‘No’ in ‘Q1’ then you don’t need to proceed. Thank you for your time.

Q2. Please mention the name of charity you served most recently in the UK?

(Please write in here):

Q3. For how long have you served your most recent/current charity organization in the UK?

(Please write in where appropriate)

1. _________ Year(s)  2. _________ Month(s)  3. _________ Week(s)

Please answer all the questions and tick where appropriate. The following questions need to be answer in reference to an organisation you mentioned in ‘Q2’.

Q4. What do you feel about the charity organization and its cause that you served?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>D Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I feel happy that charity organization is serving the social cause</td>
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<td>b. Thinking about the</td>
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<td>Charity cause</td>
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<td>charity cause makes me feel sad</td>
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<td>c. If I never volunteer for this charity I would feel stressed</td>
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<td>d. I often give to this charity because I would feel guilty if I didn’t</td>
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<td>e. If I never give to this charity I would feel bad about myself</td>
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<td>f. I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause</td>
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<td>g. I am proud of being a member of a charity organization</td>
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<td>h. I feel good when people describe me as a typical</td>
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295
For Q5: Listed below are some characteristics that might describe a moral person:
Caring, Compassionate, Fair, Friendly, Generous, Helpful, Hardworking, Honest, Kind

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment visualise in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions.

Q5. How do the characteristics mentioned above affect your thinking, feeling and action being a volunteer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am</td>
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<td>[ ] 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. A big part of my emotional well-being is tied up in having these characteristics</td>
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<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
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<td>c. I strongly desire to have these characteristics</td>
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<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Having all these characteristics is not important to me</td>
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<td>[ ] 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. I often buy products that communicate the fact that I</td>
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<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
297

Q6. Are you genuinely concerned about the charity cause and charity organization for which you are volunteering?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I really feel sympathy for the charity cause</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I really feel sympathy for the charity cause</td>
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f. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics

g. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations

h. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics
b. My charity organization and I know how each other feels

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c. I always see things from the charity organization’s point of view

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d. My charity organization and I understand each other’s values and goals

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e. My charity organization and I care about each other’s feelings

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Q7. What do you feel about the charity organization’s response to your contributions?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. This charity organization values my contribution to its well-being</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b. This charity organization</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>appreciates any extra effort from me</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. This charity organization listens to any feedback I might have concerning the organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. This charity organization shows concern for me</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. This charity organization takes pride in my accomplishments</td>
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Q8. What is your response towards the charity organization?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I feel grateful to this charity organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I feel thankful to this charity organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I do not feel appreciative to this charity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Q9. What is your understanding about the internal marketing of your charity organization?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. This charity organization communicates organization’s vision well to volunteers</td>
<td>☐ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. This charity organization teaches volunteers why they should do things and not just how they should do things</td>
<td>☐ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c. This charity organization gathers data from volunteers to improve their roles and develop the strategy of the charity organization</td>
<td>☐ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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d. This charity organization communicates to volunteers the importance of their contributions

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e. In this charity organization, volunteers who provide excellent services are rewarded for their efforts

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f. This charity organization has the flexibility to accommodate the differing needs of volunteers

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g. This charity organization places considerable emphasis on communicating with its volunteers

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Q10. What are the various outcomes of your volunteering for the charity organization?

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<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
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<tr>
<td>a. A sense of helping others</td>
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<td>b. Having a feeling of accomplishment</td>
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<td>c. Benefiting society, community, and/or the environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Gaining new skills and valuable experience</td>
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<td>e. Socializing and meeting new people</td>
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<td>f. My volunteering is something I rarely even think about</td>
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<td>g. I would feel a loss if I were</td>
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<td><strong>forced to give up this voluntary work</strong></td>
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<td><strong>h. For me, being a volunteer means more than just a contribution</strong></td>
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<td><strong>i. My volunteering is an important part of who I am</strong></td>
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<td><strong>j. I feel a sense of belonging to this charity organization</strong></td>
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<td><strong>k. I care about the long term success of this charity organization</strong></td>
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<td><strong>l. I would describe</strong></td>
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<td>n. I view the relationship with this charity organization as a long-term partnership</td>
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<td>o. I seldom miss an opportunity to tell others about this charity organization</td>
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<td>p. When I tell others about this charity organization</td>
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on, I tend to talk about the organization in great detail.

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<tr>
<th>q.</th>
<th>I have only good things to say about this charity organization</th>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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I am proud to tell others that I work for this charity organization.

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<th>r.</th>
<th>I am proud to tell others that I work for this charity organization</th>
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In general, I do not speak favourably about this charity organization.

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<th>s.</th>
<th>In general, I do not speak favourably about this charity organization</th>
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Q11. Below are statements that pertain to personal attitudes and traits. (Please tick where appropriate)
### Q12 (a). What is your exact role in volunteering for the charity organization? *(Please tick where appropriate according to your routine)*

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<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged</td>
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<td>b. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen I would probably do it</td>
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<td>c. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they simply got what they deserved</td>
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### Statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>To a low extent</th>
<th>To a high extent</th>
<th>Not Applicable</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I help the charity organization in</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>sponsorship seeking</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. I help in door to door and street collection</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c. I help the charity organization to provide the needed services for community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>d. I help the charity organization in their administrative work</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>e. I organize events that support the charity organization</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
<td></td>
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**Q12 (b). How much time do you spend volunteering for the charity organization per week, on average? Please write in here (e.g. hours):**

**Q13. How long do you intend to work as volunteer for this charity organization?**

- [ ] 1. Up to 3 Months
- [ ] 2. 3 to 6 Months
- [ ] 3. 6 to 12 Months
- [ ] 4. 1-2 Years
- [ ] 5. 2-3 Years
- [ ] 6. 3-4 Years
- [ ] 7. 4-5 Years
- [ ] 8. Indefinitely
We will appreciate your response for following questions. Please tick where appropriate.

Q14. Gender
☐ 1. Male
☐ 2. Female

Q15. Age
☐ 1. Under 20
☐ 2. 20-35
☐ 3. 36-50
☐ 4. 51-65
☐ 5. Above 65

Q16. Ethnic Origin
☐ 1. White
☐ 2. Chinese or British Chinese
☐ 3. Asian or British Asian
☐ 4. Black or British Black
☐ 5. Other

Q17. Education
☐ 1. GCSE
☐ 2. Diploma/Certificate
☐ 3. Graduation
☐ 4. Post Graduation
☐ 5. Other

Q18. Occupation (here you can select more than one option if applicable)
☐ 1. Full Time
☐ 2. Part Time
☐ 3. Self-Employed
☐ 4. Retired
☐ 5. Unemployed
☐ 6. Student
☐ 7. Other

Q19. If you are working please mention your profession or sector here (e.g. doctor or health sector):

Q20. Annual income
☐ 1. Under £ 5,000
☐ 2. £5,001-£20,000
☐ 3. £20,001-£35,000
☐ 4. £35,001-£50,000
☐ 5. Above £50,000

Thank You
Appendix 5: Email Request

I am (Shaheera Amin) from the University of Leeds; and collecting data from people who offer their services as a volunteer. I would like to kindly request your assistance in facilitating access to your organisation for data collection. Attached herewith is additional information about the study for your kind consideration.

The research seeks to understand the role that a charity organization's internal communications play in motivating the volunteers and their key influences on volunteers' retention. A survey will be used for the purpose of data collection and will take between 8-10 minutes to complete. This questionnaire is also available online, which can be found from the link below:

https://www.survey.leeds.ac.uk/volunteerism/

It is up to respondents ‘convenience either they like to use online link or a hard copy that will be provided if needed. This data collection has three phases and each stage will be followed by two weeks time period.
  - First phase: Distribution of introduction and questionnaire
  - Second Phase: Sending a letter or email about the importance of participation Reminder)
  - Third phase: Final reminder to fill in the questionnaire

I hope we can make a good contribution for literature and for managerial practices. If you have any queries regarding this study please use the following contact information.

Thank you in anticipation for your assistance.

Yours Sincerely,

Shaheera Amin
Doctoral Researcher
Leeds University Business School
Maurice Keyworth Building
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT
Email: bnsam@leeds.ac.uk
Mobile: +44(0) 7576293183
Appendix 6: Summary of Pilot study Results

Summary

Questionnaire has two open questions:

Q4 (b): If you would like to explain your feelings about the cause that charity organization is serving more in detail.

Few people answer it and they expressed it as:

I am really happy to contribute to the cause
I want to be a part of helping people in practical way
Genuine love and concern for them
I feel happy
I feel very worth while
I am excited
I feel compassionate about it
I feel it is emotional as you do get emotionally involve to make a difference
I love to work here in the spare time

Q11(c): If you would like to explain more about your participation or contribution to the charity organization.

Few people answer it and they expressed it as:

I learn so much by being here
This gives me opportunity to help people
Charity is vital and I think it is vital and useful work
I am a case worker and it helps people in debt. It makes a big impact on people’s lives
I answer the clients’ phones and helping out at outreach events
It is important to show God’s love in a practical way
Q4 (a). What do you feel about the charity organization and its cause that you served?

In option: a. I feel sad about the cause, needs more detail and clarity

The options ‘f & g’ are similar:

f. I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause

g. I am proud of being a member of a charity organization

In option: c. I feel quite emotional about my volunteering, the word ‘quite’ is not working well it should change or remove from the statement.

Q5. How do the characteristics mentioned above affect your thinking, feeling and action being a volunteer?

In options ‘f & h’ few respondents asked about that hobbies and activities referred to volunteering or some things else.

f. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics

h. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics

Q6. Are you compassionate for the charity cause and charity organization for which you are volunteering?

This is an important question but needs rewording for the statements.

Q7. What do you feel about the charity organization’s response to your contributions?

Option C’ This charity organization listens to any complaints I might have concerning the organization’ will be work best if the word ‘complaint’ replaced with ‘views, feedback or suggestions’.

Q8. Do you feel gratitude towards the charity organization?

Majority people said that the option a & b are similar

I feel grateful to this charity organization

I feel thankful to this charity organization
Q9. What is your understanding about the internal marketing of your charity organization?

Respondents are fine with this question

Q10. What are the relationship outcomes of your volunteering for the charity organization?

Majority respondents like the sections of this question but they said the question ‘What are the relationship outcomes of your volunteering for the charity organization’ need rephrasing as it is difficult to understand what it means. Only one respondent recommended that each section must have its own question.

Q11 (a): What is your routine of volunteering with the charity organization?

In this question respondents said that the word ‘routine’ should replace with ‘role’.

Few respondents said that this question should be asked in Yes or NO format rather than through scale.

And few said that this questions must has another option ‘Not applicable’

Q11 (b): Time spent for volunteering with charity organization per year

Respondent asked me that it is difficult to answer this question, but if it will be on per week bases then they can answer it.

Q12. How long do you intend to work as volunteer for this charity organization?

Some of the older volunteers recommended that it is good if I make this question as an open question or add another option ‘as long as I can do’.

From Q13 to Q18: Ask about their demographic information

Mostly people suggested that there can be another option of ‘do not want to specify’ in these questions. Only one person asked me that why not I add another question about their profession to know more about their background.

Overall they agree that this questionnaire is understandable and making sense to them but it is bit long. It is useful to ask these questions and has its own value. Grading is good with a range of options. Majority responses to the statement that carries a word ‘not’ is disagree and these statements are not working for them and it is not necessary to ask in this way. Further few words (giving, work, job, routine,
gratitude, compassionate) in this questionnaire need to change with more easy to understandable words.
Appendix 7: Respondents’ Profile (Demographics)

Annual Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual Income</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under £5000</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£5001-20000</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£20001-35000</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£35001-50000</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>Above £50000</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic white</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Chinese or BC</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Asian or BA</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Black or BB</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Others</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Profession

- Profession Account/Finance: 8
- Profession Admin: 10
- Profession Culture/Heritage: 10
- Profession Education: 18
- Profession Health: 4
- Profession IT: 4
- Profession Law: 2
- Profession Local Govt. Officer: 4
- Profession Marketing: 6
- Profession Professional Writer: 11
- Profession Publishing: 4
- Profession Retail: 3
- Profession Sports: 4
- Profession Student: 19
- Profession Support Staff: 6
- Profession Unemployed: 6
- Profession Voluntary: 2
- Profession Volunteer Centre: 2
- Profession Misc: 3
- Profession Missing: 3

Total: 105
Appendix 8: Variability, Multicollinearity and Residual Scatter Plots

### Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>.77</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>-.012</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.8</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>.8</td>
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<td>15</td>
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**Dependent Variable:** Longevity

**Turnover Intentions**
### Coefficients

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<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Beta</th>
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<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>Upper Bound</td>
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**Dependent Variable:** Participation
### Coefficients

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<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
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**Dependent Variable:** Empathy
### Coefficients

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<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
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**Dependent Variable:**
Gratitude
### Coefficients

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<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>$95.0%$ Confidence Interval for $B$</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
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</table>

**Dependent Variable:**
Identity Salience
Note: In all tables the ‘Tolerance’ values are greater than 0.10 and ‘VIF’ are less than 10 that indicated that the data set has good variability and have not violated the homoscedasticity and multicollinearity assumptions.
Appendix 9: Mediation

- Positive Moral Emotions---Empathy---Participation
  
  Sobel test statistic: 0.56802986
  One-tailed probability: 0.28500735
  Two-tailed probability: 0.57001469
  
  Result: Not Significant

- Positive Moral Emotion---Gratitude---Participation
  
  Sobel test statistic: 0.18928423
  One-tailed probability: 0.42493503
  Two-tailed probability: 0.8498700
  
  Result: Not Significant

- Positive Moral Emotions---Identity Salience---Participation
  
  Sobel test statistic: 0.59266187
  One-tailed probability: 0.27670373
  Two-tailed probability: 0.55340747
  
  Result: Not Significant

- Negative Moral Emotions---Empathy---Participation
  
  Sobel test statistic: 0.69386991
  One-tailed probability: 0.24388190
  Two-tailed probability: 0.48776379
  
  Result: Not Significant
• Negative Moral Emotions---Gratitude---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 0.1772860

One-tailed probability: 0.42964187

Two-tailed probability: 0.85928375

Result: Not Significant

• Negative Moral Emotions---Identity Salience---Participation

Sobel test statistic: -0.17119307

One-tailed probability: 0.43203598

Two-tailed probability: 0.86407195

Result: Not Significant

• Moral Identity---Empathy---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 1.57197984

One-tailed probability: 0.05797761

Two-tailed probability: 0.11595523

*Result: Significant

• Moral Identity---Gratitude---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 0.18979362

One-tailed probability: 0.42473543

Two-tailed probability: 0.84947085

Result: Not Significant

• Moral Identity---Identity Salience---Participation
Sobel test statistic: 0.59042575
One-tailed probability: 0.27745263
Two-tailed probability: 0.55490525

Result: Not Significant

- Internal Marketing---Empathy---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 2.11157013
One-tailed probability: 0.01736167
Two-tailed probability: 0.03472334

*Result: Significant

- Internal Marketing---Gratitude---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 0.19038707
One-tailed probability: 0.42450291
Two-tailed probability: 0.84900583

Result: Not Significant

- Internal Marketing---Identity Salience---Participation

Sobel test statistic: 0.55138985
One-tailed probability: 0.29068323
Two-tailed probability: 0.58136646

Result: Not Significant

- Positive Moral Emotions---Empathy---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: -0.45407661
One-tailed probability: 0.32488684
Two-tailed probability: 0.64977369
Result: Not Significant

• Positive Moral Emotions---Gratitude----Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic:  -0.67022984
One-tailed probability: 0.25135564
Two-tailed probability: 0.50271129

Result: Not Significant

• Positive Moral Emotions---Identity Salience----Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic:  2.55077658
One-tailed probability: 0.00537416
Two-tailed probability: 0.01074832

*Result: Significant

• Negative Moral Emotions----Empathy----Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic:  -0.51112443
One-tailed probability: 0.30463196
Two-tailed probability: 0.60926393

Result: Not Significant

• Negative Moral Emotions----Gratitude----Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic:  -0.40383621
One-tailed probability: 0.34316658
Two-tailed probability: 0.68633317

Result: Not Significant
• Negative Moral Emotions---Identity Salience---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: -0.32030268
One-tailed probability: 0.37436945
Two-tailed probability: 0.74873889

Result: Not Significant

• Moral Identity---Empathy---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: -0.68113679
One-tailed probability: 0.24789247
Two-tailed probability: 0.49578494

Result: Not Significant

• Moral Identity---Gratitude---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: -0.69395587
One-tailed probability: 0.24385494
Two-tailed probability: 0.48770988

Result: Not Significant

• Moral Identity---Identity Salience---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: 2.38841753
One-tailed probability: 0.00846055
Two-tailed probability: 0.01692111

*Result: Significant

• Internal Marketing---Empathy---Longevity Turnover Intentions
Sobel test statistic: -0.71156417
One-tailed probability: 0.23836735
Two-tailed probability: 0.47673470

Result: Not Significant

- Internal Marketing---Gratitude---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: -0.72476609
One-tailed probability: 0.23429777
Two-tailed probability: 0.46859554

Result: Not Significant

- Internal Marketing---Identity Salience---Longevity Turnover Intentions

Sobel test statistic: 1.29548938
One-tailed probability: 0.09757573
Two-tailed probability: 0.19515146

Result: Not Significant