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Trait Emotional Intelligence, Motivation, Engagement, and Intended Retention of Court- Appointed Special Advocate Volunteers

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Walden University

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Kim Obenoskey

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

Trait Emotional Intelligence, Motivation, Engagement, and
Intended Retention of Court-Appointed Special Advocate Volunteers

by

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MA, University of Mary Hardin-Baylor, 2003

MBA, Baylor University, 1988

BBA, Baylor University, 1985

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

U.S. volunteer-dependent organizations continue to look for more effective ways to support their volunteer recruitment, training, and retention efforts. No prior research has evaluated what variables support sustained volunteerism for CASA volunteers. The purpose of this study was to investigate sustained volunteerism by evaluating the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) measured using the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, motivation to volunteer using the Volunteers Functional Inventory, volunteer work engagement using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and intended retention of CASA volunteers. One hundred fifty five CASA volunteers from different CASA organizations responded to an on-line survey. Correlational and regression analysis of survey data showed global trait EI to be significantly related to volunteer's intent of finishing their current case and their intent to take a new case within six months after completing their current case. Trait EI and functional motivations to volunteer were significantly related to volunteer work engagement. High values and understanding motives to volunteer were significantly and negatively related to the volunteer considering quitting their current case. Social motivation to volunteer was significantly and positively related to the intent of taking another case within six months after completing the current case. This research is designed to benefit CASA organizations in moving closer to their goal of having a CASA volunteer for each child in the challenging state child welfare foster care systems.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	v
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background	3
Problem Statement	10
Purpose of the Study	12
Research Questions.....	13
Theoretical and Conceptual Framework.....	15
Broaden-and-Build Theory	15
Sustained Volunteerism Model.....	16
Functional Motivation Theory	17
EI Models.....	18
Work Engagement	19
Nature of the Study	20
Definitions.....	21
Assumptions.....	23
Limitations and Delimitations.....	24
Significance.....	26
Summary	27
Chapter 2: Literature Review	30

Introduction.....	30
Literature Search Strategy.....	30
Theoretical and Conceptual Framework for Key Variables	32
Trait EI.....	32
Functional Motivation.....	35
Volunteer Retention	36
Work Engagement	38
Key Variables.....	41
Volunteerism.....	41
Functional Motivation to Volunteer.....	47
Emotional Intelligence	54
Trait EI.....	62
EI and Volunteerism	67
Volunteer Engagement and Retention	69
Functional Motivation and Volunteer Retention	71
Child Advocacy Volunteerism.....	73
Summary and Conclusions	80
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	85
Research Design and Rationale	86
Methodology	87
Target Population.....	87

Sampling Size	88
Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection	89
Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs	90
Data Analysis Plan	102
Threats to Validity	105
Ethical Procedures	106
Summary	107
Chapter 4: Results	108
Data Collection	109
Results	112
Sample Characteristics	112
Summary	121
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations	124
Introduction	124
Interpretation of the Findings	124
Limitations and Generalizability	132
Recommendations	134
Implications and Conclusion	135
References	136
Appendix: Volunteer Functions Inventory	172

List of Tables

Table 1. The Adult Sampling Domain of Trait Emotional Intelligence	92
Table 2. TEIQue Facets, Factors, and Global Scale and Internal Consistencies	93
Table 3. Functions Served by Volunteering and Their Assessment on Volunteers	
Function Inventory (VFI).....	95
Table 4. VFI Populations and Reliability Analysis	96
Table 5. Factors of Engagement and Their Assessment on the Utrecht Work	
Engagement Scale (UWES).....	99
Table 6. Characteristics of Participants	113
Table 7. Correlations Between Predictor and Criterion Variables	118
Table 8. Correlations.....	119
Table 9. Regression Analysis Inclusive of Demographic Data	120

List of Figures

Figure 1. Penner's (2002) causes of sustained volunteerism model.....38

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

An average of four children in the United States die each day as a result of child abuse; 80% of these deaths are children under the age of 4 (United States Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2013). The number of U.S. children who have suffered abuse and neglect and are living in foster care has fluctuated over the last decade but has consistently been between 400,000 and 545,000 (USDHHS, 2013). Children in foster care who are appointed a Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA) have an adult from their community actively monitoring their case and advocating specifically for that child's best interest (National CASA Association, n.d.).

A CASA volunteer represents only one child welfare case at a time and no more than two cases (NCASAA Standards For Local CASA GAL Programs, 2012). In contrast, a Texas Child Protection Service (CPS) caseworker's daily caseload average can range from 14 cases to 48 cases depending on which one of the five CPS departments the case is in (Texas Department of Family and Protective Services, 2013). In 2013, almost 75,000 CASA/GALs (guardian ad litem) in affiliation with one of the 951 locally based CASA programs advocated for 238,527 children in foster care (National CASA Association [NCASAA], 2014). There remained an additional 160,000 children who did not have a CASA voice to speak for their best interest (National CASA Association [NCASAA], 2013; USDHHS, 2014).

CASAs contributed over 5.7 million hours of child advocacy service in 2013 and collectively served about 60% of U.S. children in foster care (NCASAA, 2013). Since the

number of volunteers remained about the same as the prior year and 29% of the CASA volunteers were reported as newly trained during the 12-month reporting period (NCASAA, 2013), approximately that same percentage must no longer be active CASA volunteers.

The importance of supporting children is underlined in the mission statements of CASA organizations. For example, NCASAA's (2015) mission statement reads in part, "...to support and promote court-appointed volunteer advocacy so that every abused and neglected child can be safe, establish permanence and have the opportunity to thrive." Texas CASA's (2015) vision statement simply reads, "A CASA volunteer for every child who needs one." A positive social change opportunity associated with the acquisition and dissemination of this research information is that CASA organizations will have additional information and resources that can support the organization's efforts to attract, train, and retain engaged volunteers. Increasing CASA volunteer recruitment and retention will directly benefit children in foster care as well as communities at large.

When more CASA volunteers are recruited, become engaged in their volunteer work, and retained, more children will receive the benefits associated with having a CASA. CASAs spend the largest portion of their volunteer time in direct contact with the child whose case the volunteer has been assigned to (Caliber, 2004). CASA children and parents of children with a CASA receive significantly more services than those without a CASA (Caliber, 2004; Litzelfelner, 2000). Volunteer-based nonprofit organizations are dependent on a continuous number of active volunteers being available to carry out the organization's social mission. The number of individuals volunteering in the United

States has declined over the last 10 years (USBLS, 2013). This study is timely and relevant because it adds to the limited body of literature evaluating variables that contribute to sustained volunteerism in what are generally long-term (over one year), emotionally stressful volunteer experiences.

This chapter begins with a brief summarization of research literature related to emotional intelligence (EI), functional motivations, volunteer engagement, and volunteer retention. It summarizes current and historical scholarly research and adjunct information that demonstrate the relevance and social significance of a study evaluating variables affecting volunteer retention in a child advocacy organization. It also presents the four specific research questions addressing the purpose of this study and the independent variables (IV) and dependent variables (DV). The theoretical foundations and conceptual frameworks that support this research are identified and explained as well as the rationale for choosing a quantitative research methodology. Specific definitions for this studies IVs, DVs, and other operational constructs used in this paper are also provided. Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of this proposed study are identified and discussed. And lastly, the positive social change opportunity associated with this research are described.

Background

A CASA volunteer has the opportunity to be a constant adult presence in the life of a child going through numerous changes and challenges (NCASAA, 2015). One comprehensive report found that children in Texas who had been in foster care for less than a year had an average of four different living placements. A child in foster care for

1–2 years averages five different placements; a child in foster care for 2–3 years averages six placements, and a child in foster care for 3+ years average 11 different placements (Texas Appleseed Report, 2010). A report that included data from 29 states found that school-aged children in foster care had an average of 2.8 different living placements and a little over 10% experienced 6 or more placements (National Working Group on Foster Care and Education, 2014).

Positive experiences counteract the negative effects of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse, separation from family, transitory living arrangements, and school mobility (National Working Group on Foster Care and Education, 2014). One study found that 75% of California foster care youth had changed schools during their first year in foster care and 49% had changed schools in year two (Frer, Sosenko, Pellegrin, Manchik, & Horowitz, 2013). In a sample of 659 former foster care youth from Washington and Oregon, one third reported having attended 10 or more schools from elementary to high school (Pecora et al., 2006). In addition, state child welfare workers tend to have high turnover rates, so it is likely the child will have more than one state child protection caseworker (Augsberger, Schudrich, McGowan, & Auerbach, 2012). When high school and college age foster youth were asked what the youth believed hindered foster care youth from graduating high school or going to college, the most frequent response was a lack of supportive relationships with caring adults (Day, Riebschleger, Dworsky, Damashek, & Fogarty, 2012). A CASA has the opportunity to be that one consistent supportive relationship that offers the child a positive experience that can help to counteract the negative experiences the child has lived.

Since volunteers do not receive financial compensation for their service work it is advantageous for nonprofit organizations to determine what motivates individuals to choose to volunteer with their particular organization. When possible, it is also advantageous to align individual volunteers with activities or duties that satisfy that individual's primary motive for volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). Volunteers who reported feeling satisfied with their volunteer experience early in the volunteer's tenure were more likely to be engaged in their volunteer work and continue to volunteer (Garner & Garner, 2010; Vecina, Chacón, Sueiro, & Barrón, 2012).

Volunteering has been characterized as prosocial behaviors that are planned, voluntary, and ongoing (Clary et al., 1998). Volunteering, as defined by USBLS (2014), is "activities that are performed through or for an organization for which the volunteer is not financially compensated, except for expenses associated with those activities". One in four U.S. adults was involved in some type of volunteer work in 2014 (USBLS, 2015). The majority of the 62.8 million individuals who volunteered spent their volunteer time with only one of three types of organizations; religious organizations (33.3%), educational organizations (25.1%), and social service organizations (14.4%; USBLS, 2015).

Individuals may volunteer with the same organization and perform the same tasks as other volunteers but may be motivated to do so for very different psychological reasons (Clary et al., 1998; Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1959). Drawing on Katz's (1960) taxonomies of functional theory and using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, Clary et al. (1998) identified six motivational functions underlying

volunteerism; values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. Clary et al.'s (1998) seminal study supported early psychological theorizing that emphasized the importance of matching the person to the situation (Lewin, 1946), in contrast to considering the person or the situation alone as the determinant of behavior.

Satisfying volunteers' initial motives for volunteering has been associated with volunteer retention. Volunteers reported that when they felt their volunteer experience satisfied their primary motive for volunteering they were likely to continue to volunteer. Volunteers who felt that their primary motive for volunteering had not been satisfied indicated they were not likely to continue (Clary et al., 1998; Tschirhart, Mesch, Miller, & Lee, 2001; Vecina et al., 2012).

Individuals who feel that their volunteer efforts are worthwhile and valued by others are more likely to continue their volunteer service as compared to volunteers who did not feel their efforts were worthwhile or valued by others (Murayama, Taguchi, & Murashima, 2013; Stirling, Kilpatrick, & Orpin, 2011). Positive affective well-being has been defined by Ryan and Deci (2001) as feeling like you are "Doing what is worth doing" (p. 145). Work engagement is a positive affective-motivational state of well-being based on the job demands resource (JD-R) model and characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). A study of 232 participants from 18 nonprofit organizations found that volunteer engagement was significantly related to organizational commitment and psychological well-being (Vecina, Chacon, Marzana, & Marta, 2013). Affective (emotional) commitment was shown to have a negative relationship to turnover

intent for volunteers from various Canadian organizations (Valéau, Mignonac, Vandenberghe, & Gatignon Turnau, 2013).

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a type of competence that allows individuals “to identify and express emotions, understand emotions, assimilate emotions in thought, and regulate both positive and negative emotions in the self and in others” (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004, p. 3). A recent medical study evaluated the impact of having a stroke on patient’s EI (Hoffman, Cases, Hoffman, & Chen, 2010). Using medical brain information and administering an EI evaluation, the researchers concluded that there is a close interplay of cognitive and emotional brain circuitry and the emotional circuitry is widely distributed throughout the brain (Hoffman et al., 2010). The relevance of that information to this study is that the researchers suggest that for stroke victims or individuals who have suffered traumatic brain injuries, EI skills can be rehabilitated through intervention programs due to the neuroplasticity of the brain and the extensive emotional network within the brain. This information suggests that from a medical perspective, EI skills can be learned or strengthened through interventions (e.g., training).

EI became widely popular outside academia when Goleman (1995) introduced the construct to practice-driven type audiences. Following Goleman’s (1995) successful book about the importance and application of EI there have been numerous studies of EI’s association with for-profit job variables (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock & Farr-Wharton, 2012; Görgens-Ekermans, & Brand, 2012; Kaur, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2013; Kinman & Grant, 2011). Yet, there remains a paucity of research evaluating the association between EI and volunteerism.

A lot of employment is carried out in what many consider helping professions. Numerous studies have shown relationships between EI and job variables in those type professions. For example, EI has been positively associated with:

caring behaviors in Malaysian nurses (Kaur et al., 2013),

- stress resilience in UK social work students (Kinman & Grant, 2011), and
- job satisfaction and intended retention for Australian state police (Brunetto et al., 2012).

EI has also been negatively associated with stress and burnout for South African nurses (Görgens-Ekermans, & Brand, 2012). Limited EI and volunteerism relationship studies have found that for volunteer private club board members and committee leaders, EI showed a strong relationship with affective (emotional) commitment but not a significant relationship with continuance commitment (Cichy, Jaemin, Seung Hyun, & Singerling, 2007). EI was also found to moderate the effect of subjective workload and burnout in a study of Taiwanese college student volunteers (Kao, 2009).

Many researchers have continued to debate how to best define and measure EI (Antonakis, & Dietz, 2010; Cherniss, 2010; Côté, 2010; Harms & Credé, 2010; Newman, Joseph, & MacCann, 2010; Kaplan, Cortina, & Ruark, 2010; Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2010; Van Rooy, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Petrides, 2010). Others have continued to explore EI's predictive relationships with broad and specific variables across disciplines. After assessing students from Germany (an individualistic culture) and India (a collectivistic culture), Koydemir, Şimşek, Schütz, and Tipandjan (2013) concluded

from their data that EI was equally important to life satisfaction in both cultures, but interestingly, EI influenced life satisfaction differently in the two cultures.

Researchers have associated trait EI with many factors. Trait EI has been positively associated with more frequent use of adaptive coping strategies and infrequent use of maladaptive coping strategies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007) and job performance in high emotion labor jobs (Joseph & Newman, 2010), and negatively associated with job stress for some professional males (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Yet, high trait EI is not inherently adaptive in every situation (Sánchez-Ruiz, Hernández-Torrano, Pérez-González, Batey, & Petrides, 2011). Petrides (2011) cautioned users of EI assessments to be aware that there is no single EI profile that represents the ideal EI *archetype* (p. 661). Certain profiles may be advantageous in some contexts but not in others. For optimal performance the person and the situation should be matched (Clary et al., 1998; Lewin, 1946; Petrides, 2011).

It is not currently known what psychological factors motivate individuals to choose to volunteer as a CASA, or which, if any, motivational factors are significantly related to CASA volunteers work engagement and intended retention. Nor is it currently known if trait EI has a significant relationship with CASA work engagement or if trait EI shows a significant relationship with volunteers' intention to continue volunteering as a CASA. This study was designed to address a gap in the current knowledge of long-term direct service child advocacy volunteerism by exploring the relationships between predictor variables trait EI and motivation to volunteer, with criterion variables of volunteer work engagement and intended retention in one type of child advocacy

volunteer organization. The information gained from this study is intended to serve as a resource for CASA organizations in their efforts of moving closer to CASA's social mission of serving all children in foster care with a court appointed community adult volunteer advocate.

Problem Statement

The growth rate for nonprofit organizations in the United States from 2001-2010 was higher than the growth rate for both government and business sectors. The number of U.S. nonprofit organizations increased 25%, from 1.2 million to 1.5 million (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2012). While nonprofit organizations have grown, in 2013 U.S. volunteer rates were the lowest since 2002 (USBLS, 2013). In line with the U.S. national volunteer rate's downward trend, CASA's 2013 reported the number of volunteers was the lowest it has been in the previous four years (NCASAA, 2013). CASA continues to actively and continuously work to recruit and retain engaged volunteers (NACASAA, 2016).

The lack of a clear distinction between type of EI and not taking context into account has resulted in misinterpretation and misapplication of EI research information (Petrides, 2011). For instance, Joseph and Newman (2010) examined 68 independent samples correlating EI and job performance and found "large differences in predictive validity and subgroup differences between types of EI measures" (p. 72). Trait EI, as differentiated from ability or performance EI, is "a constellation of self-perceptions located at the lower level of personality hierarchies" (Petrides, 2011, p. 657). A personality trait is defined as "a disposition to think, feel, and behave in a characteristic

way over a range of situations” (Pervin, 2000, p. 100). High trait EI has been associated with perceived job control, job satisfaction, and job commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006) and found to have an inverse relationship with acute and perceived chronic stress (Singh & Sharma, 2012). Petrides (2011) proposes that superior job performance will result after an EI profile derived from a contextual task analysis is determined and the individual and job profile are matched.

Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) wrote that from a functionalist approach, humans “are not governed by a rational calculus” (p. 30), stating that measurements of attitudes (i.e., opinions) should be adjunct to theory and “until we have a clearer conception of the nature of attitudes and the manner in which they function, we shall not know what aspects of an attitude are worth measuring” (p. 4). The measurement of motivation to volunteer has been used

- to compare and contrast volunteers to nonvolunteers (Gage & Thapa, 2012; Lai, Ren, Wu, & Hung, 2013; Shye, 2010; Yoshioka, Brown, & Ashcraft, 2007)
- to rank functional motivational factors for volunteering in diverse contexts (Moore, Warta, & Erichsen, 2014; Vocino & Polonsky, 2011)
- to evaluate above average volunteer participation (Finkelstein, 2008; Greenslade & White, 2005; Omoto, Snyder, & Hackett, 2010)
- to measure volunteer turnover intention (Garner & Garner, 2010; Salas, 2008; Van Vianen, Nijstad, & Voskuil, 2008).

The gap in the current literature is that research has not yet quantitatively evaluated the relationships that trait EI and functional motivation to volunteer have with volunteer work engagement and intended retention in the context of a high emotion child welfare volunteer role. The problem this study will help to address is that lack of quantitative research evaluating specific variables that contribute toward volunteer intended retention in the context of an organization where volunteers are expected to commit to volunteering regularly (10-15 hour per month) and long-term (average of 19.2 months for one case) with children and families in crisis (NCASAA, 2013). The significance of this study in relation to the current research of EI, functional motivation to volunteer, work engagement, and sustained volunteerism is a response to the collective call for researchers to recognize the importance of considering context when evaluating the relationships between variables (Cherniss, 2010; Deci & Ryan, 2011; Newman, Joseph, & MacCann, 2010; Petrides, 2010; Van Vianen, Nijstad, & 2008).

Purpose of the Study

A large comparative study of 2831 child welfare cases found that the cases assigned to a CASA were considered to be the more difficult child welfare cases. CASA children were significantly more likely than children without a CASA to have experienced a severe level of harm due to child abandonment, exploitation, or educational maltreatment (Caliber, 2004). Effective CASA volunteers must be able to deal with the inherent emotionality of the challenges experienced by children and families in crisis. CASA volunteers need to be engaged in their advocacy work and satisfied in their volunteer role in order for the volunteer to optimally advocate for their child's best

interest and continue to volunteer as a CASA throughout the year and a half the volunteer is expected to serve on their child's case (NCASAA, 2013).

This study evaluated the relationships of predictor and criterion variables in the unique context of a volunteer based child advocacy organization. A current EI meta-analysis found that EI positively predicted performance for high emotional labor jobs (Joseph & Newman, 2010). High trait EI has been positively associated with better mental health, including using more frequent adaptive coping strategies, less negative rumination, and experiencing greater well-being (Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Liu, Wang, & Lu, 2013; Lizeretti & Extremera, 2011; Malouff, Schutte, & Thorsteinsson, 2014; Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010; Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007; Vesely, Siegling, & Saklofske, 2013). All of the above variables can be advantageous for, and contribute toward, a positive and satisfying CASA volunteer experience.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to address the problem of the lack of research on sustained volunteerism in a child advocacy organization. Information was collected and statistically analyzed to determine whether trait EI and volunteer motivation showed significant relationships to CASA volunteers' work engagement and intended retention.

Research Questions

The research questions guiding this study were designed to investigate two predictor variables (IVs) and two criterion variables (DVs). The IVs were trait EI and functional motivation to volunteer; the DVs were volunteer work engagement and intended retention. Trait EI was measured using the TEIQue (Petrides, 2009), functional

motivation to volunteer was measured using the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998), and volunteer work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale ([UWES]; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Intention to continue volunteering was measured with two scaled questions asking the likelihood of volunteer continuation.

Statistical relationships were examined in order to investigate four research questions:

- RQ1: Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
 - H1₀: There is not a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
 - H1₁: There is a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
- RQ2: Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
 - H2₀: There is not a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
 - H2₁: There is a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteer intended retention.
- RQ3: Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
 - H3₀: There is not a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteer work engagement.

- H3₁: There is a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' work engagement.
- RQ4: Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
 - H4₀: There is not a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASAs work engagement.
 - H4₁: There is a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASAs work engagement.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Although theory and model are often used synonymously in scientific writing, the two should be distinguished from one another (Bordens & Abbott, 2014). Theories represent an organized system of accepted knowledge for known phenomena. Theories guide the direction of research and help to explain or predict relationships among variables in a plausible, logical way. A model is a specific implementation of a general theoretical view (Bordens & Abbott, 2014). This research sought to identify significant relationships between predictor and criterion variables in a unique organizational setting based upon existing theories and models as described in the following section and further discussed in Chapter 2.

Broaden-and-Build Theory

Traditionally psychologists have developed models and theories that were designed to diagnose and treat psychological problems (Fredrickson, 1998). That approach resulted in little theory building and hypothesis testing on the nature and value

of positive emotions. In response to the lack of studies on positive emotions, Fredrickson (1998) developed the broaden-and-build model of positive emotions. The broaden-and-build theory posits that “positive emotions broaden the scopes of attention, cognition, and action and they build physical, intellectual, and social resources” (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 220). Positive emotions are “vehicles for individual growth and social connections... [and] are essential for optimal functioning” (p. 224). This research project can help support CASA organizations and CASA volunteers’ recognition and use of personal and organizational resources by quantitatively evaluating the relationship between the positive emotions of trait EI and the positive psychological state of work engagement in order to optimize volunteer functioning.

Sustained Volunteerism Model

Penner (2002) stated that the study of sustained volunteerism needed good theory based suggestions. Penner argued that there is not a shortage of individuals willing to volunteer; the challenge is volunteer retention. Penner (2002) developed a conceptual model of sustained volunteerism based on earlier work that sought to predict organizational prosocial behavior (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). A diagram of Penner’s model can be found in Chapter 2. According to the model, an individual’s decision to volunteers is most strongly influenced by the individual’s dispositional factors. The volunteer’s decision to remain long-term with the organization is most strongly influenced by the volunteer’s attitude toward, and level of involvement with, the organization.

Organizations must work to maximize the volunteer's early satisfaction and work engagement in their volunteer role in order for the individual to sufficiently develop a role identity with the organization (Penner, 2002). When a volunteer has remained with the organization for enough time, generally several months, their role identity will have formed and the influential dispositional and organizational variables should become less important to the volunteer. Once volunteer role identity has emerged, the volunteer is more likely to remain an active long-term contributor to the organization. This research evaluated the relationships of the dispositional factors of trait EI and motivation with volunteer work engagement and intent to continue.

Functional Motivation Theory

Functionalism is a U.S.-founded system of psychology influenced by the writings of William James (1887-1919). Functional psychology “views the organism in the environment as subject to stimuli arising both from the environment and from conditions within” (Chaplin, 2000, p. 417). A functional framework for evaluating volunteer motivation was used in this research. Functional theory proposes that individuals can engage in the same activities with the same organization but do so for different psychological reasons (Clary et al., 1998; Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1959). There have been a number of studies using functional motivational theory to explain the rationale underlying the prosocial behavior of volunteering and its relationship to motive satisfaction (Agostinho, & Paço, 2012; Asah & Blahna, 2012; Clary & Orenstein, 1991; Clary et al., 1998; Gage & Thapa, 2012; Lai, Ren, & Wu, 2013; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Vocino, & Polonsky, 2011). This study evaluated

relationships between the predictor variable of functional motivation for volunteering and the criterion variables of volunteer engagement and intended retention.

EI Models

Two competing models of EI are the mental ability model and trait EI model (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004; Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007). EI theory has been criticized as being primarily structural and descriptive; a simple list of personal qualities that do not offer explanation (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004, p. 25). The ability EI model emphasizes the *intelligence* aspect of EI and is based on the historical work of Thorndike's (1920) theory of social intelligence, Sternberg's (1986) theory of social intelligence, and Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Trait EI theory has been distinguished from other EI approaches by being defined and conceptualized as a type of personality trait. Trait EI does not claim to be distinct from personality but a part of personality constructs on the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Van der Linden, Tsousis, & Petrides, 2012). Trait EI theory recognizes that emotional experiences are inherently subjective experiences and subjective experiences cannot be measured using the same approach as one would measure cognitive intelligence (Petrides, 2011). Much like personality profiling, trait EI profiles are likely to have predictive power only in specific contexts and only in relation to specific work-related outcomes (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

CASA volunteers are expected to spend on average 10 hours per month monitoring their assigned case. CASA volunteer role activities will include gathering

case information, recommending services for the child and families, and keeping the court informed by writing court reports and appearing in court (Caliber, 2004; NCASAA, 2014). Many of the CASA volunteer activities could be interpreted as emotionally stressful when a child's safety and well-being are at risk. It has been demonstrated that high trait EI individuals report less job stress because they feel confident in dealing with stressful events. High trait EI individuals appraise stressful events as challenges as opposed to threats (Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2008; Van der Linden, Tsaousis, & Petrides, 2012). This research evaluated EI's relationship to volunteer work engagement and intended retention by evaluating volunteers' trait EI in the specific context of a volunteer-based child advocacy organization.

Work Engagement

The concept of work engagement has very recently emerged in part as a response to positive psychology's call for researchers to move beyond studying negative states and scientifically explore the positive effects of working (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). The job demands-resources (JD-R) model has been used as the theoretical framework for most studies on work engagement (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). The JD-R model is based on the assumption that every occupation is unique in factors that influence job-related stress. The JD-R model uses job demands and job resources as predictors of employee well-being regardless of the occupational group and proposes that it is the interaction between job demands and job resources that are critical in the development of job-related strain and motivation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Most studies testing the JD-R model have been consistent with the conservation of resources (COR) theory

(Hobfoll, 2001) which states that motivation is directed toward the accumulation and maintenance of resources (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Volunteer engagement is characterized by the volunteer “feeling energetic” and having an “affective connection” to the volunteer work as opposed to experiencing the work as “stressful and demanding” (Vecina, Chacon, Sueiro, & Baron, 2012, p. 131). Work engagement is considered the antipode of job burnout (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Volunteers who measure higher for trait EI may have positive emotional resources that support high engagement and low intent to quit their volunteer work. Volunteers whose motivation to volunteer align with their volunteer experience may be more likely to become engaged in the volunteer role and less likely to quit.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative approach to research is appropriate when the researcher is seeking to identify variables, relating the variables to a research question, using standards of validity and reliability of an instrument intended to measure the information numerically, and employing statistical analysis for data interpretation (Creswell, 2009). This quantitative research project collected data and statistically analyzed the relationships between the two predictor (IV) variables of trait EI and functional motivation to volunteer with the criterion (DV) variables of volunteer work engagement and volunteer intended retention with the organization. Four specific research questions evaluating the relationships between trait EI, motivation to volunteer, volunteer work engagement, and intention to continue volunteering with the volunteer organization were addressed.

Established measurement scales for trait EI, functional motivation to volunteer, and work engagement was reproduced with permission into a single survey. Trait emotional intelligence was measured using the TEIQue (Petrides, 2009), functional motivation was measured using the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998), and volunteer work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Intention to continue volunteering was measured with two scaled questions asking the likelihood of continuation with the CASA organization.

In the social sciences, variables are considered related when changes in the value of one variable bring about either positive or negative changes in the value of the other variable (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, Chapter 3). Information was collected from a nonrandom sample of CASA volunteers. Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Correlational calculations were used to show the relationships between predictor and criterion variables (Field, 2009, Chapter 7). Simple regression calculations were used to evaluate the significance of predicting criterion from predictor variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to measure the strength and direction of the associations between both predictor variables to each of the criterion variables (Bordens & Abbot, 2014; Field, 2009).

Definitions

Best interest of the child: A deliberation that courts undertake when deciding what services a child needs and who is best suited to take care of the child (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2013).

CASA: Court Appointed Special Advocate.

Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act of 1974 (CAPTA, P.L. 93-247): A piece of U.S. child protection legislation that was signed into law on January 31, 1974. States that accepted CAPTA funding must meet certain requirements, including providing a GAL to every abused or neglected child whose case is subject to a court proceeding, which has been retained through CAPTA's 1978, 1984, 1988, 1992, 1996, 2003, and 2010 reauthorizations (USDHHS, 2010).

Engagement: A positive motivational concept pertaining to any type of challenging work (Bakker & Leiter, 2010) that is considered the antipode of job burnout (Bakker et al., 2008). Engagement has been defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

Emotional intelligence: A construct describing “actual or perceived differences in the extent to which people attend to, process and utilize affect-laden information” (Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Psychology, 2005, p. 306)

Guardian ad litem: An individual who is court-appointed to represent the best interests of a child.

Intended retention: An individual's intention to stay with the organization. Used interchangeably with intention to remain and intention to continue.

Motivation: An internal psychological process that seeks equilibrium through action (Shye, 2010).

Positive emotions: A positive affect experience that can “broaden the scopes of attention, cognition, and action and build physical, intellectual, and social resources” (Frederickson, 2001, p. 220).

Trait emotional intelligence: An individual’s self-perception of their emotional abilities. Trait EI is not a single personality trait but a trait located at the lower levels of the personality hierarchies. Trait EI is also referred to as trait emotional self-efficacy (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007).

Volunteer: Persons who do unpaid work, except for reimbursed expenses associated with that work, through or for an organization (USBLS, 2015).

Assumptions

Several assumptions are associated with this study. First, it was assumed that the instruments used for the measurement of variables accurately measure the constructs as defined in this research. Specifically, the TEIQue measures trait EI, VFI measures volunteer functional motivation, and the UWES measures volunteer engagement. Secondly, it was assumed that participants answered the survey questions truthfully. All data for this research project were obtained from a single online survey. Broad participant demographic information was requested in the survey but the information requested was not specific enough to identify either individual participants or local CASA program affiliation. Thirdly, it was assumed that the sample would adequately represent CASA volunteer diversity.

Limitations and Delimitations

There were several limitations and delimitations inherent to the proposed study. First, due to the study utilizing a nonrandom sample, the results from this study cannot be readily generalized to all CASA volunteers throughout the nation. Secondly, it is clear from Penner's (2002) model of sustained volunteerism that there are multiple dispositional, demographic, and organizational variables that interact to support sustained volunteerism. This study was limited to the dispositional predictor variable trait EI and the personal belief or values predictor variable functional motivation to volunteer with the criterion variables of volunteer work engagement and intention to continue volunteering with the CASA organization.

Thirdly, information for this study was obtained from self-report measures that can be prone to positive response bias (c.f., Bradburn, Sudman, & Wansink, 2004). Self-reported EI measures have been shown to be more vulnerable to distortion than performance based EI measures (Christiansen, Janovics, & Siers, 2010; Tett, Freund, Christiansen, Fox, & Coaster, 2012). Self-report EI assessments have been shown to be more strongly related to personality traits than cognitive abilities (Christiansen, Janovics, & Siers, 2010). Compared to self-report assessment, performance based EI assessments have been shown to be more strongly related to cognitive ability, which was a primary predictor for faking self-reported EI in one study (Grubb & McDaniel, 2007).

Trait EI assessment was chosen for this research project because prior research has indicated that trait EI was the most appropriate EI assessment instrument for this unique study. Personality traits are characteristic behaviors that individuals use over a

range of situations (Pervin, 2000). Traits can indicate an individual's "readiness" to respond to stimuli such as working in social services or volunteering (Atkins, Hart, & Donnelly, 2005; Schermer, Petrides, & Vernon, 2015; Wilson, 2012, p. 179). In addition, a meta-analysis revealed that trait EI was significantly related to job performance for high emotion labor jobs whereas performance EI was not (Joseph & Newman, 2010).

A fourth potential limitation to this study was participant bias (Borden & Abbot, 2014, pp. 167-169). Participants who completed the electronic survey may not accurately represent the target population of CASA volunteers throughout the United States. It may be that CASA volunteers who did not participate in the survey represented a volunteer profile that differs in trait EI and functional motivation to volunteer than those completing the survey.

Fifth, the volunteer information was collected during a short and very specific snapshot of time and may not be generalizable to future CASA volunteers. In reviewing NCASAA 2012 and 2013 annual local program reports, the volunteer demographic data (i.e., race ethnicity, age, education, employment status) that was collected did not show a noticeable change from one year to the next. Therefore, it is likely that volunteer demographics will not change significantly in the near future.

Lastly, it should be noted that the researcher for this project served as a CASA volunteer for eight years prior to becoming the executive director of a two county CASA program for 18 months. The researcher is no longer employed by CASA and is not currently an active CASA volunteer. Because this project is nonexperimental quantitative research, data was gathered exclusively by use of an anonymous online survey program.

Trait EI, motivation to volunteer, and engagement was measured using existing questionnaires with standardized scoring that have been shown to be psychometrically sound. Researcher bias should not have had any effect on quantitative data analysis.

Significance

Child abuse and child protection are social concerns that can have a far-reaching social, emotional, and financial impact on individuals as well as our collective communities. CAPTA (1974) required that a GAL be appointed to every abused or neglected child whose case is subject to a court proceeding. CASA volunteers, who serve as court appointed GALs, are community adults who have willingly and voluntarily agreed to be trained in child development and advocacy, spend approximately 10-15 hours a month for 18 months on their assigned case, and not receive financial compensation for their service. When volunteers are not available to serve as a GAL, county court systems often pay professionals to serve as the abused child's GAL. Research has found that a CASA spends more time with their CASA children than other type GALs (Duquette & Ramsey, 1986).

Child abuse cases that are appointed a CASA are likely to be what is considered the more complex child welfare cases (Caliber Associates, 2004). Children appointed a CASA were significantly more likely than children without a CASA to have had prior maltreatment and to have suffered a "severe" level of personal harm such as abandonment, educational maltreatment, and exploitation (Caliber Associates, 2004, p 33). Several studies have shown that CASA children received significantly more services, such as mental health and medical services, than children without a CASA (Caliber

Associates, 2004; Litzelfelner, 2000; Poertner & Press, 1990). CASA children had significantly fewer living placement changes (Calkins & Millar, 1999; Litzelfelner, 2000) as compared to children without a CASA. The significance of this research is to help CASA organizations recruit, train, and retain an adequate number of engaged volunteers in order to provide “A CASA for every child that needs one” (Texas CASA mission statement, 2015) and allow all children in foster care to have that additional invested adult volunteer to be the child’s voice and act in the child’s best interest in the community and in the courts. Positive outcomes for children and families in crisis result in stronger and healthier communities.

Summary

Child abuse is a social problem that often has a devastating effect on our nation’s children and by extension on our collective communities. National child welfare laws were enacted in 1974 to ensure children who had been abused and were involved in in judicial proceedings had an adult court appointed guardian to represent the child’s best interest. The national law did not stipulate criteria for the qualifications of a court appointed guardian. The CASA volunteer program began in Seattle, Washington in 1977 as a response to that child protection law requirement. The CASA program has since grown to 951 local programs throughout the nation.

CASA volunteers generally are appointed to only one, more rarely two, cases at a time and are expected to stay with their commitment for 12-18 months minimally. Working with children and families in crisis can be inherently emotional and stressful. With national volunteer rates declining, CASA volunteer rates challenged, and high

CASA volunteer turnover, CASA organizations are looking for ways to better recruit, train, and retain volunteers.

This chapter began with a discussion of the current and historical research and background information addressing child abuse and child welfare, volunteerism, motivation to volunteer, emotional intelligence, volunteer work engagement, and volunteer intended retention. The problem that this research sought to address was the lack of quantitative research evaluating specific variables that contribute toward volunteer work engagement and intended retention in the context of a volunteer-driven child welfare advocacy organization. This research project proposed to measure and evaluate the relationships between trait EI, functional motivation to volunteer, volunteer work engagement, and volunteer intended retention.

The theoretical and conceptual frameworks guiding and supporting this research were discussed. Broaden-and build theory posits that positive emotions are essential for optimal functions. Penner's (2002) model for sustained volunteerism was used to identify dispositional factors that contribute to an individual's decision to volunteer and other factors that contribute toward sustained volunteerism. Functional motivation theory proposes that individuals can engage in the same activities in the same organization but may do so for very different reasons. EI theory and the challenges facing the EI construct were discussed. Trait EI was further defined and the rationale for choosing trait EI assessment for this project was discussed. Finally, work engagement, COR theory, and the JD-R model were presented to support volunteer work engagement assessment.

This research took a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis. The rationale for choosing this method was discussed. The standardized measurement instruments for EI, functional motivation, and engagement were listed and the manner of data collection and analysis was briefly explained.

Independent and dependent variables, as well as other terms and constructs used in the project, were operationally defined. The assumptions, limitations and delimitations for this research were described and explanations for addressing those aspects of the research were addressed. Lastly, the potential social contribution for CASA children, CASA organizations, CASA volunteers, and our collective communities was discussed.

Chapter 2 provides a more in-depth view of the theoretical, historical, and current literature supporting this research. Theoretical and conceptual frameworks for trait EI, functional motivation, volunteer retention, and work engagement are presented and discussed in more detail. Chapter 2 also contains a synthesis of existing research on the broad topics of volunteerism, motivation, and EI, and then the discussion is narrowed to review the literature on EI and volunteerism, volunteer engagement and retention, and functional motivation and volunteer retention. Lastly, Chapter 2 reviews the history of child protection and examines how the CASA program has become an effective component of child protection in the United States.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Community volunteers characterize a cohesive society and are the core of nonprofit organizations in the United States (Dutta-Bergman, 2004). The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013) reported that 62.6 million people, or 25.4% of the U.S. population (16 years of age or older) volunteered in 2013. This number of volunteers is the lowest rate recorded since the Current Population Survey (CPS) was first administered in 2002. Many nonprofit organizations that rely heavily on volunteer resources are challenged with recruiting and retaining adequate numbers of volunteers. Personal traits associated with prosocial feelings and behaviors, functional motivation, volunteer work engagement, and volunteer satisfaction have an influence on sustained volunteerism (Penner, 2002).

At the time of this study, the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (EI), volunteer motivation, and volunteer work engagement had not been evaluated in a child advocacy volunteer organization to determine the relationship of the variables to one another and to sustained volunteerism. This literature review evaluates current and historical research relevant to understanding engagement and retention in a child advocacy volunteer role, as well as the degree to which functional motivational factors and trait EI shows relationships to volunteer engagement and volunteer retention.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review was conducted using primarily peer reviewed journal articles obtained through electronic databases from Academic Search Complete, Business

Source Premiere, CINAHL, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, SAGE Premier, SocINDEX, Thoreau, and Google Scholar. Key search terms included *emotional intelligence, EI, trait EI, volunteer, volunteerism, retention, turnover, work engagement, court appointed special advocate, CASA, guardian ad litem, and child welfare*. The literature search began with the broadest scope using each search term singularly, then the Boolean connector AND was used in various combinations of the search terms listed. Articles that were available in full text were retrieved and printed from online databases. Dissertations were downloaded in full text through ProQuest Digital Dissertations. Articles and references were exported and managed through EndNote X5.

Two broad groups who have written extensively on EI: science driven proponents and the practice driven proponents. With this in mind, I also reviewed popular books on EI in an attempt to keep the research inclusive of the two group cultures that have supported its popularity. In addition, ancillary information was evaluated through various Internet websites that are appropriately referenced when used.

This literature review begins with a discussion of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for trait EI, functional motivation, volunteer retention, and work engagement. A literature review of the key variables volunteerism, functional motivation to volunteer, EI, and trait EI is presented. Following the review of those broad constructs a narrower literature review of EI and volunteerism, volunteer engagement and retention, functional motivation and volunteer retention is presented. Lastly, child advocacy volunteerism is reviewed by examining the literature on the history of child protection, the Court Appointed Special Advocate, Guardian Ad Litem (CASA/GAL) model of child

advocacy, and CASA effectiveness. Chapter 2 ends with a summary and conclusions drawn from the literature review.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework for Key Variables

Trait EI

Many researchers have proposed that the term emotional intelligence simply replaced what was earlier referred to as social intelligence (Bar-On, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Landy, 2006; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Landy (2006) wrote that the term *social intelligence* was not first introduced in E. L. Thorndike's 1920 article in *Harper's Magazine*, as much of the literature reports it to be, but was introduced years earlier by John Dewey (1909). Social intelligence was also used by Herbert Lull in a 1911 article entitled *Moral Instruction Through Social Intelligence*. One reason for the different crediting of the term origination may be that Lull was using the term social intelligence in reference to proposed changes in school curriculum that were to include an understanding of that particular time social events (Landy, 2006).

Thorndike (1920) supported Lull's discussion and position on school curriculum reform but later used the same term, social intelligence, as a human attribute reference. Payne (1985) proposed integrating EI into education and government failed to make it through the peer-review process; however, this proposal was never formally published under Payne's name, although Payne's work is often cited (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004).

In its earlier years, EI did not generate much interest. The concept became popularized and widely recognized after Goleman (1995) published the *New York Times*

bestselling book *Emotional Intelligence*. The popularization of EI in nonacademic arenas fueled the ongoing debate centered around the lack of consensus defining the EI construct and what the goals of EI's study, application, and evaluation should be (Murphy & Sideman, 2006).

Two competing EI constructs that are based on measurement method and operationalization are the mental ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and trait emotional intelligence (Petrides, 2011). Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2012) described the two as being “conflicting ways of assessing emotional intelligence” (p. 2). Ability models explain EI as a set of mental skills assessed by maximum performance tests. EI models referred to as mixed models (e.g., Bar-On, 1997) are self-reported and include aspects of cognitive and noncognitive abilities. Trait EI is also assessed through self-report measures and is considered a lower level personality trait (Petrides, 2011). Each EI model has been met similarly with enthusiasm and criticism.

Ability model proponents state that EI should be limited to only those abilities that are found at the intersection between the constructs of emotions and intelligence. They argue that for the sake of theoretical clarity, EI theory should remain strictly within the scientific bounds of emotions and intelligence research (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Mayer and Salovey (1997) based their EI ability model on the grounds that there is evidence to support the theory that emotional reasoning, defined as a kind of intelligence, is correlated yet distinct from other intelligences. The four-branch ability model consists of the ability to (a) perceive emotion, (b) use emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understand emotions, and (d) manage emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004).

Trait emotional intelligence is defined as “a constellation of self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies” (Petrides, 2011, p. 657). Trait EI was shown to have discriminant validity yet connected to personality literature (Petrides et al., 2007). Trait EI is distinct from the Eysenckian “Giant Three” and the “Big Five” models of personality and can be identified through several of the personality dimensions. Trait EI supporters contend that identifying trait EI as its own distinct compound allows emotion related facets of personality that are scattered across basic personality dimensions to be integrated into a single framework (Petrides, 2011).

While many EI studies have found a relationship between EI and job performance, the results have been inconsistent. These inconsistencies have been attributed in part due to different EI assessments measuring different constructs (Newman, 2010) as well as researchers ignoring the importance of context (Cherniss, 2010; Petrides, 2010). If particular emotional traits and skills are determined to be an important contributor to successful job performance, EI awareness and skill training can become a very cost effective tool for an organization to help the individual deal with unique job demands (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). Working with families and children in crisis is inherently an emotional and stressful context. This research information can aid CASA organizations in recruitment, training, and retention of volunteers by identifying which trait EI skills are significant to CASA volunteer engagement and turnover intent.

Functional Motivation

A functional framework for volunteer motivation was used for this research. Katz (1960) wrote, “The functional approach is an attempt to understand the reasons people hold the attitudes they do. The reasons however are at the level of psychological motivations and not of the accidents of external events and circumstances” (p. 170). When using a functional approach to study volunteerism, the motivation to volunteer can be described using one or more of the following six psychological motivations: altruistic or humanitarian values (values), a new learning experience (understanding), social relationships with others (social), potential career enhancement (career), ego protection from feeling more fortunate than other individuals (protective), and self-esteem enhancement (enhancement; Clary, 1998).

Functional theory is based on the premise that people can engage in the same volunteer activities but may be motivated to do so by very different reasons (Clary, 1998; Katz, 1960). For example, Omoto, Snyder, and Martino (2000) found that motivation and expectation for volunteering in a hospice organization differed for younger adults and older adults. Younger volunteers expected to fulfill relationship-related agendas (social) in their volunteer roles while older adults expected to fulfill self-perceived societal obligations (values).

Reasons that volunteers give for making the decision to leave their volunteer service may or may not be significantly related to the individual’s initial reason or motivation to volunteer. Undergraduate business students in the United States who felt they had received benefits relevant to their primary functional motivation for

volunteering indicated that they intended to continue to volunteer into the next school semester as well as a year from the time they participated in the study (Clary, 1998). In contrast, researchers were unable to find that functional motives to volunteer were directly related to reasons volunteers from Scouts and Guides in Belgium gave for quitting their volunteer service (Willems, 2012).

Volunteer Retention

Much of the current literature addressing volunteer recruitment and retention in nonprofit organizations has been influenced by research from human resource management in for-profit organizations (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). While social psychologists were studying volunteerism, industrial psychologists were studying organizational citizenship behaviors. Volunteer work is generally defined as being unpaid labor and taking place in a service organization while organizational citizenship behaviors takes place in for-profit organizations. Both types of activities are planned discretionary acts (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004). This divergent disciplinary approach to studying the two types of behaviors has led to separate theoretical and empirical studies. Drawing on for-profit and nonprofit research Penner (2002) developed a conceptual model of sustained volunteerism based on a similar model of sustained prosocial behaviors among paid employees of organizations (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997).

Figure 1 presents Penner's (2002) Causes of Sustained Volunteerism conceptual model. Stronger causal relationships are indicated by solid lines and weaker causal relationships by dashed lines. The temporal model proposes co-variables related to the initial decision to volunteer. The demonstrated decision to volunteer is comprised of a

composite demographic variable, three dispositional variables, and an organizational variable. The three dispositional variables include personality traits, values, and volunteer related motives. That same relationship between personal traits and prosocial behavior was embraced over 50 years ago by Cattell & Horowitz (1952) when they wrote that certain personality traits are the roots of objectively measured altruistic behavior. The organizational variable in Penner's model includes attitudes the volunteer holds of the organization such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Although evaluating organizational variables are beyond the scope of this research, Hong and Morrow-Howell (2013) did find that institutional factors were as important as individual characteristics in understanding the differential effects of increasing perceived benefits of volunteering for 401 U.S. adult volunteers 50 years of age and older.

The six demographic variables in Penner's (2002) model that are strongly related to *Decision to Volunteer* (solid lines) show to be more weakly related to *Sustained Volunteerism* (dash lines). In the model *Decision to Volunteer* must be augmented by *Volunteer Role Identity* before arriving at *Sustained Volunteerism*. Role identity is shaped by the volunteer consistently engaging in a high level of activity associated with their volunteer role. Higher volunteer activity will likely produce stronger volunteer role identity. As role identity increases, the *Decision to Volunteer* dispositional and organizational variables becomes less influential on *Sustained Volunteerism*. According to the model, *Volunteer Role Identity*, which develops after the volunteer has been involved with their volunteer role for several months, is the strongest and most direct cause of sustained volunteerism (Penner, 2002).

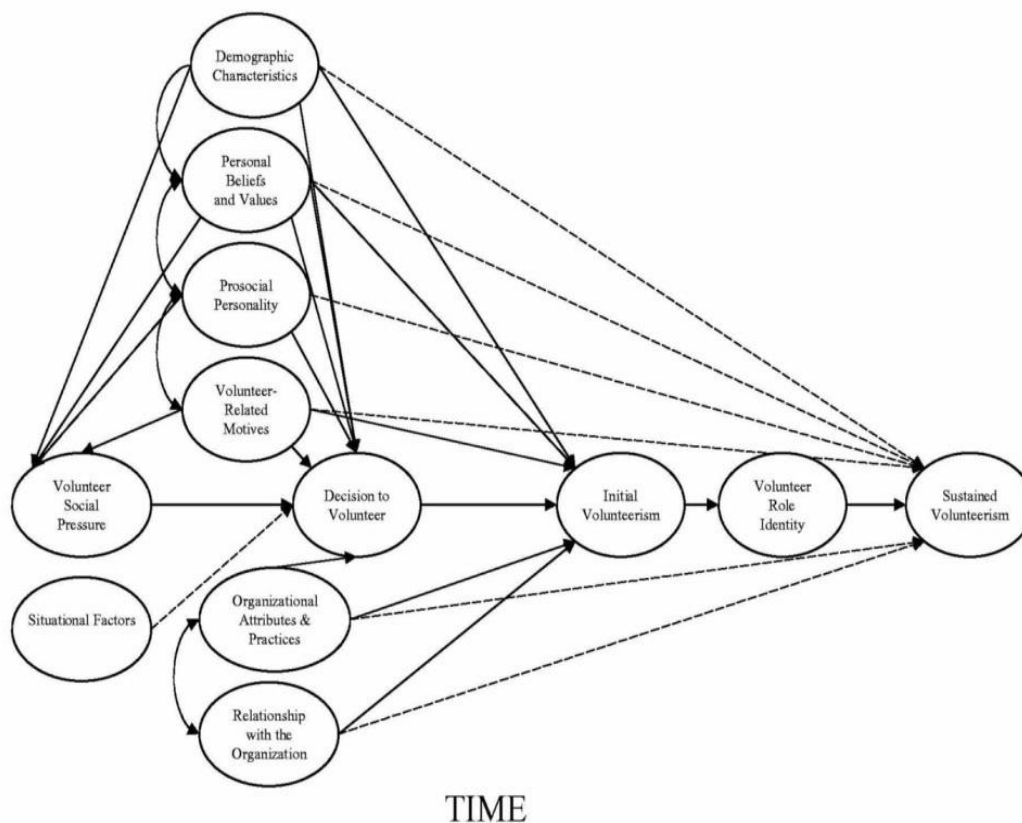


Figure 1. Penner's (2002) causes of sustained volunteerism model adapted from "Dispositional and Organizational Influences on Sustained Volunteerism: An Interactionist Perspective" by Louis A. Penner, 2002, *Journal of Social Issues*, 3, p. 461

Work Engagement

Work engagement is conceptualized as motivation characterized by employees bringing their full capacity to the job through a "high level of vigor and strong identification with one's work" (Leiter & Bakker, 2010, p. 2). Work engagement supports extra-role performance, development of new knowledge, and going the extra mile. Kahn (1990) defined work engagement as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). Most scholars agree that

work engagement has two dimensions; energy and identification (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). Volunteer engagement during the first six months of the volunteer experience predicted volunteer satisfaction and psychological well-being for 245 participants active in one of five different local and international nonprofit organizations (Vecina, 2012). Psychological well-being is the sense that the individual feels they are doing something that is worth doing (Deci & Ryan, 2011). Volunteer satisfaction is a multidimensional construct that includes motivation satisfaction, task satisfaction, and management satisfaction. Volunteer satisfaction predicted commitment, commitment predicted intention to continue (Vecina, 2013; Vecina, 2012).

The job demands-resources (JD-R) model has been used as the theoretical framework for most studies on work engagement (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). The JD-R model, introduced in 2001, is rooted in research on stress and motivation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). The JD-R model is based on the assumption that every occupation has unique factors that influence job-related stress and motivation. The model uses job demands and job resources as predictors of employee well-being regardless of the occupational group and proposes that it is the interaction between job demands and job resources that are critical in the development of motivation as well as job-related stress (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Most studies testing the JD-R model have been consistent with the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which states that motivation is directed toward accumulation and maintenance of resources. In other words, individuals will seek to obtain, retain, and protect that which they value (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007;

Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). A meta-analysis of work engagement that consisted of 53 papers representing 74 unique samples found that work engagement was significantly and positively related to commitment, performance, and health. Work engagement was significantly and negatively related to turnover intention (Halbesleben, 2010).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) English version was used in this research to measure volunteer engagement. The UWES was developed based on the JD-R framework and the following definition of engagement (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004):

Engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, pp. 4-5).

A diary study of a group of Dutch university employee participants revealed that positive emotions had an effect on work engagement albeit an indirect effect (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & van Wijhe, 2012). Positive emotions predicted hope and hope had

an effect on vigor, dedication, and absorption (i.e., work engagement). In addition, the researchers found that the positive emotions reported by employee participants on one working day predicted how hopeful those employees were about their work at the start of the next working day (Ouweneel et al., 2012).

Key Variables

Volunteerism

Volunteers are a unique organizational and community resource distinct from paid employees (Studer & Schnurbein, 2013). Who is most likely to volunteer in the United States? Parents with children under age 18, married people, part time employed people, college graduates, and Whites were more likely to volunteer than other groups within comparable demographic categories. Forty three percent of volunteers who answered the national volunteer survey became involved with an organization by personally approaching the organization and 40.8% reported being asked to volunteer for the organization by someone else (CPS, 2013).

The majority of U.S. volunteers reported spending their volunteer time with one organization (71.3%) and substantially fewer (19.0%) volunteers spent time with two organizations (CPS, 2013). Most (33%) people volunteered with a religious organization (CPS, 2013). Religious exclusiveness (i.e., individuals who reported they “prefer to be with other people who are the same religion”, “closely identify with religious group”) was shown to have a significant positive influence on religious volunteerism, whereas, religious inclusiveness (i.e., individuals who reported they were “sensitive to feelings of others”, “receptive to new ideas”) was shown to have a significant positive influence on

both religious and secular volunteerism (Taniguchi & Thomas, 2011). Individuals of Catholic faith were significantly less likely than liberal Protestants to volunteer with secular organizations (Taniguchi & Thomas, 2011). Education and youth services (25.6%) was the second ranking context in which individuals in the United States volunteered, and social and community service organizations (14.7%) was the third ranking type of volunteerism (CPS, 2013).

In 2013, as well as historically, women in the United States volunteered at a higher rate than men (28.4% and 22.2% respectively; CPS, 2013). Volunteers reported spending a median of 50 hours annually (range 36-86 hours) on volunteer activities. People between the ages of 35 to 44 years (30.6%) were more likely to report that they had volunteered than younger or older age groups. Volunteers age 20-24 years were the least likely to volunteer (18.5%; CPS, 2013). The demographic variable of age was also shown to be an important factor related to volunteering by Taiwanese volunteers (Chen, Chen, & Chen, 2010).

Volunteering benefits the individual volunteering as well as the recipient. In a longitudinal study of 4,000 adults who graduated from Wisconsin schools in 1957, Piliavin and Siegl (2007) found that volunteering was positively related to psychological well-being. The study found that the health benefits were highest for volunteers who were less socially integrated into their community. The longitudinal nature of the study allowed researchers to determine that volunteering for more than one organization over time, measured as diversity and consistency, had additional benefits. Three volunteer

experiences had more benefits than two. According to their data, there was never a decrease in psychological well-being as the amount of volunteer involvement increased.

Over a quarter of a century ago Smith (1975) wrote that a key problem in the study of “voluntary action” was that of definition. “While the struggle for greater definitional clarity as an important step toward developing adequate theories of voluntary action has brought about some agreement on what the definitional issues are, there has been little agreement on how to resolve them” (p. 247). Twenty five years later volunteerism researcher John Wilson (2000) concluded:

One problem is that the generic term ‘volunteering’ embraces a vast array of quite disparate activities. It is probably not fruitful to try to explain all activities with the same theory or to treat all activities as if they were the same with respect to consequences. The taxonomies of volunteering that are used to disaggregate volunteer work are folk categories (e.g., school-related, helping the elderly), and there is little reason to believe these categorizations are sociologically useful (p. 233-234).

Because volunteerism can mean different things to different people, the organizing theoretical framework for studying volunteerism has tended to vary across the disciplines of psychology, sociology, and economics (Wilson, 2012).

Psychological theories for volunteering. Psychological theories of volunteering have tended to focus on intrapsychic phenomena of the individual identifying particular personal traits and characteristics that distinguished volunteers from nonvolunteers (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010; Wilson, 2012). A large portion of the published studies

on volunteerism used a theoretical framework associated with subjective dispositions. Subjective dispositions include individuals' motives, attitudes, personality traits, norms and values. Subjective dispositions indicate that an individual will act in a particular way in response to particular stimuli (Wilson 2012).

Sociological theories for volunteering. Sociological theories for volunteering involve sociodemographic characteristics that include race, gender, social class, and also ecological variables such as communities, social networks, solidarity, and democracy (Hustinx et al., 2010; Wilson, 2012). From a sociological perspective, volunteer work is a form of social integration, group identity, and sense of belonging that binds people to one another. One study evaluated racial differences in volunteer engagement by older adults (age 60 years and older) recruited from Pittsburgh senior centers. Utilizing an empowerment perspective, the data revealed that older Black volunteers reported more health disabilities, frailties, morbidity, and mortality than older White volunteers. Older Black adults volunteered less often than older White adults, yet once the older Black volunteers were engaged in their volunteer work they devoted a greater amount of time, were more likely to see themselves as empowered, and reported getting more benefits from volunteering than the older White volunteers (Tang, Carr Copeland, & Wexler, 2012).

Economic theories for volunteering. It has been argued that researchers often fail to appreciate the value of economic theory in understanding volunteer behavior (Govekar & Govekar, 2002). Economic theories for volunteering are based on a rational economic view of volunteerism that explains volunteer service as a source of unpaid

labor. In an economic motivational perspective to volunteering, the individual holds a belief that they will receive some kind of reward for their unpaid labor (Ewing, Govekar, Govekar, & Rishi, 2002; Wilson, 2012).

Two models that have been used to explain the seemingly irrational conceptual economic paradox of volunteerism are the private benefits model that assumes individuals receive private benefits from volunteering, and the public goods model that assumes volunteering is a means to increase the level of public goods and services that the volunteer values (Hustinx et al., 2010). Researchers have suggested that during economic upswings nonprofit organizations marketing campaigns should emphasize their organizations and recipients “success” stories (public benefit) to appeal to potential volunteers’ altruistic values. During times of economic downturns nonprofit organizations that offer any form of skill building, such as Habitat for Humanity, should market the benefits of volunteering as an opportunity for the individual (private benefit) to acquire specialized training and skill development (Ewing, 2002).

Three strategies used to measure the economic value of volunteering are; the replacement cost strategy based on the value of the work the individual performs; opportunity costs strategy based on the monetary value of volunteering to the volunteer; and societal benefit strategy based on either the price paid for the output benefit or what beneficiaries would be willing to pay for the goods or services provided by the volunteer or organization (Salamon, Sokolowski, & Haddock, 2011). The Independent Sector has a published national volunteer time valuation index dollar amount for charitable organizations that is based on the average hourly earnings of all nonmanagement,

nonagricultural workers in the United States. The national value of one hour of any type volunteer service in 2013 was \$22.55 per hour. States volunteer hour rates range from a low of \$19.04 for South Dakota to a high of \$38.59 for D.C. The Independent Sector reported the collective value of volunteer service in the United States for 2012 at \$175 billion.

Using the replacement cost strategy, the economic value of volunteer work for North America, as compared to other countries, was estimated at \$516.8 billion (Salamon et al., 2011). A recent case study found that for a cost of \$100,000, one nonprofit service organization with 871 volunteers was able to provide an estimated \$300,000 worth of in-home services for seniors (Vinton, 2012). Many of the services offered by volunteers could be valued at a much higher rate than the national allowance of \$22.55 an hour value if replacement cost were used. CASA is one of those organizations. If a volunteer GAL is not available, the court must hire a professional to serve as the child's advocate. Many times this turns out to be an attorney.

According to one of the larger Texas CASA program's website (www.casatravis.org), it costs the CASA organization approximately \$1500 a year to provide a child with a CASA/GAL as contrasted to a \$2700 flat fee or \$75 an hour for professional GAL appointees (CASA of Travis County, n.d.). Harris County, Texas, which includes Houston, reimbursed professional GALs at \$100 an hour (Harris County, 2011). Most child welfare court cases take an average of 1 1/2 years to resolve and the CASA volunteer will spend on average 10 hours a month on their case (NCASAA, 2014). Using the replacement cost model, if CASAs were reimbursed the same as some of the

GALs (e.g., Harris County) it would cost taxpayers approximately \$18,000 (18 months x 10 hours per month x \$100) per case.

Each theoretical approach to volunteerism has its own strengths and weakness. The challenge remains that volunteering, as a social construct, is a complex phenomenon “not clearly delineated and spans a wide variety of types of activities, organizations, and sectors” (Hustinx et al., 2010, p. 410). It was proposed by Wilson (2012) that using a hybrid framework for scholarly volunteerism research would add depth and richness to the research but cautioned that it would first necessitate addressing the broad problems of definition, discipline heterogeneity, and theory multidimensionality.

Functional Motivation to Volunteer

Functionalism. Functionalism was the dominate form of psychology from the 1890s until World War I and was said to be the “first revolution” in American psychology (Green, 2009, p. 75). “Functionalism was the ‘nest’... in which so many different American forms of psychology were ‘hatched’ and grew to adulthood. Some forms of psychology influenced by functionalism include child educational psychology, psychological testing, clinical psychology, industrial vocational psychology, and behaviorism” (p. 81).

In an article outlining the early roots and influences of functionalism, Green (2009) established a historical timeline that supported his position that Charles Darwin’s (1809/1882) theory of evolution was the very foundation of American functionalism. According to Green, renegade intellectual Chauncey Wright (1830/1875) accepted Darwin’s theory of natural selection. A contemporary of Wright and fellow Cambridge,

Massachusetts Metaphysical Club member, William James (1842/1910), picked up and promoted the theory of natural selection in his lectures and his writings. James mentored G. Stanley Hall (1844/1924) of John Hopkins University. Hall mentored James McKeen Cattell (1893/1947). And Cattell was a mentor to Edward Lee Thorndike (1874/1949; Green, 2009). Thorndike is known as a leading advocate in educational testing and studies and is credited with introducing the term social intelligence in a 1920 magazine article (Green, 2009; Landy, 2006). Some say that EI simply replaced what had previously been referred to as social intelligence (Bar-On, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Landy, 2006; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Social intelligence was discussed in the trait EI section of the theoretical and conceptual framework at the beginning of this chapter.

Motivation. Motivation is “the study of why individuals or organisms behave as they do: What gets their behavior started, and what directs, energizes, sustains, and eventually terminates action” (Graham & Weiner, 2012, p. 367). The study of human motivation can be taken back to early researchers whose research interests included instincts and urges (Graham & Weiner, 2012). Over time the study of animal instinct progressed to the study of human drives and needs. Notably, Sigmund Freud (1856/1939) wrote extensively on sexual instincts and their manifestations. Freud promoted a belief that there were two major human needs; work and love.

Maslow (1943) argued that motivation theory should be human-centered as opposed to animal-centered and accordingly developed the widely recognized hierarchical theory of human motivation that is referred to across academic disciplines to this day. Maslow’s motivations were based on goals rather than drives and behaviors and

he called the motivations basic needs. Maslow held that basic needs are hierarchical in that one need usually rests on the satisfaction of a prior need. The five basic needs he proposed, starting at the bottom of the hierarchy, were; physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow's position was that any motivated behavior typically has more than one motivation and "motivations are only one class of determinants of behavior. While behavior is almost always motivated, it is also always biologically, culturally and situationally determined as well" (p. 271).

While developing and promoting the human need motivation theory, Maslow welcomed and encouraged future research saying "theory must be considered to be a suggested program or framework for future research and must stand or fall, not so much on facts available or evidence presented, as upon researchers yet to be done..." (p. 371). Interestingly, despite the widespread use and popularity of Maslow's theory of human need motivation, there has been little scholarly support for Maslow's needs hierarchy as he proposed it over 70 years ago (Soper, Milford, & Rosenthal, 1995; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). As Maslow (1943) wrote, "It is far easier to perceive and to criticize the aspects in motivation theory than to remedy them" (p. 371).

More recently Ryan and Deci (2000) proposed a model of three basic psychological needs; competence, autonomy, and relatedness. According to Ryan and Deci, the functions of those three basic needs are; to explain what individual's move toward, to allow informed observers the knowledge of whether an individual is experiencing basic need satisfaction which results in the individual's well-being, or the recognition by observers that an individual's basic needs are in some way being

diminished. Basic psychological needs that are not being met at all are a reliable predictor of maladaptive functioning and some pathology. In addition, recognizing basic psychological needs allows interventionists (e.g., teachers, parents, managers) to be able to predict how particular contexts can be enhanced to support individuals' engagement and effectiveness within that context. Contexts as well as individual differences have an effect on basic psychological need satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

When individuals' basic psychological needs are not being met individuals may be motivated to seek alternative ways to fulfill their psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2011). For example, if an individual is seeking belongingness he or she might turn to favorite television programs to minimize loneliness. A study of 701 undergraduate students found that watching or even thinking about favored television programs provided the student with the feeling of belongingness and that feeling buffered against feelings of rejection. Conversely, viewing unfavored television programs did not provide the same feeling of meeting belonging needs (Derrick, Gabriel, & Hugenberg, 2009).

Although sociologists have tended to be skeptical that predispositional needs and drives motivate individuals to volunteer, social psychologists have actively and enthusiastically used motivational theories to explain volunteering (Wilson, 2000). Most notably, Clary et al. (1998) used the functional approach to motivation to determine psychological motives that can be served by volunteer service. From Clary et al.'s, (1998) research the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was developed to measure six psychological motives (needs) served by volunteering.

Functional motives for volunteering. Classic theorist Katz (1960) recognized that there are a number of motivational forces that influence individual attitudes and behaviors. Katz wrote that “the great error of oversimplification” (p. 167) could be avoided by using a functional approach for studying opinion formation and attitude change. Following Katz’s taxonomies that drew upon themes from some of the grand psychological theories of human nature (psychodynamic theory, Gestalt psychology, self-psychology, and behaviorism), Clary et al. (1998) used exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses on diverse samples to determine six motivational functions served by volunteerism: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement.

Katz (1960) proposed that the same attitudes could serve different psychological functions for different people. Studies on volunteerism have found that the same tasks or behaviors volunteers participate in will satisfy different psychological functions for different people (Clary et al., 1998). Undergraduate psychology students differed from each other in the motives they considered most important for volunteering and they also differed in their perceptions of which tasks they believed would satisfy the six psychological motives. Only 17.7% of the variance in perception of task satisfaction represented consensus among the 112 student participants. The remaining 84.3% represented idiosyncratic perceptions (Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005).

The VFI has been used extensively for assessing motives for volunteering. Values motive has consistently been shown to be one of the most important motivations for volunteering (Allison, Oku, & Dutridge, 2002; Busser & Caruthers, 2010; Caldarella, Gomm, Shatzer, & Wall, 2010; Davila & Diaz-Morales, 2009; Gage & Thapa, 2012;

Wong & Foo, 2011). Based on individuals' motivation for volunteering, the VFI values and social function scale scores did not differ significantly for 216 senior volunteers and nonvolunteering seniors. Understanding, enhancement, and protective functional motivation scale scores did differ significantly between volunteers and nonvolunteers (Yoshioka et al., 2007).

The type of organization and volunteer age may have an influence on the importance of the value function motivator, whereas gender may not. The values motivator score was found to be related to more frequent and broader AIDS activism and civic engagement for 624 people involved in AIDS activism, whereas the understanding and enhancement motivational scores were not significant (Omoto et al., 2010). For older German, Dutch, and Italian volunteers the values motivator was higher for volunteers engaged in health and social services as compared to older volunteers in culture and recreational sector volunteer work (Principi, Chiatti, & Lamura, 2012). Italian volunteers' values motivation scores increased as age increased but for German volunteers the value motivation scores decreased as age increased. For Spanish volunteers, there was a positive and significant correlation between age and value motive scores. Spanish volunteers 36 years and older indicated stronger value motivations than did younger volunteers (Davila & Diaz-Morales, 2009). Male and female medical students in the United States both rated values as the highest functional motive for volunteering but the women rated values overall more highly than the men did (Fletcher & Major, 2004). For 523 volunteers from International Habitat for Humanity, age was unrelated to the values motivation (Okun & Schultz, 2003).

The VFI has also been used to determine the frequency of volunteering. Allison et al. (2002) compared the motives of 774 volunteers from Make A Difference (MAD) organization using the VFI and an open-ended probe. Motive scores obtained from the VFI showed to be better predictors of volunteering frequency when compared to an open-ended probe. The VFI social motive was a significant inverse predictor of frequency for volunteering with MAD. In contrast, social motivation was found to be the most significant motivator for volunteers participating with urban conservation stewardship organizations (Asah & Blahna, 2012). Protective and enhancement motive scores were the most significant predictors of the frequency of volunteering for the stewardship volunteers. For 141 Australian volunteers with a mean age of 52, only the social function motivation significantly predicted above average participation, the other five psychological functions did not predict participation (Greenslade & White, 2005).

Another use of the VFI was to determine if VFI scale scores would predict evaluations of the persuasiveness of advertising brochures created to uniquely reflect statements that would satisfy one of the six motivations for volunteering. Using the VFI scores of 59 undergraduate psychology students, Clary et al. (1998) determined through regression analysis that four of the six motivations scores significantly predicted participants' advertisement brochure evaluations. Brochures that were developed using an enhancement, protective, understanding, and value motivation message each uniquely predicted the students' evaluations of the corresponding message persuasiveness. Understanding and career scale scores predicted the persuasiveness of the career message brochure and no VFI scale significantly predicted participants' evaluations for the social

motivation message brochure persuasiveness. Clary et al., then computed within-person correlations between all VFI scale scores and each participant individually. Averaging all of the within-person scores revealed a strong and statistically significant individual match ($p < .001$) between the pattern of VFI scale scores and the pattern of advertisement brochure evaluations.

Emotional Intelligence

Background. Exploring emotions in relation to human life can be taken as far back as 200 to 300 BCE during the ancient Stoic movement. The prevailing belief of that time was that emotions were patently unreliable. A person who was considered wise would have appeared to be a highly rational thinker and would not dare to admit to feelings or emotions having any influence on their thoughts (Mayer et al., 2000). Over time that kind of rational Stoicism thinking became firmly woven into the fabric of Western Christian civilization.

Since that time, we have learned that when individuals' feelings and emotions are not recognized and acknowledged there can be social repercussions. For example, the backlash from the nonemotional status quo rational approach to the U.S. people's co-existence was clearly seen throughout the 1960s in events such as the civil rights movement, student peace movement against the Vietnam War, and the women's rights movement (Matthews et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2000). Each of those movements was an organized effort to demand that society recognize "other" group rights. Their protests demanded that leaders acknowledge that each and every individual's has a basic right to physical and emotional safety and this was not happening equally for all individuals.

If the theoretical constructs of emotion and intelligence are isolated, the concept of EI could claim deeper theoretical roots. Mayer et al. (2008) recommended that for theoretical clarity EI should stay within the scientific bounds of abilities that lie at the intersection between the constructs of emotion and intelligence. Unfortunately, to date it does not appear that EI, as an integrated construct, has found an agreed upon firm foundation in the research of intelligence or the research of emotions (Matthews et al., 2004).

Intelligence test developer David Wechsler did not make a specific reference to factors of intelligence that facilitate intelligent behavior but it appears that Wechsler considered emotional behavior an aspect of intelligence (Kaufman & Kaufman, 2001). Wechsler (1975) wrote:

What we measure with tests is not what tests measure - not information, not spatial perception, not reasoning ability. These are only means to an end. What intelligence tests measure, what we hope they measure, is something much more important: the capacity of an individual to understand the world about him and his resourcefulness to cope with its challenges (p. 139).

Formal assessment of intelligence began with Binet and Simon in 1905. Since that time the construct of intelligence has been researched and debated extensively, yet, general intelligence is still a controversial construct in itself (Brady, 2006). General intelligence, as defined by Brady, is “the common element present in all tests of cognitive ability” (p.162). One argument against the use of a single quotient for assessing intelligence is that intelligence is influenced by the cultural context. The concept of what

intelligence is in one cultural context may be quite different from other cultural contexts (Kornhaber, Krechevsky, & Gardner, 1990). What is considered emotional intelligence or emotionally intelligent behaviors may differ from one cultural context to another as well (Petrides, 2011).

The proximal roots of EI can be found in Gardner's work on multiple intelligences (Petrides, 2011). Gardner (1983) argued that the use of a single quotient to measure an individual's intelligence functioning was inadequate, so as an expansion of the general intelligence model Gardner developed his theory of multiple intelligences. Although called multiple intelligences, Gardner also used the terms competencies and potentials. Each competency or potential was considered to have a developmental trajectory that varied in its rate of development and relatively independent from the other areas of competencies (Kornhaber et al., 1990). In determining the seven areas of intelligences (i.e., linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) Gardner went beyond psychometric assessments and measurements and looked at research on human neurology, culture, evolution, and development of normal and special populations (Kornhaber et al., 1990). EI appears to overlap with social intelligence represented by Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence domains (Roberts et al., 2001).

EI has been defined in various ways. The widely referenced scientific researchers Salovey & Mayer (1990) defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Bar-On (2006) defines emotional intelligence as "a cross-section of

interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate to them, and cope with daily demands” (p. 3). Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope” (p. 34).

Goleman is considered the populist of the EI movement. Notably, he was the psychologist who introduced EI to people outside the scientific community (Matthews et al., 2004). Goleman’s work is based on the scientific work of Salovey and Mayer (Goleman, 1995) but those academic researchers say Goleman made grandiose claims in his book that were not supported by sound scientific inquiry (Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002).

The very challenges that plagued EI back in the 1920s are the same challenges facing EI today (Landy, 2006). The primary challenge is that researchers have yet to agree upon a clear conceptualization of EI which has led to questionable EI measurement approaches (Roberts et al., 2010). EI constructs that can be differentiated on the basis of measurement are self-report and maximum performance EI (Petrides, 2011). Cherniss (2010) advocated dividing EI between two models: EI as aptitude and emotional and social competence. Newman et al. (2010) agreed with Cherniss stating that they believed emotional and social competencies should be labeled as personality or temperament as opposed to EI.

Murphy and Sideman (2006) attempted to shed some light on the continued controversy surrounding and challenging EI research and application by pointing out that EI has two polarized audiences with very different goals and agendas. On the one side are the academicians (i.e., Mayer and Salovey) who embrace a science-driven approach to EI research. Their work is based on models with careful attention given to procedure. The science-driven EI proponents expect their work to be reviewed by their peers as a condition for journal publication. They encourage scholarly discussion and desire replication of their work.

On the opposite side is the practice-driven audience (i.e., Goleman) who are taking the ideas out into the “real world” for immediate practical application. Practice-driven proponents are problem oriented individuals who want to get the ideas into the hands of users as quickly as possible. Practice-driven EI proponents tend to go straight to popular press or Internet for quick dissemination and large audience appeal. They rarely take the time to follow up their work with careful research methods, their rationale being if it seems to work keep doing it, if not do something else (Murphy & Sideman, 2006).

After evaluating 21 published meta-analytic correlational EI studies and 66 original analyses of EI, Joseph and Newman (2010) determined that performance ability measures, self-report ability measures, and mixed measures of EI were not reflecting the same construct. While evaluating the association of ability and trait EI with alcohol problems in Australian undergraduate students, Schutte, Malouff, and Hines (2011) suggested that ability and trait EI appear to be “complimentary dimensions of adaptive emotional functioning” (p. 260). Again utilizing undergraduate students as participants,

Christiansen et al. (2010) compared ability and self-report EI assessment scores and found that ability EI related more strongly to cognitive ability and job performance than self-report and self-report EI assessment related more strongly to personality.

In an attempt to describe EI's theoretical framework Matthew et al. (2004) wrote, "EI is what emotional tests test." (p. 206). Differential psychology (the psychology of individual differences) does allow that a test instrument may accurately measure individual differences without defining exactly what is being measured (Matthews et al., 2004). One proposal made to address the unsettled and ongoing concern of an unclear theoretical conceptualization and questionable measurement approaches of EI is to treat EI a broad umbrella term. Treating EI as an umbrella term, like the various dimensions of the study of memory, would invite and allow various lines of research. (Roberts et al., 2010).

EI research data has generated mixed results in reporting EI's relationship to other variables. EI was found to be positively associated with more ethical decision making for business students (Krishnakumar & Rymph, 2012), job performance and job satisfaction for Iranian workers (Shooshtarian, Ameli & Aminilari, 2013), job satisfaction and organizational commitment for South Korean employees (Choi, Oh, Guay, & Lee, 2011), and job satisfaction for nurses in Taiwan (Chang, Li, Wu, Wang, 2000). A high EI score showed to significantly contribute to organizational commitment for Nigerian civil servant volunteers (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011) and for Nigerian factory workers (Chowwen, 2012). In addition, EI has been shown to be effective in predicting occupational stress (Satija & Khan, 2013), buffer against the inevitable emotional stresses

associated with service work (Giardini & Frese, 2006), support volunteer leaders' emotional attachment to their organization (Cichy et al., 2007), and moderate the effect of burnout for student volunteers (Kao, 2009).

High EI scores are not necessarily adaptive and low EI scores maladaptive. Petrides (2011) takes the position that it “always” depends on context (p. 661). According to Joseph and Newman's (2010) meta-analysis, EI predicted job performance for high emotional labor jobs but not for low emotional labor jobs. Cherniss (2010) calls for the development of EI measures that are context sensitive. Comparing student trait EI scores from Germany (an individualistic culture) and India (a collectivist culture) revealed that trait EI was universally important for life satisfaction but trait EI influenced life satisfaction in different ways in the two different cultural contexts (Koydemir et al., 2013).

EI skill acquisition. Can EI be learned? EI proponents argue that EI skills are stable, yet malleable, are situationally dependent, and can be learned (Matthews et al., 2004; Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2002). Significant psychological, somatic, and social adjustment benefits were found for 72 individuals who participated in a well-designed and relatively short (15 hour) training on improving emotional competencies as compared to a control group that did not receive training (Kotsou, Nelis, Grégoire, & Mikolajczak, 2011). After EI training, depressive symptoms decreased more substantially over time for Iranian inpatients diagnosed with borderline personality disorder than for a control group (Jahangard et al., 2012).

When Ph.D. level clinical therapist trainees EI scores and client psychotherapy outcomes were assessed it was determined that client outcomes were worse when the therapist trainee had low EI scores. It was suggested by the authors of that study that individuals may possess a range of EI abilities and that training could facilitate actualization toward full EI abilities (Rieck & Callahan, 2013). Some EI facets may be more responsive to development than others. Scores on EI scales for self-awareness, influence, and sensitivity improved after EI training but scores for intuitiveness and conscientiousness did not improve after training for 59 middle managers from the UK and Australia (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004).

When a group of master level students from the United States were assessed for EI it was found that the low EI performers overestimated their EI skills and performance whereas the high EI performers slightly underestimated their skills and performance. The low EI performers who thought they were skilled EI performers derogated the accuracy of the assessment then openly questioned the relevance of the assessment. The low EI performers showed less interest in developing their EI skills than high EI performers (Sheldon, Dunning, & Ames, 2014).

If EI assessments and training are to be effectively utilized in profit or nonprofit organizations, specific emotional skills patterns relevant to the context will need to be determined (Atkins et al., 2005; Stein & Book, 2006). Individuals that match the EI contextual profile may be best suited for the position or the organization. Organizations will also benefit from developing and implementing appropriate training toward the identified EI skills (Stein & Book, 2006). Using the EQ-i self-report EI assessment

developed by Bar-On (1997), Multi-Health Systems collected data from 4,888 individuals working in various occupations throughout North America. Participants were asked how successful they believed they were in their jobs. Only data where statistical significance was found between those reporting they were successful and those reporting unsuccessful was used. Using logistical regression, “ideal combinations” of EI factors were identified (Stein & Book, 2006, p. 314). For example, the top five self-reported factors for successful social workers beginning with the most important were; *Independence, Stress Tolerance, Assertiveness, Impulse Control, and Optimism*. In contrast, the profile of those who reported being successful technical medical staff top EI factors was: *Self-Regard, Optimism, Reality Testing, Self-Actualization, and Independence*.

There is not an “archetypal emotionally intelligent” individual who can be expected to excel in all aspects of life (Petrides, 2011, p. 661). Certain EI profiles will be advantageous in some contexts but not necessarily in other or all contexts. Individual EI profiles and specific job descriptions will need to be matched and monitored for optimal outcomes.

Trait EI

Trait EI (or trait emotional self-efficacy) theory is rooted in differential psychology and has been distinguished from other EI approaches (Petrides et al., 2007). Although, the overlap between General Factors of Personality and trait EI are quite large (42% - 61% of variance), trait EI was shown to explain significant levels of variance beyond the General Factors of Personality (Petrides et al., 2007; Van der Linden et al., 2012). Trait EI is defined as a trait not distinct from personality but a part of the

personality constructs on the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Higher order traits, the “Big Five”, describe general dimensions of personalities, whereas the lower order traits (e.g., emotional self-efficacy) are associated with specific behavioral tendencies and tend to be better predictors of certain behaviors (Musick & Wilson, 2008, p. 39; Petrides et al., 2007; Van der Linden, Tsousis & Petrides, 2012). Trait EI correlates highest with the personality dimensions of neuroticism and extraversion yet accounts for significant variance over and above the five factors. Self-control is strongly negatively correlated with the personality factor of neuroticism (Greven, Chamorro-Premuzic, Arceche, & Furnham, 2008). It can safely be argued that self-control, or more pointedly the lack of self-control, could certainly be a concern when CASA volunteers interact with individuals who may have physically or sexually abused the child the CASA volunteer has been court mandated to advocate for.

Higher trait EI scores have been associated with more frequent use of adaptive coping strategies and infrequent use of maladaptive coping strategies, less rumination of negative events, romantic relationship satisfaction, happiness, and greater life satisfaction and well-being (Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Liu et al., 2013; Lizeretti & Extremera, 2011; Malouff et al., 2014; Martins et al., 2010; Petrides et al., 2007; Vesely et al., 2013). Global trait EI was found to be positively related to narcissism and negatively related to psychopathology and Machiavellianism (a skeptical view of and manipulation of others) in 214 adult twin pairs (Petrides, Vernon, Schermer, & Veselka, 2011). Conversely, a positive correlation between trait EI and psychopathy was found for 57 imprisoned male offenders (Copestake, Gray, & Snowden, 2013). The prison study researchers suggested

that future research should carefully examine more specifically which aspects of psychopathology and which aspects of EI are being measured before drawing conclusions on the data.

In an examination of the relationship between trait EI and job-related variables it was determined that job satisfaction had the strongest direct influence on organizational commitment for 167 male and female professionally employed adult participants (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Trait EI mediated intervening variables but did not show a direct path to job satisfaction or organizational commitment. In a structural equation model, high trait EI was significantly related to higher levels of perceived job control; perceived job control was significant to occupational satisfaction; job satisfaction was significantly related to organizational commitment. However, reversing the path from organizational commitment to satisfaction was not significant. Trait EI was shown to have a significantly negative relationship to job stress for male participants but not for female participants. Taking issue with Goleman's (1998) claims of the sweeping importance of EI in the workplace, Petrides and Furnham (2006) wrote, "The study does not lend empirical support to claims that EI is crucially important in the workplace" (Goleman, 1998, p. 562).

In contrast, utilizing a different EI self-report measure (Genos, www.genos.com.acu), Seyal and Afzaal (2013) found that only two of the seven EI subscales of that instrument significantly predicted job satisfaction for 90 business and engineering faculty member participants from Brunei and Darussalam. The two types of EI subscales that predicted job satisfaction for those participants were emotional self-

awareness and emotional self-management. Those two EI scales reflected the faculty members highly ranking their ability to express their own emotions as a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013).

Trait EI theory recognizes the inherent subjectivity of an individual's emotional experience (Petrides, 2011). In the study of professionally employed adults referenced above (Petrides & Furnham, 2006), participants' age did not have any significant effect between males and the job related variables. Age did have a significant effect with three job variables for the female participants; trait EI, perceived job control, and organizational commitment (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). The authors state that the effects of trait EI in occupational settings are similar to the effects of other personality traits. "This means that the construct is likely to have predictive power and exploratory utility only in specific occupational contexts and with respect to specific work-related outcomes" (p. 562).

According to Petrides (2011), all EI questionnaires can and should be interpreted through the lens of trait EI theory. Petrides et al. (2007) has advocated using the TEIQue self-report questionnaire exclusively for EI assessment. The TEIQue v 1.50 (www.psychometriclab.com) assesses four broad factors; well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. Fifteen sub-scales are used to determine the four factors: adaptability, assertiveness, emotion appraisal (self and others), emotion control, emotion expression, emotion management (others), low impulsiveness, relationships, self-esteem, self-motivation, social awareness, stress management, trait empathy, trait happiness, and trait optimism.

The reason given by Petrides et al. (2007) for the exclusive use of the TEIQue is that the TEIQue assessment is based directly on EI trait theory. The congruity of theory with the assessment instrument allows for enhanced power of interpretation and explanation, thus lowering the risk of misunderstanding or making erroneous conclusions (Petrides et al., 2007). A proponent of ability EI theory and measurement lamented that EI researchers and practitioners have not taken the “intelligence” in EI seriously enough and stated that “No organization would select personnel using a self-report measure of cognitive ability” (Cote, 2010, p. 120), apparently taking the position that self-reports of typical EI performance are not indicative of maximal performance and thus not a tool that is appropriate or beneficial for hiring.

EI self-report scores were found to be a better predictor of performance (revenue generation) than global personality trait and IQ for a group of Australian recruitment consultants (Downey, Lee, & Stough, 2011). When compared with ability EI measures, trait EI measures were more strongly associated with health (Martins et al., 2010). When compared to other self-report EI assessments, the TEIQue was found to have the strongest association with mental health ($r = .53$). When comparing the concurrent and incremental validity of three trait EI assessments, Gardner and Qualter (2010) found the TEIQue to be a better predictor than the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment for assessing 11 criteria although all three instruments showed good predictive strength for assessing global EI.

EI and Volunteerism

There is scant research on the relationship between EI and volunteerism. Two studies evaluated EI's relationship with volunteer board membership (Balduck, Van Rossem, & Buelens, 2010; Cichy et al., 2007). The first study was a pilot study exploring the relationships between EI and three types of organizational commitment for 57 private club board member volunteers and committee leader volunteers. Cichy et al. (2007) found a strong relationship between EI and affective commitment (volunteers remaining because they wanted to), a weak relationship between EI and normative commitment (volunteers feeling they ought to stay), and a negative relationship between EI and continuance commitment (volunteers feeling they need to stay).

Another study interviewed 26 board members and 28 sports club members from 23 different types of sports clubs. The member participants had an average of 7.52 years of membership with their organization. Content analysis of the interviews showed that board members and club members agreed that skills that make up cognitive competency (technical abilities, strategic skills, financial skills) are not enough for an individual to be considered an outstanding performing board member. Both groups expressed the belief that outstanding or highly capable board members should possess strong EI, social skills, and empathy in addition to cognitive competency (Balduck et al., 2010).

Studies have explored the relationships between EI and job related variables in types of helping professions that many consider to be emotionally stressful occupations. It has been found that prolonged exposure to job stress can lead to burnout (Kaur et al., 2013). For example, high levels of stress are inherent to and accepted as part of the

nursing profession. Survey data was collected from 122 nurses working in different wards in four different hospitals in the Western Cape region of South Africa. High EI scores were found to be significantly related to lower reported stress and burnout for those nurses. A recommendation from that study was for EI development to be added to the nursing training curricula, particularly in developing countries where additional environmental stressors such as budget constraints and shortage of qualified nurses are more difficult variables to address (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012).

Similar results were found in a study that included 550 nurses and 348 patients from seven public hospitals in Malaysia (Kaur et al., 2013). EI was significantly related to psychological ownership (feeling responsible, compassionate, and protective of the job), caring behaviors (being respectful and responsive to patient needs, providing patients with emotional support), and burnout. Again, noting that students should be informed on the value of emotions and the importance of human relations, a recommendation from the study was to incorporate EI training into the nursing curricula.

Social work is an occupational group that reports high levels of work related stress and burnout. In a study aimed at exploring stress resilience in trainee social workers, 240 social work students in the UK completed online questionnaires (Kinman & Grant, 2011). The findings showed significant correlations between EI and resilience. Resilience in turn promoted psychological well-being which protected against work-related stress and burnout.

Police work is another occupation considered by many to be characterized by high emotional job stress. A sample of 193 Australian state police participated in a study

examining the effects of EI, job satisfaction, well-being, and engagement on the officers' organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Brunetto et al., 2012). EI was found to be significantly and directly related to job satisfaction and well-being. Job satisfaction and well-being were significantly related to employee engagement. Engagement was significantly related to commitment and commitment was significantly negatively related to turnover intention. It is worth noting that as the officers' self-reported EI increased so did the officers reported well-being. As well-being increased so did job satisfaction, engagement, and organizational commitment which led to lower levels of turnover intention.

Volunteer Engagement and Retention

A meta-analysis on work engagement found that work engagement was significantly and positively associated with organizational commitment (Halbesleben, 2010). Organizational engagement and commitment, although often viewed as synonymous, are different concepts in volunteer service and reveal different predictive patterns (Vecina et al., 2013). Whereas, commitment has been linked to intent to stay with the organization (extrinsic circumstances), engagement is considered an independent construct determined by the same factors that support motivation and predicts psychological well-being (intrinsic). Work engagement is characterized by high levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Vecina et al., 2013).

Volunteer engagement has been shown to strongly influence volunteers' satisfaction with their volunteer experience. For volunteers who had been with the organization for 10 months or less, satisfaction with their volunteer work significantly

explained the volunteers' intention to remain with the organization. For veteran volunteers who had been with the organization for more than 11 months, organizational commitment more strongly explained the volunteer's intent to remain with their volunteer organization (Vecina et al., 2012; Waters & Bortree, 2012). The number of hours per month the volunteer donated significantly explained perceived benefits for 401 volunteers from 13 different U.S. programs who were over 50 years of age. The more hours of service the volunteers served (engagement), the higher the volunteers rated their perceived benefits (Song-lee & Morrow-Howell, 2013). Thus, it appears to be extremely important for volunteer retention that organizations actively support new volunteers in volunteer role engagement during the first months of their volunteer experience in order for the volunteer to have time to develop organizational commitment which has shown to have a strong and direct influence on volunteer retention.

Volunteers can have multiple dimensions of commitments (Engelberg, Zakus, Skinner, & Campbell, 2012) that influence turnover intentions in the context of their volunteer role. Drawing on for-profit organization research, Valéau et al. (2013) evaluated 343 French volunteers' commitments with turnover intention. The study proposed that volunteer commitment to the organization was comprised of three components; affective commitment (emotional), normative commitment (perceived obligation), and continuance commitment (perceived cost or loss of benefits for leaving). In addition, volunteers would feel a commitment toward the beneficiaries which would be comprised of the same three types of commitment.

Confirmatory factor analyses supported that all six factors were distinguishable from one another. Correlational analysis revealed that all six types of commitment were significantly and negatively related to turnover intent. Moderated multiple regression analyses for turnover intent revealed that only normative commitment to beneficiaries was significantly related to turnover intent over and above that explained by organizational commitment. When affective organizational commitment was low, affective and normative commitment to beneficiaries were significantly negatively related to turnover intent and nonsignificant when affective organizational commitment was high. This meant that volunteers' satisfaction could be enhanced through relationships with beneficiaries even when the volunteer was dissatisfied with the organization, thus supporting lower turnover intent. The study also found that volunteer age and tenure were significantly linked to turnover intent (Valéau et al., 2013).

Functional Motivation and Volunteer Retention

Herzberg (1974) developed a two-factor theory of job attitudes which proposed that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction arise from different factors. Experience satisfaction can be highly idiosyncratic. The factors that lead to satisfaction are known as motivators. When motivations are satisfied, employees will experience positive attitudes and job satisfaction. If employees do not experience job satisfaction they do not necessarily experience job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1974).

Motivation was found to be significantly related to volunteer retention for a group of senior Southern California volunteers from various nonprofit organizations (Garner & Garner, 2011). Researchers were surprised to find a very limited significant relationship

between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer retention when the senior volunteers were faced with negative experiences in their volunteer work. A positive relationship between satisfaction and organizational support, and a positive relationship between satisfaction and neglect, indicated that the volunteers were not likely to respond to negative experiences by leaving the organization. The volunteers were also not likely to verbalize their feelings of dissatisfaction. They were more likely to use negative behaviors such as neglecting their duties or showing up late in response to their dissatisfaction. The values motivation was significantly and positively related to volunteer retention for this group. Career motivation was significantly negatively related to volunteer retention. Social, protective, and understanding motivation was positive and nonsignificant to retention. And, enhancement was negative and nonsignificant to retention (Garner & Garner, 2011).

When volunteers' motivational goals and activities were matched volunteers have reported higher satisfaction with their volunteer experience. The volunteers who felt the activities matched their motivational goals indicated that they were likely to continue to volunteer into the future. Volunteers who felt that their goals had not been met indicated they were not likely to continue in their current volunteer work (Caldarella et al., 2010; Clary et al., 1998; Tschirhart et al., 2001). While volunteer recruitment campaigns may receive a lot of attention, meeting current volunteers' expectations, recognizing and valuing their efforts has been found to be more important for successful volunteer recruitment and retention than advertising and marketing campaigns (Stirling et al., 2011).

Child Advocacy Volunteerism

History of child protection. They were early, albeit sporadic, recorded child protection interventions by American judges and other caring adults prior to 1875 but there were no organizations devoted exclusively to child welfare and protection (Myers, 2008). In 1874 missionary Etta Wheeler sought to intervene and rescue nine-year-old Mary Ellen Wilson who suffered from continuous neglect and physical abuse by the guardians who had taken in Mary Ellen after the death of her father and the disappearance of her mother. The missionary asked police to help her rescue the child but the police were not willing to help. Unable to find other means of support to rescue the child, Wheeler sought out the assistance of the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals founder Henry Bergh. Bergh responded to the missionary's plea by engaging the help of his personal attorney Elbridge Geery. Those caring individuals were able to secure the removal of the child away from the abusive guardians.

Following their involvement in the Mary Ellen Wilson child abuse case, Bergh and Geery were driven to actively address the lack of child protection organizations in New York and created the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children charity (Myers, 2008). By 1922 there were 300 nongovernmental child-protection societies scattered across the United States. The devastating economic crash of the 1930s Great Depression forced sweeping changes throughout most of American society and sadly those changes included social welfare programs. In an effort to continue to serve communities and children in need, many of the established child welfare societies merged with other organizations while others were forced to close their doors. It was during that

historic economic devastation that government agencies became the recognized protectors of public welfare including the welfare of abused and neglected children (Myers, 2008).

In 1963 U.S. states began to enact legislation that required doctors to report suspected child abuse to police or child welfare agencies. By 1974 all fifty states had some form of mandatory reporting laws (Fraser, 1977). Not surprisingly, the mandatory reporting of suspected child abuse laws brought about a sharp increase in the number of children entering the child welfare system. In 1974 the number of child abuse cases reported annually was around 60,000 cases. By the 1980s that number had climbed to around one million child welfare reports annually. The increase in the number of reports would continue to climb until the turn of the century. Simply put, the U.S. child welfare system was struggling (Myers, 2008).

CASA/GAL model. The Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA) of 1974 (P.L. 93-247) resulted in a nationwide system of government sponsored child protection. CAPTA stated that the federal government would allocate federal funding to states for the identification, prevention, and treatment of child abuse and neglect if the state met certain conditions. One of the conditions was the court appointment of a GAL to represent the child's independent best interest in judicial proceedings (Fraser, 1977).

States were left to interpret CAPTA's GAL requirement on their own. In a law review paper referencing CAPTA and addressing the use of a GAL as the independent representative for protecting an abused or neglected child's best interest, Fraser (1977) acknowledged that the law did not require that the GAL be an attorney but firmly thought

that the GAL should be an attorney. Fraser argued that a GAL is the most effective form of independent representation for a court involved child and the “only real solution to protecting the abused or neglected child’s interests” (p. 17).

If the purpose of an appointment is to protect the child’s interests, then it would seem axiomatic that such an appointment be made to one who understands the ‘system’ and how it can be used most effectively for the child’s interests. (Fraser, 1977, p. 30).

Since CAPTA did not specify what qualifications were required to be appointed a GAL or what the GAL’s specific responsibilities would be, states developed various GAL models. Boumil, Freitas, and Freitas (2011) wrote that GALs generally have expertise in law, mental health, or both. They listed the most important role of a GAL as being an investigator of facts, adding that the GAL might also function as a mental health evaluator, a family mediator, next friend attorney, and child’s attorney. Boumil et al., cautioned that professionals appointed as a GAL should not be performing outside their area of training or expertise. For example, lawyers should not be interpreting technical psychological tests and mental health professionals should not be interpreting complex legal standards.

Some states allow an attorney to serve the dual role as the attorney ad litem and GAL (e.g., Texas Family Code, Chapter 107). Boumil et al. (2011) stated that there are legal and ethical concerns when attorneys serve in both capacities and those concerns need to be addressed. One concern is the possibility that the dually appointed attorney could find themselves in an ethical conflict of interest. An attorney is legally and

ethically charged with upholding the attorney-client privilege and as the child's representative should present the child's wishes to the court. As a GAL, the dually appointed attorney should also be advocating for the child's best interest. The GAL's belief of what constitutes the child's best interest may not be congruent with the child's expressed wishes (Waxman, Houston, Profilet, & Sanchez, 2009). Appearing to agree with that line of reasoning, the Illinois Supreme Court invalidated the practice of having an attorney dually represent delinquent juveniles as their attorney and their GAL in 2012 (Bernabe, 2013).

Almost 40 years ago Superior Court Judge David W. Soukup of King County (Seattle), Washington invited a few people from the community to get together for a brown bag lunch at the juvenile court to address the GAL appointment condition of CAPTA. Judge Soukup's idea was to have community volunteers trained to be investigators for the court on child welfare cases. An unexpected large turnout of 50 people showed up for that first meeting. Judge Soukup responded to the positive interest by founding the King County Guardian Ad Litem program, later renamed Dependency CASA Program (National CASA Association, 2015).

The CASA model proposed by Judge Soukup in 1977, and still in effect today, is a community volunteer driven GAL organization. By 2007 CASA had advocated for approximately 2 million abused and neglected children throughout the United States. CASA currently has 951 community and state programs. In 2012 approximately 75,000 volunteers advocated for 238,000 children (National CASA Association, 2015).

CASA is a nationally recognized organization established for the sole purpose of providing case advocacy for children confirmed as having suffered abuse and neglect (Litzelfelner & Petr, 1997). The United States Department of Justice is a primary funder of the National CASA Association through the Department's Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (National CASA Association, 2015). In an international comparative study on representing children's best interest in court, Bilson and White (2005) took note of the U.S. CASA volunteer program writing that such a program would require complex infrastructure, a high level of training, and strong management and support. Bilson and White believed that there would likely be high "rates of attrition and the need for ongoing and vigorous recruitment campaigns" in that type GAL program (p. 230). Bilson and White concluded that they did not think the CASA approach to representing the child's best interest in court could be easily transferable to other countries.

CASA volunteers are recruited from the same local communities as the jurisdiction of the family court. CASA volunteers are not required to have any prerequisite specialized knowledge or expertise. Duquette and Ramsey (1987) evaluated attorneys, law students, and lay volunteers who were advocating for abused and neglected children and determined that the most important influence on case outcomes for children was that the advocate be trained specifically for child advocacy. The individual's profession or role did not make a difference. Potential CASA volunteers must pass extensive background checks, must complete 30-hours of pre-service training using the *National CASA Volunteer Training Curriculum* or its equivalent and must observe family

court procedures before being appointed to a case. In addition, the CASA must complete 12-hours of relevant in-service training annually for as long as they are an active volunteer. Volunteer roles and responsibilities are clearly stated in national and local CASA standards (National CASA Association, 2015; Texas CASA, 2015).

Examining data from nine cities across six states, Condelli (1988) compared the effectiveness of five approaches to GAL representation in child abuse and neglect proceedings. The methods of GAL representation included law student with a faculty advisor, staff attorney, paid private attorney, CASA with paid attorney, and unassisted CASA. The private attorney model showed to be the weakest method of representation. Private attorneys did not conduct adequate investigations, did not monitor their cases, did not assist in placement decisions, and frequently failed to meet with the child before or after court appearances. Law students did not perform well possibly due to the students' inexperience with child welfare and the legal system. Staff attorneys were effective in legal services but did not follow up or maintain contact with the child. The two CASA models were highly rated by judges, state attorneys, and GAL program directors. CASAs conducted extensive investigations, developed good relationships with clients, closely monitored the case throughout the legal process while maintaining an independent position, and were the most effective in supporting family reunification.

CASA effectiveness. The cases assigned by judges for advocacy through CASA programs are generally cases that involve prior maltreatment, extreme neglect, physical or sexual abuse, or cases that appear to be at high risk for complexities (Caliber, 2004; NCASAA, 2015). Although scholarly research on the effectiveness of CASA programs is

minimal and inconclusive (Duquette & Darwall, 2012), there is sufficient information to support the position that CASA volunteers can meet many of the challenges facing the abused children, their families, and the overloaded child welfare system. When appropriate and warranted a CASA will help in coordinating social services for the child and their families. CASAs are more likely than other type GALs to go into the homes where the children are living (Condelli, 1988; Litzelfelner, 1997). Children with a CASA are more likely to be placed within 30 miles of the child's original home. The closer proximity of placement allows more frequent supervised visits for the child and their families (Hart, 2001).

When family reunification is not a viable option, adoption will likely be sought. In 2013 there were 101,840 U.S. children waiting to be adopted. Those children had already spent on average 33.5 months in foster care. Of the children in care eligible for adoption 50,608 children were adopted. Eighty-two percent of the children adopted were younger than 18 months old. The children who were adopted (47% White, 21% Black or African American, 21% Hispanic) spent on average 12.3 months in foster care after parental rights had been legally terminated (USDHHS, 2014). Abramson (1991) found that minority children who were represented by a CASA were less likely than a control group to be placed in long-term foster care and more likely to be adopted than children without CASAs.

A two year comparative study on the long-term effects for 581 children and their families from the Houston, Texas area found several significant differences between children with a CASA and those without (Waxman et al., 2009). In the Houston area

study, children with a CASA had significantly higher scores in their first year in care for neighborhood resources, controls against deviant behavior, had a stronger sense of acceptance, had a more positive attitude toward the value of future achievement, and were better able to work with others. CASA children had significantly fewer placement changes during the first year in care and fewer changes in the second year although the second year placement difference did not reach a significant level. CASA children received more treatment services, had better conduct, less school expulsions, and were more likely to pass all their courses than the control group.

CASA is legally mandated by the child welfare court to file periodic status reports (NCASAA, 2015). In the primary role of fact investigator for the court (Boumil et al., 2011), a CASA will spend much of their volunteer time talking and interacting with people connected to the child's case. The CASA may have contact with biological parents, custodial parents, relatives, foster parents, child protective service workers, law enforcement, attorneys, medical professionals, mental health therapist, school officials, or any number of other people in order to gather as much information as possible for determining what CASA thinks is in the best interest of the child. Relationship management can be pivotal in advocating for the best interest of abused and neglected children (McHale, 2005).

Summary and Conclusions

In 2013 the number of people volunteering in the United States was the lowest it had been in the last decade. Many nonprofit organizations rely on volunteer workers to achieve their social mission. CASA is a national volunteer driven child advocacy

organization where trained community volunteers are court appointed to advocate for the best interest of children who have been abused and neglected and are in state custody. CASA was only able to serve about 59% of children in foster care due in large part to a shortage of trained volunteers. In addition, CASA experienced a 36% annual turnover rate of trained volunteers (NCASAA, 2013).

This chapter presented an overview of the current and historical scholarly research on volunteerism, functional motivation, trait EI, volunteer engagement, volunteer retention, and child welfare protection. The literature review began with a discussion of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for the variables of trait EI, functional motivation, volunteer retention, and work engagement. A broad literature review of the key variables of volunteerism, functional motivation to volunteer, and EI followed. The literature review was narrowed to focus more specifically on trait EI, EI and volunteerism, volunteer engagement and retention, and functional motivation and volunteer retention. Lastly, a review of child advocacy began with an overview of the history of child protection in the United States and discussion of the CASA/GAL model followed. The chapter closed by examining the information available on CASA effectiveness.

The organizing theoretical framework for studying volunteerism varies across the disciplines of psychology, sociology, and economics. Psychological theories of volunteering focus on intrapsychic phenomena of the individual which includes an individual's motives, attitudes, and values. The VFI was developed to measure six psychological motives served by volunteering: values, understanding, social, career,

protective, and enhancement. The VFI has been used for assessing motives for volunteering, frequency of volunteering, evaluating persuasiveness of volunteer recruitment advertising brochures, and volunteer retention.

There are two competing EI constructs based on measurement method and operationalization; mental ability model and trait EI. It is widely acknowledged by researchers that the different measurements of EI are not revealing the same construct. A meta-analysis on EI found that self-reported EI measures showed more incremental validity over personality and cognitive ability in high emotional labor job than in low emotional labor jobs.

Trait EI is rooted in differential psychology and has been shown to be distinct from personality but a part of personality constructs on the lower levels of personality hierarchies. Lower order traits tend to be better predictors of certain behaviors. Trait EI theory recognizes the inherent subjectivity of an individual's emotional experience. Trait EI proponents acknowledge that there is not an optimal EI archetype and that certain EI profiles will be advantageous in some contexts but not in others.

Work engagement is characterized by an individual bringing his or her full capacity to the job through a high level of vigor, dedication, and absorption. The JD-R model is the theoretical framework for work engagement and is based on COR theory. An assumption of the JD-R model is that every occupation has unique factors that influence job-related stress and motivation. Volunteer work engagement in the first six months of volunteer service has been shown to be positively associated with volunteer

satisfaction. Volunteer satisfaction supports organizational commitment which supports volunteer retention.

The CASA/GAL model was developed in 1977 in response to 1974 legislation requiring states to appoint a GAL to represent an abused child in judicial proceedings as a condition for the state to receive federal funding. CASA is a nationally recognized organization established for the sole purpose of providing advocacy for abused children. A CASA's primary role is to be a fact investigator for the court. The CASA model of recruiting, training, and supporting community volunteers has been highly rated by judges, state attorneys, and GAL program directors. CASA has been found to have numerous positive influences on child outcomes.

The job of working with children in crisis is inherently stressful whether it is paid or volunteer work. As a fact finder for the court, a CASA volunteer will interact with numerous stakeholders. Relationship management can be pivotal in advocating for the best interest of abused and neglected children. EI has been found to be significantly related to lower stress and burnout in high emotional labor jobs. Trait EI has been associated with more frequent use of adaptive coping strategies and infrequent use of maladaptive coping strategies and other job related variables. Early contextual volunteer engagement has been found to positively influence volunteer satisfaction which results in higher volunteer retention.

The literature review for each variable in this study made reference to the importance of considering context, particularly when evaluating the relationships of individual's subjective dispositions and job related variables. This research adds to the

body of knowledge on volunteerism by evaluating the relationships of trait EI and functional motivation with the volunteer work related variables of volunteer engagement and volunteer intended retention in a child advocacy organization. Chapter 3 explains the design of the proposed study, samples and population, instrumentation and data collection, and data analysis.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this study is to add to the small body of research on volunteerism by evaluating the relationships of trait emotional intelligence (EI) and motivation to volunteer to volunteer work engagement and sustained volunteerism in a nationally recognized volunteer-driven child advocacy volunteer organization. In *The New Volunteer Workforce*, Eisner, Grimm, Maynard, and Washburn (2009) presented five reasons underlying the decline in volunteerism: (1) not matching volunteers' skills with assignments, (2) failing to recognize volunteers' contributions, (3) not measuring the value of volunteers, (4) failing to train and invest in volunteers, and (5) failing to provide strong leadership. This quantitative research was designed help address three of the reasons listed above by helping Court Appointed Special Advocate (CASA) organizations:

- match volunteer skills with their assignment,
- establish better training for volunteers, and
- identify information for use in supporting stronger organizational leadership.

This chapter begins with a discussion on the rationale behind using a quantitative research approach for examining the statistical relationships between variables. The variables for this study were *trait EI*, *motivation to volunteer*, *volunteer engagement*, and *intention to continue as a CASA volunteer*. Target population sample size requirements, recruitment efforts, and data collection procedures are detailed in this chapter. Three variable measurement instruments, psychometric properties of those instruments, and each instruments use with various populations are evaluated. Finally, possible threats to

the validity of this research and ethical procedures for participant protection and information security are addressed.

Research Design and Rationale

Four specific research questions were explored:

- Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
- Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
- Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
- Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?

Using information collected from an online survey questionnaire, I evaluated the relationships between two predictor variables (volunteer trait EI and motivation to volunteer) and two criterion variables (volunteer work engagement and intended retention for CASA volunteers).

Email surveys have tended to be the best online approach for short and simple survey questionnaires designed to gather research information (Borden & Abbott, 2014). Online surveys can be developed and administered easily, quickly, and for little cost. Although email survey response rates have declined since the late 1980s (Fincham, 2008), online surveys remain a popular approach for collecting information. When a study's purpose is to measure effects or make generalizations, online surveying is an appropriate means to obtain information. Online survey response rates of 30-40% are

considered to be an average response rate; a 50% response rate is considered good, and 60% is considered a very good response rate (Fincham, 2008; University of Texas, 2015).

Internet survey nonresponse errors have been cited as a concern for conducting online research (Paraschiv, 2013); however, Internet surveys have shown to produce results comparable to other type survey methods (LaRose & Tsai, 2014). Prenotifications, email response reminders, survey response incentives, and timing of the delivery of the survey are additional efforts that can be used to potentially increase the survey response rate (Bordens & Abbott, 2014; Dillman, Reips, & Matzat, 2010; LaRose & Tsai, 2014; Paraschiv, 2013). Due to time constraints, financial limitations, the complexity of obtaining adequate CASA volunteer contact information, and the loss of anonymity, I used postal mail prenotifications and email reminders for this project. A monetary donation to an established statewide CASA volunteer recruitment program was offered to participants as a survey completion incentive.

Methodology

Target Population

The target population for this nonexperimental research on volunteerism was current CASA volunteers. A nonrandom purposive sample of active CASA volunteers across Texas was invited to participate in this research. Purposive sampling can be used when a researcher's subjective judgment is that the sampling unit appears to represent the population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008), as was the case in this study. An active volunteer was defined as a volunteer who is assigned to a case at the time of completing the survey or the volunteer has not gone longer than 6 months without being

assigned to a case. Texas had approximately 7,600 CASA volunteers from 71 different programs in 2013. CASA volunteers from Texas represented 9.86% of the total national CASA volunteer population for 2013 (NCASA, 2013; Texas CASA, 2013). The sample recruitment group was expected to adequately represent the Texas CASA volunteer population. The initial recruitment of participants limited to the geographic area of Texas did not provide an adequate number of participants and recruitment was expanded to CASA programs in other states.

Sampling Size

Cohen (1992a) proposed that when there is no other basis for setting a desired value of power that .80 should be used. Measures of effect size include Cohen's d , Glass' g , and Pearson's correlation coefficient r (Field, 2009). Cohen (1992a) operationalized effect indices as *small*, *medium*, or *large*. Cohen (1992b) developed a sample size table indicating the number of participants needed for a small, medium, or large ES at power = .80 with $\alpha = .01$, .05, and .10 for eight different types of standard statistical tests.

The four specific research questions driving this project asked if trait EI and motivation to volunteer have a relationship with volunteer engagement and intention to continue volunteering as a CASA. When trait EI was collapsed into one global score and six functional motivations there were a total of seven IVs, or predictor variables. For a multiple regression analysis, the necessary number of participants, power = .80, $\alpha = .05$, for a medium ES ($f^2 = .15$) using seven IVs is 102 participants (Cohen, 1992b). When trait EI is expanded into four factors, the number of participants required for multiple regression analysis on 10 predictor variables (four trait EI factors and six motivation

factors) is 118 participants (G*Power Version 3.1.5). One hundred fifty five participants completed the survey which allowed for correlational and multiple regression analysis on all variables using power = .80 and $\alpha = .05$.

Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Texas CASA is a state organization that actively partners with 71 community CASA programs throughout Texas. The Texas CASA website has a list of CASA staff contact email addresses and web links to those 71 Texas programs that can be accessed by the general public (Texas CASA, 2015a). An email was sent to each one of the 71 independent programs staff contact email address introducing me as the researcher, giving my contact information, and stating the purpose of the research. The email informed the staff recipient that there would be a follow-up email sent with the survey link within the following week. I asked the CASA staff member to forward the upcoming survey link to their programs' active CASA volunteers. According to the CASAManagerTM software website many CASA programs use a type of program that allows organizational users to filter for "active" volunteers only (CasaManager, n. d). I did not have access to the contact information for the individuals receiving the participation invitation.

The participation request email sent to CASA volunteers stated the purpose of the research noting that participation is voluntary and information would be received anonymously. The estimated amount of time to complete the survey was stated along with any risks and benefits that might have been with participation. As an incentive for participating, the researcher offered a \$10 donation (up to a maximum of \$1000) for each

completed survey. One thousand dollars was donated to Texas CASA's *Become a CASA* program (Texas CASA, 2015b). The Become a CASA program is a resource for volunteer recruitment that is hosted on and accessed through the Texas CASA website.

The invitation email sent to potential research participants contained informed consent information and stated that accessing and submitting the survey would indicate implied consent. A survey link created with SurveyMonkey was given. The anonymous survey did not ask any distinguishing or personally identifying information. Demographic information requested followed the demographic information gathered by NCASAA for annual local program reporting and was limited to gender, age category, level of education, current employment status, length of time as a CASA volunteer, and whether the participant's CASA local program was primarily urban, suburban/mixed, or rural. Two weeks from the date the email survey was sent to the local CASA programs was the stated timeframe allowed for completing the survey and qualifying the survey for the donation to the Become a CASA program.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

This study measured the variables of trait EI, motivation to volunteer, and volunteer engagement with published instruments. Trait EI was measured with the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Version 1.50 (TEIQue; Petrides, 2009). Motivation to volunteer was measured with the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998). Volunteer engagement was measured with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scales-9 (UWES-9; Schaufeli & Baker, 2003). Intent to continue was measured with two scaled questions. The VFI, TEIQue, and UWES-9 can all be reproduced for noncommercial

research purposes without seeking written permission (See Appendix for published assessments and permissions to use).

Trait EI. Development of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) by K. V. Petrides began in 1998 with Petrides' (2001) doctoral dissertation (Petrides, 2009). Using various operationalizations of trait EI from Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1995), and Salovey and Mayer (1990), Petrides and Furnham (2001) conducted a content analysis of the salient EI models of the time. From that analysis a trait EI model consisting of 15 EI facets was developed. Petrides and Furnham (2001) argued that Bar-On's EQ-i assessment did tap into the "aspects of *trait* EI" (p. 428) but noted that Bar-On freely used the terms *ability* and *intelligence* throughout the EQ-i technical manual.

In a second study measuring trait EI using the EQ-i with an added 15-item scale labeled 'emotional mastery', trait EI showed to be a distinguishable (i.e., discriminant) composite lower order personality trait within the Eysenckian (1997) personality model (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Trait EI, also called trait emotional self-efficacy, has been defined as "a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Petrides, 2009, p. 12). The operationalization of trait EI recognizes "the inherent subjectivity of emotions" (p. 12). Trait EI theory is "a theory of perceptions and dispositions" (Petrides, 2009, p. 9). Thus, a self-report measurement for trait EI is not intended to be a measure of ability EI or maximum performance EI but a measurement of EI as a lower level personality trait based on differential psychology theory.

Table 1

The Adult Sampling Domain of Trait Emotional Intelligence

Factor and Facets	High scorers perceive themselves as:
Well-being Self-esteem Trait happiness Trait optimism	Successful and self-confident. Cheerful and satisfied with their lives. Confident and likely to “look on the bright side” of life.
Self-control Emotion regulation Stress management Impulsiveness (low)	Capable of controlling their emotions. Capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress. Reflective and less likely to give in to their urges.
Emotionality Emotion perception (self and others) Emotion expression Relationships Empathy	Clear about their own and other people’s feelings. Capable of communicating their feelings to others. Capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships. Capable of taking someone else’s perspective.
Sociability Social awareness Emotion management (others) Assertiveness	Accomplished networkers with superior social skills. Capable of influencing other people’s feelings. Forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights.
Auxiliary facets Adaptability Self-motivation	Flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions. Driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity.

TEIQue Technical Manual (Petrides, 2009)

TEIQue scoring is based on a 7-point response range option of 1 = *disagree completely* to 7 = *agree completely*. The TEIQue is comprised of 153 items, 15 facets, four factors, and a global trait EI score (see Table 1 for facet descriptions and Table 2 for internal consistencies). The TEIQue takes about 20 minutes to complete. The TEIQue short form (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2003) consists of 30 items, 2 items each that cover the 15 facets and is recommended when a rapid assessment of trait EI differences is sufficient. The TEIQue-SF does not yield scores on the 15 trait EI facets, but does provide scores on the four trait EI factors. The four trait EI factors internal

consistencies have tended to be around $a = .69$ which is lower in comparison to the full TEIQue (Andrei, Mancini, Baldaro, Trombini, & Agnoli, 2014; Cooper & Petrides, 2010; Petrides, 2009).

Table 2

TEIQue Facets, Factors, and Global Scale and Internal Consistencies

Factor and Facets	Female a $n = 907^b$	Male a $n = 759^b$	a $n = 1624^c$
Well-being	.83	.84	.83
Self-esteem	.81	.78	.80
Trait happiness	.87	.85	.86
Trait optimism	.81	.78	.80
Self-control	.78	.78	.79
Emotion regulation	.79	.78	.81
Stress management	.80	.76	.80
Impulsiveness (low)	.75	.74	.75
Emotionality	.75	.80	.78
Emotion perception (self and others)	.70	.75	.73
Emotion expression	.89	.87	.88
Relationships	.68	.69	.70
Empathy	.67	.70	.70
Sociability	.79	.82	.81
Social awareness	.80	.83	.81
Emotion management (others)	.68	.72	.71
Assertiveness	.76	.73	.76
Adaptability ^a	.74	.73	.74
Self-motivation ^a	.71	.70	.70
Global trait EI	.89	.92	.90

Data from TEIQue Technical Manual (Petrides, 2009, pp. 18-19)

^a This facet is not keyed to any factor, but feeds into the global trait EI score

^b TEIQue Technical Manual (Petrides, 2009, p. 18)

^c http://www.psychometriclab.com/webnote_1.pdf

Working on the premise that the TEIQue is “the only measure capturing all the components of EI conceptualized as a trait” (p. 3), Andrei et al. (2014) conducted a systematic review of 77 published articles in order to evaluate the predictive utility of the

TEIQue. Fifty-four of the articles focused primarily on adult samples and most of those articles examined the relationships between trait EI and health-related criteria. The review suggested that trait EI is a valid predictor of a variety of health-related criteria, social situations, and adaptive coping styles. The authors caution that there is also research information that suggests that “high EI levels may not be adaptive in every context” and that high trait EI “is not always associated with desirable outcomes” (p. 21).

VFI. The Volunteers Function Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998) is a self-report inventory questionnaire to assess and further understand the motivations of volunteers. Clary et al.’s (1998) seminal paper presented six different studies demonstrating the psychometric properties of the VFI. Using factor analysis on information obtained from adults ($N = 465$; *mean* age = 40.9 years) who were actively volunteering at the time of the study, the data revealed six functional motivational factors underlying volunteerism: *Values, Understanding, Enhancement, Career, Social, and Protective*, (see Table 3). Functional inventory items are rated on a 7-point response scale ranging from 1 = *not at all important or accurate* to 7 = *extremely important or accurate*.

Internal consistencies (Cronbach’s alpha coefficient) of the six functional motivation scales were determined by Clary et al. (1998) to be: values ($a = .80$), understanding ($a = .81$), enhancement ($a = .84$), career ($a = .89$), social ($a = .83$), and protective ($a = .81$), with interscale correlation $a = .34$. Similarly, the internal consistency of the scales for a younger student sample group ($n = 534$, *mean* age = 21.25 years) was values ($a = .82$), understanding ($a = .84$), enhancement ($a = .85$), career ($a = .85$), social ($a = .83$), and protective ($a = .81$), with interscale correlation $a = .41$ (Clary et al., 1998).

See Table 4 for additional reliability and consistency evaluations from a few current studies.

Table 3

Functions Served by Volunteering and Their Assessment on Volunteers Function Inventory (VFI)

Function	Conceptual definition	Sample VFI item
Values	The individual volunteers in order to express or act on important values like humanitarianism.	I feel it is important to help others.
Understanding	The volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused.	Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience.
Enhancement	One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities.	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
Career	The volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering.	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.
Social	Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships.	People I know share an interest in community service.
Protective	The individual uses volunteering to reduce negative feelings, such as guilt, or to address personal problems.	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.

Note. Reprinted from “The Motivations to Volunteer: Theoretical and Practical Considerations,” by E. G. Clary and M. Snyder, 1999, *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8(5), p. 157. Copyright 1999 by the American Psychological Society.

Predictive validity was established by correlating participants’ motivations and persuasive communications, motivations and volunteer satisfaction, and motivations to future intentions to continue volunteering. Undergraduate psychology students ($n = 59$) were assessed using the VFI and further asked to evaluate advertising brochures designed to appeal to each one of the six motivations. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that values ($p < .01$), understanding ($p < .001$), enhancement ($p < .001$), and protective ($p < .005$) motivation scale scores significantly predicted participants’ evaluation of the

persuasiveness of the corresponding message contained in the brochure. Both career ($p < .001$) and understanding ($p < .005$) scores predicted the persuasiveness of the career message. No VFI scale significantly predicted the persuasiveness of the social brochure (Clary et al., 1998).

Table 4

VFI Populations and Reliability Analysis

Population	V <i>a</i>	U <i>a</i>	E <i>a</i>	C <i>a</i>	S <i>a</i>	P <i>a</i>
Portuguese food bank volunteers (Agostinho & Paco, 2012).	.72	.82	.72	.89	.81	.82
U.S. youth sport volunteer coaches (Busser & Carruthers, 2010).	.74	.89			.53	.89
U.S. undergraduate students (Gage & Thorpe, 2012). ^a	.92	.92	.82	.87	.87	.89
Australian online panelist volunteers (Vocino & Polonsky, 2011).	.88	.91	.93	.94	.90	.91

V = Values, U = Understanding, E = Enhancement, C = Career, S = Social

^a V and U factors loaded as one factor

VFI scale scores for older volunteers ($n = 61$; mean age 70 years) from a community hospital were evaluated to determine if the VFI predicted volunteers' satisfaction. The results of a contrast analysis found that the two highest ranked motivational functions for the group, values and enhancement, significantly predicted volunteer satisfaction ($p < .05$). The next two lower ranked motivational functions were social and understanding which marginally predicted volunteer satisfaction ($p < .10$). The two lowest ranked motivational functions for this group were protective and career and were not significant in predicting volunteers' satisfaction (Clary et al., 1998).

In order to measure the relationship between functional motivations and future volunteer intentions, undergraduate business student participants ($n = 396$) were required to engage in 40 hours of volunteer service. Satisfaction with the volunteer experience was measured after the students completed the volunteer service. All six of the comparisons of functional motivation and functionally relevant benefits (i.e., satisfaction) were statistically significant. Those individuals who perceived an alignment with their motivation to volunteer and relevant benefits were significantly more likely to indicate they would continue to volunteer into the future (Clary et al., 1998).

Since its development the VFI has been used extensively for assessing motivations to volunteer for a large range and diversity of volunteers. In addition, the VFI was also found to be a better predictor of frequency of volunteering (e.g., engagement) than an open-ended inquiry (Allison, Okun, & Dutridge, 2002). Assessing and understanding volunteer motivations for a particular type of volunteerism can help to support volunteer recruitment, predict types of individuals who are more likely to volunteer with that particular organization, and support increased volunteer satisfaction and retention (Clary et al., 1998). Specifically, assessing and understanding CASA volunteers' functional motivations can help CASA organizations to optimize their recruiting, training, and retention efforts.

UWES. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) around the same time positive psychology was beginning to emerge in the organizational literature and setting. Ninety five percent of the articles published in the *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* prior to the 2003 UWES development date

dealt with negative aspects of workers' health and well-being (UWES Version 1.1 Manual, p. 3). At that time job burnout and work engagement were being measured simultaneously as opposite poles on a continuum of well-being. Schaufeli and Baker (2003) demonstrated that burnout and work engagement were two distinct concepts and therefore should be measured independently of one another.

Engagement has been considered the antipode of burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). To evaluate the relationships between engagement and burnout as opposites (discriminant principle of construct validity; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 153), the correlation between engagement and the three dimensions of burnout (exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy) were statistically measured. All correlational dimensions showed to be negative with no significant relationships found (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) noted that although burnout and engagement were strongly negatively related, the two were not perfect polar opposites. What this means is that an individual can be burned out and still be engaged in their work. To determine what engagement is more akin to (convergent principle of construct validity; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 153), a positive correlation was found between the UWES and the *high pleasure, high activation* quadrant of the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (Balducci et al., 2010).

The UWES was designed to measure three aspects of work engagement; vigor, dedication, and absorption (see Table 5). A 17-item version, a 15-item version, and a 9-item version of the UWES have been developed (Schaufeli & Baker, 2003). The original

longer Dutch version of the UWES showed to have satisfactory psychometric properties (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Using data from nine countries, it was determined that the coefficient of reproducibility for the UWES-9 as compared to the original longer UWES 15-item scales exceeded $r = .90$, the minimum for accepting scales as unidimensional (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 427; Schaufeli et al., 2006). To demonstrate UWES reliability, a test-retest was administered after one year for Australian Salvation Army officers ($n = 293$) and Norwegian paramedic participants ($n = 2,111$). The test-retest stability coefficients for those samples were .64 and .73 respectively (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Table 5

Factors of Engagement and Their Assessment on the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Factor	Conceptual definition	Sample UWES item ^a
Vigor	The individual has a high level of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort, is not easily fatigued, and is persistence in the face of difficulties.	I feel bursting with energy at my volunteer work.
Dedication	The individual derives a sense of significance, feels enthusiastic and proud, and feels inspired and challenged by their volunteer work.	I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.
Absorption	The individual is totally and happily immersed in, and has difficulties detaching from, the volunteer work so that they forget everything else that is around them.	I am immersed in my volunteer work.

Note: Adapted from “UWES Preliminary Manual Version 1” by W. Schaufeli and A. Bakker, 2003, pp. 5-6, 21. Copyright Occupational Health Unit Utrecht University.

^a Work or job statement changed to volunteer work

Internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's a) for the original Dutch version of the UWES-9 scales ($n = 9,679$) was vigor ($a = .84$), dedication ($a = .89$), and absorption ($a = .79$). The total internal consistency reliability measure for the UWES-9 was $a = .93$. All of the correlations were above the acceptable level of $a = .70$ which is an indication of how tightly the items in the scale "hang together" (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 425). To address the external validity "the extent to which the research findings can be generalized to larger populations and applied to different settings" (i.e., generalizability; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 102) of the UWES-9, information from an international database that included 23 studies from nine different countries across 10 different types of occupational groups was evaluated. The internal consistency for the UWES-9 scales ($n = 12,631$) were vigor ($a = .72$), dedication ($a = .84$), and absorption ($a = .77$), total scale $a = .90$ (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Balducci, Fraccaroli, and Schaufeli (2010) also found similar results for the internal consistency reliability of the UWES-9 ($a = .92$) from a sample of Italian ($n = 668$) and Dutch ($n = 2213$) public administration white-collar employees.

To determine factor structure and inter-correlations of the UWES-9 scales, information from the same database of nine countries was used to compare the fit of a three-factor solution model and a one-factor solution model. Both models showed high commonalities for the UWES-9 but the three-factor model was higher (closer to one) than the one-factor model (Field, 2009, p. 642; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, pp. 28- 30). Because correlations between the three dimensions of the UWES are quite strong, it has been suggested that when running multivariate regression data analyses, only the UWES-

9 total score should be entered in order to avoid multicollinearity (De Bruin & Henn, 2013; Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

The first study that evaluated work engagement specifically for a sample of volunteers ($n = 245$) was Vecina et al. (2012). To adapt the UWES-9 to volunteers, “voluntary work” was substituted for “work”. For example, “I always feel like volunteering” (vigor), “I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work” (dedication), and “Time flies when I am volunteering” (absorption). The volunteer study found the reliability of the UWES-9 to be similar to that of Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) and Balducci et al. (2010). The total reliability coefficient for the UWES-9 was $a = .90$. The three scale measures were vigor ($a = .79$), dedication ($a = .79$), and absorption ($a = .77$). Similarly, Vecina et al. (2013) modified the UWES-9 for volunteers and found total reliability coefficient $a = .91$, vigor ($a = .79$), dedication ($a = .79$), and absorption ($a = .78$). In addition, volunteer engagement, assessed by the UWES, was able to predict psychological well-being in a sample of volunteers from 18 different organizations (Vecina et al., 2013).

Work engagement appears to be a highly stable indicator of occupational and volunteer well-being (Seppälä, Mauno, Feldt, Hakanen, Kinnunen, Tolvanen, & Schaufeli, 2009; Vecina et al., 2013). Beyond the studies already discussed, the UWES has more recently been used to evaluate the level of work engagement for Dutch dental hygienists (Bunk-Werkhoven, Hollaar, & Jongbloed-Zoet, 2014), employees in a UK teaching hospital (Jeve, Oppenheimer, & Konje, 2015), South African employees from an information and communication company (De Bruin, Hill, Henn, & Muller, 2013),

employees from an Auckland call center and two Auckland finance organizations (Vijevac, Cooper-Thomas, & Saks, 2012), English speaking South African working adults (De Bruin & Henn, 2013), and Italian white-collar employees (Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2010). This research used the UWES-9 to evaluate the relationships between volunteer work engagement, trait EI, and motivation to volunteer. As discussed above, the UWES-9 has consistently shown strong psychometric properties. Because this research is measuring multiple variables with multiple assessments, using the shorter 9-item version to assess volunteer engagement may help reduce the likelihood of participant attrition attributable to excessive survey length (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Seppälä et al., 2009).

Intention to Remain. Industrial and organizational researcher Alan Kraut (2013) has taken the position that there is no advantage to developing complex employee turnover models. Kraut says the strongest predictor of employee turnover is the employee considering leaving. Kraut says keep it simple, people are telling us what they will do, so just ask them and listen (p. 189). Volunteer's intention to remain with the CASA organization was measured with two scaled questions (1 = *highly unlikely*, 7 = *highly likely*): How likely is it that you will quit your work as a CASA volunteer before your current case is closed? How likely is it that you will accept another case within six months after completing your current case?

Data Analysis Plan

Descriptive statistics, correlational relationships and multiple regression analysis between predictor and criterion variables were analyzed with Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS) in order to investigate the four research questions and hypotheses:

- RQ1: Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
 - H1₀: There is not a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
 - H1₁: There is a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
- RQ2: Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
 - H2₀: There is not a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteers' intended retention.
 - H2₁: There is a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteer intended retention.
- RQ3: Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
 - H3₀: There is not a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteer work engagement.
 - H3₁: There is a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' work engagement.
- RQ4: Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
 - H4₀: There is not a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASAs work engagement.

- H4₁: There is a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASAs work engagement.

Separate correlational analysis and regression analysis were run to determine the predictor variables relationships to the two criterion variables of volunteer work engagement and intention to continue volunteering. Statistical relationships between variables were considered significant at the .05 level. At $\alpha = .05$ the null hypothesis will be falsely rejected no more than 5 percent of the time (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Participant demographic data included an age bracket, educational level, employment status, length of time as a CASA, and if the CASA program is primarily urban, suburban/mixed, or rural. Demographic data was reported by descriptive statistics. A comparative table displaying participants' demographic data statistics and national CASA volunteer demographic data collected by NCASAA is presented in Chapter 4.

By default, SPSS correlational analysis is computed only on variables with nonmissing data. In addition, if any values for any of the variables are missing the entire case is excluded from a SPSS regression analysis (UCLA Institute for Digital Research and Education). Schafer and Graham (2002) state that ad hoc edits for missing data may do more harm than good and may lead to biased, inefficient, and unreliable information. In contrast, Cohen (1968) argued that even though researchers may find “plugging” in mean values for missing data unappealing:

The practice of excluding cases lacking some of the data has the undesirable properties of analyzing a residual sample which is unrepresentative to an unknown degree

of the population originally sampled, as well as the loss of information (viz., the *fact* of data being missing) which may be criterion relevant (p. 438).

All information for this research was obtained from the online survey tool SurveyMonkey. SurveyMonkey allows the survey developer the option of requiring an answer to each question before the participant can continue to the next question on the survey. SurveyMonkey also allows the option of one single-row response only. Those two survey question options were utilized. No further action was needed to address missing values or duplicate responses.

Threats to Validity

Standardized instruments to assess trait EI, motivation to volunteer, and work engagement were used. All instruments have shown to be reliable and valid instruments for measuring the constructs (Clary et al., 1998; Petrides, 2009; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Demographic data collected from participants was evaluated and compared to previously published CASA demographic information to determine the potential generalizability of the study's information to Texas CASA volunteers and the larger national CASA volunteer population.

A common concern for the internal validity of self-report measures is profile distorting (impression management, dissimulation, or faking; Petrides, 2009, pp 70-71). After conducting an extensive meta-analysis on social desirability's relationship with various criterion, Ones, Viswesvaran, and Reiss, (1996) determined that social desirability does measure variance in personalities but does not contribute to the prediction of job performance, therefore, partialing out social desirability is likely to remove true variance

in the personality measure. The TEIQue technical manual (2009) has indices for interpreting the veracity of individual trait EI profiles. Petrides (1997) has cautioned that faking bad poses a different kind of threat to validity than faking good (p. 71). Faking bad is a concern when the EI trait profile is used for clinical screening or screening an individual's suitability for compulsory service such as serving in the military. Information from this research will be used for the purpose of recruiting, training, and retaining volunteers, therefore individual profile distortion, faking good or bad was not a cause for validity threat concern.

Ethical Procedures

The researcher obtained Walden Institutional Review Board approval before collecting any participant information for this project. CASA volunteers did not constitute a vulnerable population. Participants were recruited using an email invitation forwarded to them from their local CASA staff. The researcher did not have knowledge of recruits' names, phone numbers, or email addresses. The email sent to potential participants contained a link to SurveyMonkey online software. SurveyMonkey data is highly protected and password protected. Participation was voluntary and information was given anonymously. No names, email addresses, phone numbers, or other personally identifying information were requested in the survey. Demographic information requested was general and not specific enough to allow for participant or local CASA program affiliation identification. The survey response file was downloaded from SurveyMonkey and stored in researcher's password protected personal computer. A password protected external backup hard drive used exclusively for this research was

used to store research data. Data will be kept on the external hard drive for a minimum of five years.

Data was downloaded from SurveyMonkey in SPSS format. The TEIQue, VFI, and UWES were scored by the researcher using the online survey response data. No personal identifying information was requested in the survey, therefore cannot be shared with any third parties.

Summary

This chapter began with a discussion on the appropriateness of using a quantitative research approach to evaluate the relationships between predictor and criterion variables. Target population recruitment, inclusion and exclusion criteria, sample size, and data collection and storage procedures were described. Instrumentation for measuring trait EI, motivation to volunteer, volunteer engagement, and volunteers' intention to remain with the organization were presented and each instrument's psychometric properties and past use were evaluated. Lastly, threats to external and internal validity and ethical research procedures were addressed.

Chapter 4: Results

Prior research has not evaluated what variables support volunteer work and intended volunteer retention for adults who volunteer as a CASA (Court Appointed Special Advocate). The purpose of this project was to begin to address this research gap in order to support CASA programs in more effective recruitment, training, and continued support of their volunteers. This specifically included evaluating four research questions:

- Does trait emotional intelligence (EI) relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
- Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
- Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?
- Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' work engagement?

Child advocacy volunteer engagement and retention research is timely and warranted for several reasons. First, it has been shown in prior research that children in state foster care systems who had a CASA advocating for that child's social, educational, and medical welfare had more positive outcomes in several key measured outcome areas than children in foster care who did not have a CASA (Caliber, 2004; NCASAA, 2015). There are currently not enough CASA volunteers to serve all children in foster care. Secondly, the 2014 national volunteer rate changed little from the 2013 volunteering rate, which was the lowest percentage of individuals volunteering in the United States since

volunteer rates were first collected in 2002 (Current Population Survey, 2013USBLS, 2015;). Concurrently there was a 25% growth rate in the number of nonprofit organizations between 2001 and 2011 (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2012). Thirdly, most (71.4%) individuals who volunteer in the United States do so with a single organization and only 14.4% of those volunteers were associated with a social or community service type organization such as CASA (USBLS, 2015).

Chapter 4 describes the participant sample recruitment and data collection processes undertaken for this project. Deviations from the original proposal and reasoning for that deviation are presented. Data analysis is reported narratively with supporting statistical tables. A summary of the research questions and the corresponding data findings is presented.

Data Collection

I followed a participant recruitment and data collection process approved by the Walden's Institutional Review Board (IRB approval #: 08-18-15-0093909, expiration 8/17/16) in August 2015. Following this process, I contacted potential participants by sending an email to CASA staff, asking the staff member to forward my email to currently active volunteers an invitation to participate in the study. Active volunteers were defined as volunteers who were currently assigned to a case or had not gone longer than six months without being assigned to a case. Sixty-seven CASA staff email addresses for independent Texas CASA programs were obtained from the Texas CASA website (Texas CASA, 2015a).

I sent this initial contact email to CASA staff email addresses obtained from CASA programs websites in September 2015. Three emails immediately were returned as undeliverable. Three additional CASA programs declined to participate, with one of the largest programs citing survey fatigue concerns. It was also reported to me that several of the programs had recently surveyed their volunteers. In addition, Texas CASA (state organization) had sent out volunteer satisfaction surveys around the same time as the initial survey was being sent to CASA organizations.

At the time of this study, there were approximately 7,600 Texas CASA volunteers in 2013 (Texas CASA, 2013). According to information on the CASA organizations' websites, the three Texas programs that declined to participate represented approximately 20% of Texas CASA volunteers. It was not possible for me to determine how many emails were actually forwarded to volunteers by the programs contacted by email.

One week after the introduction email was sent to CASA staff, I sent a second email to a subset of same CASA staff email list (minus for those choosing not to participate and invalid email addresses) with the consent form and a link to the survey in the body of the email. Staff was asked to forward the email to active volunteers. A \$10 donation (up to \$1000 maximum) to Become a CASA program sponsored by Texas CASA was offered for surveys that were completed in a two-week time frame, as counted from the time the email was sent to staff. Within the first week, only 18 completed surveys were received.

A third email was sent to the same CASA staff email list one week after the second email informing staff there had been a very low response rate and encouraging

them to please forward the email to active volunteers one more time. Within the next 10 days, a total of 62 surveys were completed. This was less than the sample size of 102 participants (power = .80, α = .05, medium ES) calculated in Chapter 3 as being necessary to perform a regression analysis on seven independent variables.

In an effort to recruit an additional number of participants, I sent a protocol amendment to the Walden University IRB in October 2015, asking to recruit active CASA volunteer participants outside of the geographic area of Texas. After approval was received the same month (IRB approval #: 08-18-15-0093909, expiration 8/16/16), email invitations to participate were sent to additional independent programs outside of Texas. Programs from five additional states listed in National CASA's Associations State of the States (2014) report described as being structured as independent nonprofit organizations with volunteer status listed as *Lay GAL* were chosen. Program contact emails were found by visiting individual CASA programs websites. Although the six states chosen reported having 22,607 CASA volunteers collectively for 2014 (NCASAA, 2015), it could not be determined how many programs actually forwarded the email to their volunteers.

After feedback from CASA staff members, a second IRB protocol change application was made to Walden's IRB asking to use a short invitation email and attach the consent form. IRB approval for this was received December 2015 (IRB approval #: 08-18-15-0093909, expiration 8/16/16). An additional 93 completed surveys were received in the second wave of participant recruitment, which brought the number of useable surveys to 155. These 155 total surveys represented an adequate sample size to

conduct correlational and multiple regression analysis on the predictor and criterion variables at the proposed level of statistical analysis.

Results

Sample Characteristics

The online survey was accessed voluntarily and anonymously by participants through a link to SurveyMonkey. The survey consisted of a total of 78 questions and was comprised of questions and statements from three self-report instruments: Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9 (UWES-9), and Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-SF (TEIQue-SF).

The demographic information requested in this survey did not contain any type of information that could personally identify the participant or their specific program affiliation and did not ask for any type of personal contact information. The majority of the survey participants were female (83%), 50 years of age or older (67%), had a minimal education level of college graduation (70%), worked full-time (43%) or were retired (34%), and had been a CASA for 12 months or longer (70%). CASA programs represented in the survey were closely divided between community populations primarily over 50,000 people (45%) and those with less than 25,000 (41%).

Survey data was analyzed in order to evaluate four research questions:

1. Does trait EI relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
2. Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA volunteers' intended retention?
3. Does trait EI relate to volunteer work engagement?

4. Does functional motivation to volunteer relate to CASA engagement?

Table 6

Characteristics of Participants

Variable	<i>n</i>	%	National CASA % Comparison ^a
Gender			
Female	129	83.23	82
Male	26	16.77	18
Age			
Up to 29 years	13	8.39	11
30-39 years	17	10.97	14
40-49 years	21	13.55	18
50-59 years	41	26.45	23
60 years or more	63	40.65	34
Education			
High school or GED	7	4.52	12
Some college	40	25.81	19
College graduate	50	32.26	43
Postgraduate	58	37.42	26
Current employment status			
Full-time	66	42.58	42
Part-time	25	16.13	13
Not currently employed	9	5.81	13
Retired	53	34.19	27
Student	2	1.29	
Tenure as a CASA			
Less than 12 months	46	29.68	
12-24 months	44	28.39	
Longer than 24 months	65	41.94	
CASA Program Affiliation			
Primary program from population of 50,000 or more people	69	44.52	
Primary program population at least 25,000 but less than 50,000 people	23	14.84	
Primary program population less than 25,000 people	63	40.65	^b

^a The National CASA Association Annual Local Program Survey Report 2013

^b One-half of the programs reporting to National CASA served populations of less than 100,000 people

I conducted regression analysis on the variables using SPSS software, descriptive statistics, correlational analysis, and linear (see Table 7 and Table 8). Two underlying assumptions associated with a Pearson correlation coefficient analysis of variables and multiple correlational analyses are (1) the variables are normally distributed and (2) the scores on variables are random and independent of other scores (Green & Salkind, 2011).

RQ1: Does Trait EI Relate to CASA Volunteers' Intended Retention?

Trait EI was measured using four factor scores and one global score. The CASA volunteer sample scored highest to lowest on trait EI factors of well-being ($M = 6.16$, $SD = 0.72$), emotionality ($M = 5.77$, $SD = 0.62$), self-control ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 0.74$), and sociability ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 0.76$). The trait EI global score ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 0.53$) does contain items that are not included in the four factors and is not simply an aggregate score of the four factors.

Intended retention was measured using two different survey questions. The first survey question addressing intended retention asked the participant to respond on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *highly unlikely* to 7 = *highly likely* as to how likely the participant was to quit CASA volunteer work before their current case was closed. Most sample participants (85.81%) indicated they were highly unlikely to quit before completing their current case ($M = 1.31$). The second retention question asked how likely the respondent was to accept another case within six months after completing their current case by indicating on a Likert scale ranging from 1-7 if they were 1 = *highly unlikely* to take another case to 7 = *highly likely* to take another case. Most of the participants indicated they were more likely than not to take another case ($M = 5.96$).

Correlation coefficients were computed between global trait EI scores and two questions of intended retention (Table 7). Global ($p = .002$), Self-control ($p = .000$) and Well-being ($p = .013$) were shown to be positively and significantly correlated to the intention of taking another case within six months of completing the current case. A positive correlation indicates that as trait EI scores increase, the likelihood of taking another case increases. Self-control ($p = .001$) and Global ($p = .027$) were negatively and significantly correlated to the likelihood of the volunteer quitting their volunteer work before completing the current case. A negative relationship indicates that as EI scores decrease the likelihood of quitting before completing the case increases.

A regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well global and four trait EI factors predicted volunteer intended retention. The linear combination of the measures were significantly related to the criterion of intention to complete the current case, $R^2 = .075$, adjusted $R^2 = .04$, $F(5, 149) = 2.41$, $p < .05$. The model showed approximately 7.5% of the variance of the intention to finish the current case could be accounted for by trait EI. None of the five trait EI measures showed to be significantly related to quitting before completing the current case in the regression model.

The linear combination of trait EI factor measures showed to be significantly related to the intention of taking a new case after completing the current case, $R^2 = .09$, adjusted $R^2 = .06$, $F(5, 149) = 2.88$, $p < .05$. Approximately 9% of the variance of the intention to take another case could be accounted for by trait EI. None of the five trait EI measures showed to be significantly related taking a new case in the regression model.

RQ2: Does Functional Motivation to Volunteer Relate to CASA Volunteers

Intended Retention?

The sample participants indicated by Likert scale 1-7 how important each of the six motivations to volunteer were to them in volunteering as a CASA, (1 = *not at all important/accurate* to 7 = *extremely important/accurate*). Values ($M = 6.41$, $SD = .068$) was given as the most important motivation to volunteer as a CASA for this sample, followed in descending order by the motivations of understanding ($M = 5.12$, $SD = 1.28$), social ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 1.35$), enhancement ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.30$), protective ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.17$), and lastly, career ($M = 1.89$, $SD = 1.33$).

The linear combination of motivations was close but not significantly related to the intention of taking a new case after completing the current case, $R^2 = .08$, adjusted $R^2 = .04$, $F(6, 148) = 2.08$, $p = .059$. Eight percent of the variance of the intention to take another case could be accounted for by the linear combination of the six functional motivations to volunteer. Social was the only motivation shown to be significantly related to the intention to take another case after completing the current case (Table 7).

RQ3: Does Trait EI Relate to Volunteer Work Engagement?

Work engagement is comprised of three dimensional factors; vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The CASA volunteer sample was asked to rate on a Likert scale of 0 = *never feeling this way about their volunteer work* to 6 = *always feeling this way about their volunteer work* how they felt when performing their CASA volunteer work. The sample indicated dedication as the strongest volunteer work engagement factor the CASA volunteer sample experienced ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 0.98$),

followed by absorption ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.04$) and vigor ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.04$).

Dedication items include statements such as feeling enthusiastic, inspired, and proud of their volunteer work (UWES-9 Appendix). Because the three dimensions of work engagement have been shown to be highly correlated, it has been consistently recommended that the total work engagement score be used when performing a regression analysis (De Bruin & Henn, 2013; Balducci et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

All trait EI factors as well as global trait EI scores were significantly correlated to volunteer work engagement (Table 7). Linear regression analysis showed that the linear combination of four trait EI factors and global trait EI was significantly related with volunteer work engagement $F(5, 149) = 3.55$, $p < .01$. Four trait EI factors and the global score accounted for almost 11% of the variance. All EI factors except sociability were significantly related to volunteer work engagement.

RQ4: Does Functional Motivation to Volunteer Relate to CASA Volunteer Engagement?

Correlational analysis between the six functional motivators and volunteer engagement showed that all motivational functions were independently significantly correlated to volunteer work engagement (Table 7). Linear regression analysis showed the linear combination of all functional motivations to volunteer was significantly related to volunteer engagement, $F(6, 148) = 6.35$, $p < .001$ and accounted for 20.5% of the variance. The regression analysis model showed that only Values was significantly related to volunteer work engagement ($p < .01$).

Table 7

Correlations Between Predictor and Criterion Variables

Variable	Quit	New Case	Engage
	-		
Tenure	-.031	-.093	.040
Gender ^a	-.019	-.011	-.131
Age	-.099	.083	-.199**
Education	-.054	-.076	-.089
Employ ^b	-.202**	.051	-.178*
Program size ^c	-.008	.052	-.084
Protective	-.005	.018	.289**
Values	-.144*	.115	.355**
Career	.051	.013	.199**
Social	-.030	.211**	.208**
Understand	-.168*	.119	.273**
Enhance	-.031	-.022	.302**
Global EI	-.155*	.230**	.267**
Well-being	-.080	.178*	.163*
Self-control	-.244**	.274**	.180*
Emotionality	-.045	.086	.165*
Sociability	-.053	.117	.224**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ ^a Female = 1, Male = 2^b full-time, part-time, not-employed, retired, student^c 1 = population over 50,000, 2 = 25,000 to 50,000 3 = less than 25,000

Additional correlations and regression analysis were conducted using the survey information collected for this project including demographic information in relation to each of the criterion variables. Table 8 shows the correlations between variables. A regression analysis containing all information collected inclusive of demographic information found that the only variable to significantly predict which volunteers would quit before completing the current case was employment status ($p = .021$). VFI social function was the only variable to significantly predict taking a new case ($p = .028$) after completing the current case. Gender, VFI values function, VFI enhancement function, and all trait EI variables significantly predicted stronger engagement in the volunteer work (Table 9).

Table 8

Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Tenure	-							
2. Gender	.058	-						
3. Age	.135*	.202*	-					
4. Education	-.038	.006	.026	-				
5. Employ	-.016	.073	.456**	.161*	-			
6. Program size	-.002	-.037	.241**	-.115	.037	-		
7. Protective	-.077	-.095	-.294**	-.161*	-.229**	-.170*	-	
8. Values	.093	-.044	-.063	-.003	-.064	-.082	.126	-
9. Career	-.122	-.133*	-.503**	-.030	-.319**	-.223**	.480**	.059
10. Social	-.030	-.028	-.048	-.087	-.096	-.020	.376**	.103
11. Understand	-.083	-.089	-.234**	-.070	-.190**	-.208**	.394**	.461**
12. Enhance	-.073	-.032	-.319**	-.050	-.174*	-.286**	.807**	.110
13. Global EI	.004	-.024	.066	.223**	.051	.013	-.305**	.258**
14. Well-being	.030	-.045	.183*	.185*	.122	.079	-.288**	.153*
15. Self-control	.004	.119	.093	.182*	.059	.053	-.322**	.205**
16. Emotionality	-.001	-.206*	-.119	.154*	-.054	-.079	-.111	.258**
17. Sociability	-.018	.044	.019	.173*	-.013	-.024	-.169*	.165*

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Tenure								
2. Gender								
3. Age								
4. Education								
5. Employ								
6. Program size								
7. Protective								
8. Values								
9. Career	-							
10. Social	.361**	-						
11. Understand	.360**	.309**	-					
12. Enhance	.543**	.408**	.507**	-				
13. Global EI	-.069	.018	.106	-.203**	-			
14. Well-being	-.092	.027	.096	-.209**	.771**	-		
15. Self-control	-.196**	-.068	.040	-.261**	.759**	.435**	-	
16. Emotionality	.060	.036	.193**	.025	.717**	.395**	.400**	-
17. Sociability	.042	.045	.016	-.106	.739**	.467**	.455**	.396**

Table 9

Regression Analysis Inclusive of Demographic Data

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
Quit				
Employment	-.153		.066	-.215* [- .08, -.02]
New Case				
VFI Social	.238		.107	.201* [.03, .45]
Engagement				
Gender	-.331		.163	-.094* [-.65, -.01]
VFI Values	.320		.099	.260** [.12, .52]
VFI	.229		.088	.358** [.06, .40]
Enhancement				
EI Global	2.914		.786	1.853** [1.36, 4.47]
Well-being	-.600		.231	-.517** [-1.06, -.14]
Self-control	-.486		.214	-.432* [-.91, -.06]
Emotionality	-.948		.248	-.711** [-1.44, -.46]
Sociability	-.423		.180	-.386* [-.78, -.07]

CI = confidence interval

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Summary

One hundred fifty five currently active CASA volunteers from different independent CASA programs throughout the United States responded to an invitation to participate in an anonymous online survey. The sample demographic profile consisted of mostly college graduate female volunteers and had been a CASA for 12 months or longer. The majority of those responding to the survey were 50 years of age or older. The purpose of this study was to statistically evaluate the relationships between trait EI, motivation to volunteer, volunteer work engagement, and CASA volunteers intended retention.

RQ1 asked whether trait EI was related to CASA volunteer intended retention. Intended retention was determined by posing two scaled questions; the likelihood the volunteer would quit before completing their current case and the likelihood of taking another case within six months after completing the current case. H₁ stating that there would be a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteers' intended retention was supported. Global and Self-control were negatively and significantly related to quitting before completing the current case. Global, Well-being, and Self-control were positively and significantly related to taking a new case after completing the current case.

RQ2 examined the relationship between motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteers' intended retention. H₁ stating that there would be a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASA volunteer intended retention was supported. Correlational analysis found that of the six functional motivations to volunteer

only Values and Understanding were significantly negatively correlated to the likelihood of not finishing the current case. Linear regression analysis showed that social was the only motivator significantly related to taking a new case within six months after completing the current case.

RQ3 examined the relationship between trait EI and volunteer work engagement. Work engagement is comprised of three dimensions; vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The CASA volunteer sample indicated they were strongly dedicated to their volunteer work as a CASA, and to a lesser extent absorbed and vigorously involved in their volunteer work. H₁ stating that there would be a significant relationship between trait EI and CASA volunteer intended retention was supported. All four trait EI factors and global trait EI scores showed positive and significant correlations to CASA volunteer work engagement. Regression analysis found that global, well-being, self-control, and emotionality scores were significantly related to volunteer engagement but sociability was not significantly related to volunteer engagement.

RQ4 examined the relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and volunteer engagement. H₁ stating that there would be a significant relationship between functional motivation to volunteer and CASAs' work engagement was supported. Participants indicated values was the highest ranked motivation for volunteering as a CASA. All six functional motivators showed to be significantly and positively correlated to volunteer work engagement. Linear regression analysis showed only Values ($p < .001$) to be significantly related to volunteer work engagement.

Additional regression analysis of all variables was conducted. Only employment status and VFI social function showed to be significant predictors of intended retention. Gender, values, enhancement, global EI, well-being, self-control, emotionality and sociability all showed to be significant predictors of volunteer engagement.

Chapter 4 discussed the project data collection and provided statistical analysis of the survey data with respect to four specific research questions. Chapter 5 evaluates the findings of this project in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Limitations of this study and the potential for positive social change are discussed. Lastly, Chapter 5 describes recommendations for further research associated with the research questions and related research that was evaluated in the current study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

While the number of U.S. nonprofit organizations steadily increased from 2001 to 2011 (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2012), the number of adults volunteering either stagnated or was in decline (Current Population Survey, 2013; USBLS, 2015). The purpose of this study was to contribute to the limited research addressing sustained volunteerism in order to support CASA (Court Appointed Special Advocate) organizations toward increased volunteer engagement and retention. The study of volunteer work engagement is important because an increased level of volunteer work engagement is expected to help CASA volunteers in optimizing positive case outcomes for children in foster care. The study of volunteer retention is particularly important to CASA organizations due to the costs involved in training and supporting volunteers who are not retained.

This research found that all trait emotional intelligence (EI) measures and all six functional motivations to volunteer were strongly related to volunteer work engagement. Global trait EI was strongly related to the intent of finishing the current case and taking a new case after completing the current case before case completion. Values and understanding motivations were negatively related to quitting the current case and social motivation was positively related to taking a case after completing the current case.

Interpretation of the Findings

This research aligned with several theoretical and conceptual frameworks as well as existing research by evaluating relationships between trait EI, motivation to volunteer,

volunteer work engagement, and volunteer intended retention. Psychological theories for volunteering have generally focused on the personal traits and characteristics of the individual who volunteers (Hustinx et al., 2010; Wilson, 2012). Sociological theory of volunteerism states that volunteering allows individuals to experience social interaction (Wilson, 2000). Functional theory is based on the premise that individuals can engage in the same activities, such as volunteering with the same organization, but can be motivated to do so by very different reasons (Clary et al., 1998; Green, 2009; Katz 1960). Maslow (1943) recognized that while motivation is certainly a determinant of behavior, behaviors are also biologically, culturally, and situationally influenced.

Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) states that positive emotions can build intellectual and social resources that can in turn broaden the scope of the individual's attention, cognition, and action. Studying emotions associated with motivation to volunteer, emotional intelligence, and volunteer engagement allows organizations the opportunity to support their volunteers in broadening and building their personal resources and by extension the volunteer is able to better support their service recipient (e.g., CASA volunteers serving children in foster care).

In this study, 155 CASA volunteers responded to an online survey designed to evaluate the relationships between trait EI, motivation to volunteer, volunteer work engagement, and intended retention. Survey participants were predominately female which is consistent with the NCASAA demographic data from previous annual reports showing that historically more women than men volunteer as a CASA. Sixty-seven percent of this current sample group was 50 years of age or older. This study participant's

age profile broadly aligned with the national CASA annual volunteer information (NCASAA, 2013). The typical CASA volunteer age range differs from the national age profile of U.S. adults most likely to volunteer, which has been reported as adults 35 to 44 years of age (CPS, 2013).

The CASA volunteer sample scores on global EI were higher than the TEIQue technical manual's (Petrides, 2009) mean norms, as well as on all four factors. This study found that trait EI global scores were significantly correlated with education, protective motivation, values motivation, enhancement motivation, volunteer work engagement, and volunteer intended retention but not with tenure, gender, or age. Higher trait EI scores have been associated with more frequent use of adaptive coping strategies and infrequent use of maladaptive coping strategies, less rumination of negative events, relationship satisfaction, happiness, and greater life satisfaction and well-being (Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Liu et al., 2013; Lizeretti & Extremera, 2011; Malouff et al., 2014; Martins et al., 2010; Petrides et al., 2007; Vesely et al., 2013). Seventy percent of this sample had been a CASA for more than 12 months. It might be that higher trait EI volunteers are better able to cope with the emotional demands inherent to child advocacy and therefore have longer tenure.

Regression analysis of this study's information utilizing all survey data including demographics variables found trait EI to be significantly correlated to volunteer work engagement but not significantly correlated with intended retention. Brunetto et al. (2012) found that as EI increased reported well-being increased, as well-being increased work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment increased also.

Organizational commitment has been directly linked to intended retention for volunteers (Vecina et al., 2013). Since this volunteer sample was largely a tenured group of older volunteers, it is likely the volunteers had engaged in their volunteer work thereupon had developed a commitment to the organization and to the CASA mission and intended to continue their volunteer work.

Participants in this study reported that the motivation of values was the most important motivator of the six functional motivations to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998) prompting them to volunteer as a CASA. Values has been shown to be the most important motivator for volunteering in a number of studies (Allison, Oku, & Dutridge, 2002; Busser & Caruthers, 2010; Caldarella, Gomm, Shatzer, & Wall, 2010; Davila & Diaz-Morales, 2009; Gage & Thapa, 2012; Wong & Foo, 2011). Individuals who rank values as an important motivation to volunteer indicate they feel that it is important to help others and volunteer in order to express personally important values such as being concerned about and helping those they consider less fortunate (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Van Vianen et al. (2008) found that volunteers with high value motivation were also the volunteers that were most likely to express a desire to quit their volunteer work due to experiencing feelings of high stress and burnout. It does not appear this sample group was experiencing stress or burnout that was prompting them to report an intent to quit their CASA volunteer work. Eight six percent of this sample indicated there were highly unlikely to quit before completing their case and 85% said they were more likely than not to take another case after completing their current case.

The other motivations to volunteer for this sample group ranked in descending order of importance were:

- understanding,
- social,
- enhancement,
- protective, and
- career.

The developers of the VFI (Clary et al., 1998) state that individuals who rank understanding as an important motive to volunteer believe volunteering will allow the volunteer to learn more about the cause for which they are volunteering through direct hands on experience, believe volunteering will allow them to explore their personal strengths, and allow them the opportunity to gain new perspectives. CASA volunteer work is characterized by adults being actively involved in the complex and often challenging role of an abused child's welfare advocate. Individuals motivated by understanding would have the opportunity to satisfy their functional motive of understanding when volunteering as a CASA.

Intended retention was measured with two questions; likelihood of quitting and likelihood of taking another case. The data showed that four factors were significantly and negatively correlated to the volunteer quitting their CASA volunteer work before completing their current case:

- VFI Values,
- VFI Enhancement,

- global EI, and
- self-control EI.

This study indicates that the individuals who have low values and enhancement motivation, lower trait EI global scores, and low EI self-control scores, are more likely than volunteers with higher scores on those factors to quit before completing their case.

In evaluating variables that were significantly related to taking a new case within six months of completing their current case, the correlation analysis found social motivation, global EI, well-being EI factor, and self-control EI factor had significant correlations with participants taking a new case. Regression analysis of this survey data including demographic data found that although several variables showed to have a significant correlation to intended retention, only social motivation to volunteer significantly predicted the intention of taking a new case after completing the current case. Social motivation indicates that the individual believes that volunteering allows them to strengthen their social relationships (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Social motivation was also found to be the most important motivator for urban conservation volunteers (Asah & Blahna, 2012) and a significant predictor of volunteering frequency for Australian volunteers (Greenslade & White, 2005). In contrast, social motivation showed a significant inverse relationship to frequency of volunteering for Make A Difference volunteers (Allison et al., 2002).

Penner's (2002) model of sustained volunteerism proposes that dispositional variables such as trait EI and personal motivation are strongly related to the decision to volunteer but more weakly related to sustained volunteerism. If, after the initial first few

months of volunteering, the volunteer remains engaged in their volunteer work, the volunteer is likely to develop volunteer role identity (Penner, 2002). According to the model, the factors that initially influenced the individual to volunteer become less important and role identity becomes the strongest and most direct influence on sustained volunteerism. Seventy percent of the current sample had been a CASA for longer than 12 months. Volunteer recruiters and supervisors would benefit from understanding that the motivations that bring the individual to volunteer are likely not the same activities that will keep them volunteering.

Work engagement allows the individual to develop relationships through their volunteer work (Penner, 2002). Work engagement has three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Dedication was the strongest work engagement factor experienced by this sample group. The most characteristic statement for the work engagement dedication scale is “I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work” (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Volunteer age, all six motivations to volunteer, and all trait EI measures were significantly correlated to volunteer work engagement in this study. Regression analysis of all the data including demographic data found that gender, VFI Values and VFI Enhancement, and all trait EI measures significantly predicted stronger volunteer work engagement. Garner and Garner (2011) found that senior age volunteers were not likely to quit volunteering if they became dissatisfied with their volunteer experience but were more likely to simply neglect their duties. Older volunteers, such as those represented in this CASA sample, who feel dissatisfied with their CASA volunteer work, may not indicate they have an intention to quit their

volunteer work but instead would be more likely to continuing volunteering but become disengaged from their volunteer work.

The direct relationship between trait EI and motivation to volunteer has not been adequately evaluated at this time. Agnoli, Pittarello, Hysenbelli, and Rubaltelli (2015) sought to evaluate the relationship between trait EI and the motivation to help others by developing a computer-based program to test participants' motivation to help. Using undergraduate students as study participants, the study found that differences in trait EI were an important determinant of the motivation to help children in need. When faced with negative feedback, high trait EI participants maintained their motivation to help children in need and increased their performance. In contrast, the low trait EI participants were less able to manage their affective reactions to the negative feedback and decreased their performance indicating a lessening in their motivation to help the children in need.

An individual who has high trait EI and is motivated to volunteer as a CASA due to their personal values and a desire to actively help others is likely to have a positive volunteer experience. In the current study the only significantly positive correlation between global trait EI scores and motivation to volunteer was for the VFI values function. High trait EI has been associated with positively predicting performance for high emotional labor jobs (Joseph & Newman, 2010). When volunteering is motivated by values the individual is looking for the opportunity to express their genuine concern and compassion for the welfare of other individuals (Clary et al., 1998). A proactive approach to volunteer retention could be to screen out individuals who have low global trait EI, low

self-control, and low values and understanding motivation since all of these factors were found to be significantly correlated to quitting before completing their current case.

Petrides (2011) has reminded us that there is no single EI profile that represents the ideal EI archetype. For example, high global trait EI scores have been found to be positively related to narcissism (Petrides et al., 2011). Brunell, Tumbler, and Buelow (2014) found that narcissistic individuals tended to volunteer for self-interest rather than for humanitarian concern. It is reasonable to speculate that high trait EI narcissistic individuals who volunteer would be more likely to rank career enhancement, self-protectiveness, and personal enhancement as important motivations for volunteering. This sample ranked those three functions as the least important motivations for volunteering as a CASA.

Whether it is in business or volunteer work, in order to achieve optimal performance, the individual's competencies and motivations should be matched to the context or situation (Clary et al., 1988; Lewin, 1946; Petrides, 2011). Some volunteer activities may not be enhanced by or require emotional competencies whereas working with children and families in crisis can no doubt be best served by individuals who have strong emotional competencies and are motivated to perform their volunteer work by a genuine concern for the welfare of the children and families.

Limitations and Generalizability

There are limitations associated with this research. One major limitation is that of generalizability. This sample represented CASA volunteers who responded to a survey during a specific three-month period of time. Although the demographic profile of this

sample was very similar to the demographic data collected by the National CASA Association in 2013 it is inherent in a voluntary, electronically administered, time-limited sample, that the sample could represent a unique sample that may not be a true representation of current or future volunteers.

In addition, prospective participants were contacted via a forwarded email from a CASA staff member and asked to click on a link to take a survey. It is not known how many invitations to participate were actually forwarded from CASA staff to volunteers but given the number of programs contacted it appears that the response rate to the survey was very low as compared to the number of volunteers represented in the programs contacted. Individuals may have had electronic media safety concerns due to being asked to click on links embedded in an email. Therefore, the delivery of the survey could have created a kind of response bias and again may not accurately represent the typical CASA volunteer.

The online survey was comprised of three types of self-report measures. Self-report measures are vulnerable to distortions (Christiansen, Janovics, & Siers, 2010; Tett, Freund, Christiansen, Fox, & Coaster, 2012). The results of the trait EI assessment for this CASA volunteer sample did show to have higher global and factor means than what is normed (Petrides, 2007). It is feasible that this group of tenured volunteers who had advocated for abused and neglected children in foster care, most for 12 months or longer, would score higher in emotional competencies than the normal population.

Penner's (2002) model of sustained volunteerism proposed that there are multiple variables that influence the decision to volunteer and multiple variables that support

sustained volunteerism. This study measured the dispositional variables of trait EI and functional motivation to volunteer as predictor variables without the use of other variables that might mediate the outcome variables of volunteer work engagement and intended retention. As noted by Penner, variables associated with the sustained volunteerism model are not independent of one another.

Recommendations

This study found that all six motivations to volunteer and all five EI measures were significantly correlated to volunteer work engagement but not all were correlated to intended retention. Social motivation to volunteer and trait EI were significantly related to intended retention. This sample of volunteers reported that social motivation to volunteer was not one of the top two most important motivators for volunteering as a CASA yet social motivation was found to be the only motivator significantly related to taking a new case after completing the current case. Additional research relative to volunteer work engagement and turnover intent might evaluate what volunteer activities best support volunteers in achieving high engagement and social integration into their volunteer work soon after being sworn in as a CASA and assigned to their first case. Secondly, Hong and Morrow-Howell (2013) found that institutional factors were as important as individual characteristics in understanding the differential effects of increasing perceived benefits of volunteering. It would be worthwhile to evaluate the relationships between organizational variables and volunteer engagement and intended retention?

Implications and Conclusion

It has been reported in mainstream media that “Foster care systems are in a crisis” and that “there simply is not enough places to care for these children” (The Dallas Morning News, March 17, 2016). Children with a CASA have an adult community member dedicated exclusively to look after that child’s social, medical, and emotional welfare as compared to a Child Protection Service worker who may carry a caseload of 14 to 28 cases at any given time (TDFPS, 2013). When at-risk children and families in crisis have positive situational outcomes, communities benefit in the short-term and long-term in a multitude of ways. Increasing CASA volunteer work engagement and retention will directly benefit children in foster care as well as communities at large. Compared to children in foster care without a CASA, CASA children and parents of children with a CASA received significantly more services (Caliber, 2004; Litzelfelner, 2000). Unfortunately, we do not yet know what factors keep a CASA actively engaged in their volunteer work and continuing to volunteer as a CASA case after case. Our children and families in crisis need us to continue this course of inquiry so that CASA organizations can move closer to their goal of having a CASA volunteer for each child in the challenging and often confusing maze of our child welfare foster care system.

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Zeidner, M., Roberts, R. D., & Matthews, G. (2002). Can emotional intelligence be schooled? A critical review. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(4), 215-231.

Appendix: Volunteer Functions Inventory

PsycTESTS Citation:

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). *Volunteer Functions Inventory*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/104582-000>

Test Shown: Full Test Format:

Items are rated on a 7-point response scale ranging from 1 (not at all important/accurate) to 7 (extremely important/accurate).

Source:

Clary, E. Gil, Snyder, Mark, Ridge, Robert D., Copeland, John, Stukas, Arthur A., Haugen, Julie, & Miene, Peter (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(6), 1516-1530. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.6.1516>

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TEIQue

- Download the TEIQue v. 1.50 in pdf from [here](#) and in Microsoft WORD from [here](#). A detailed description of the 15 TEIQue facets and 4 factors is available from [here](#). You need not use in your study our demographics form.

TEIQue-SF

- + Download the TEIQue-SF, along with the scoring key and a brief description of the instrument, from [here](#) in pdf and [here](#) in Microsoft WORD. Download the full SPSS syntax for scoring the TEIQue- SF from [here](#). Please note that we cannot provide any advice on how to run this syntax in SPSS or other statistical software.

TEIQue-AF

- + Download the TEIQue-AF from [here](#). Recommended age range 13-17 years.

TEIQue-ASF

- Download the Adolescent Short form of the TEIQue (TEIQue-ASF), along with the scoring key and a brief description of the instrument, from [here](#). Recommended age range 13-17 years. We have successfully used the Adolescent Short Form with children as young as 11 years old.

TEIQue 360°

- + Download the TEIQue 360° from [here](#) (in Microsoft Word and pdf).

TEIQue 360°-SF

- + Download the Short Form of the TEIQue 360° (TEIQue 360°-SF) from [here](#) (version for male rates, version for female rates).

TEIQue-CF

- + Download the TEIQue-CF from [here](#). Recommended age range 8-12 years. For scoring information, please contact Dr. Stella Mavroveli at Imperial College London.

TEIQue-CSF

- Download the TEIQue-CSF from [here](#). Recommended age range 8-12 years. For scoring information, please contact Dr. Stella Mavroveli at Imperial College London.

Email admin@teique.com if you would like to obtain any other TEIQue forms or versions or if you would like any of the instruments in Microsoft WORD format.

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Please note that we cannot provide additional information or support for the TEIQue, other than what is currently available in the relevant scientific publications, the website, and the technical manual. Norms and reports are not necessary for research purposes and can only be made available for a fee. We do not provide free access to norms or reports.

Instructions

- Please complete this questionnaire on your own and in quiet conditions.
- Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. *There are no right or wrong answers.*
- Work quickly, and don't think too long about the exact meaning of the statements.
- Try to answer as accurately as possible.
- You have seven possible responses, ranging from 1=Completely Disagree to 7=Completely Agree
- Many thanks for your time and interest

TEIQue

1.	I'm usually able to control other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	When I receive wonderful news, I find it difficult to calm down quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I tend to see difficulties in every opportunity rather than opportunities in every difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I don't have a lot of happy memories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I often find it difficult to recognise what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I'm not socially skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I find it difficult to tell others that I love them even when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Others admire me for being relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I rarely think about old friends from the past	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Generally, I find it easy to tell others how much they really mean to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Generally, I must be under pressure to really work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I'm able to "read" most people's feelings like an open book	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I normally find it difficult to calm angry people down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I find it difficult to take control of situations at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I generally hope for the best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Others tell me that they admire me for my integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I really don't like listening to my friends' problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I believe I'm full of personal weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I find it difficult to give up things I know and like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I always find ways to express my affection to others when I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

66.	Most people are better liked than I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67.	Those close to me rarely complain about how I behave toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68.	I usually find it difficult to express my emotions the way I would like to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69.	Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70.	I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71.	I would describe myself as a good negotiator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72.	I can deal effectively with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73.	On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74.	I have stolen things as a child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75.	On the whole, I'm pleased with my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76.	I find it difficult to control myself when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77.	Sometimes, it feels like I'm producing a lot of good work effortlessly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78.	When I take a decision, I'm always sure it is the right one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79.	If I went on a blind date, the other person would be disappointed with my looks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80.	I normally find it difficult to adjust my behaviour according to the people I'm with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81.	On the whole, I'm able to identify myself with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82.	I try to regulate pressures in order to control my stress levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83.	I don't think I'm a useless person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84.	I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85.	I can handle most difficulties in my life in a cool and composed manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
86.	If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
87.	On the whole, I like myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88.	I believe I'm full of personal strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89.	I generally don't find life enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90.	I'm usually able to calm down quickly after I've got mad at someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
91.	I can remain calm even when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92.	Generally, I'm not good at consoling others when they feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93.	I'm usually able to settle disputes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94.	I never put pleasure before business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
95.	Imagining myself in someone else's position is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96.	I need a lot of self-control to keep myself out of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97.	It is easy for me to find the right words to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98.	I expect that most of my life will be enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99.	I am an ordinary person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100.	I tend to get "carried away" easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101.	I usually try to resist negative thoughts and think of positive alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
102.	I don't like planning ahead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
103.	Just by looking at somebody, I can understand what he or she feels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
104.	Life is beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
105.	I normally find it easy to calm down after I have been scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
106.	I want to be in command of things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
107.	I usually find it difficult to change other people's opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
108.	I'm generally good at social chit-chat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
109.	Controlling my urges is not a big problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

110.	I really don't like my physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
111.	I tend to speak well and clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112.	On the whole, I'm not satisfied with how I tackle stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113.	Most of the time, I know exactly why I feel the way I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114.	I find it difficult to calm down after I have been strongly surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115.	On the whole, I would describe myself as assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116.	On the whole, I'm not a happy person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
117.	When someone offends me, I'm usually able to remain calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
118.	Most of the things I manage to do well seem to require a lot of effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
119.	I have never lied to spare someone else's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
120.	I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
121.	I consider all the advantages and disadvantages before making up my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
122.	I don't know how to make others feel better when they need it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
123.	I usually find it difficult to change my attitudes and views	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124.	Others tell me that I rarely speak about how I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
125.	On the whole, I'm satisfied with my close relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
126.	I can identify an emotion from the moment it starts to develop in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
127.	On the whole, I like to put other people's interests above mine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
128.	Most days, I feel great to be alive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
129.	I tend to get a lot of pleasure just from doing something well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
130.	It is very important to me to get along with all my close friends and family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
131.	I frequently have happy thoughts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
132.	I have many fierce arguments with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
133.	Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
134.	I find it difficult to take pleasure in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
135.	I'm usually able to influence other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
136.	When I'm under pressure, I tend to lose my cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
137.	I usually find it difficult to change my behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
138.	Others look up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
139.	Others tell me that I get stressed very easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
140.	I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
141.	I believe that I would make a good salesperson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
142.	I lose interest in what I do quite easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
143.	On the whole, I'm a creature of habit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
144.	I would normally defend my opinions even if it meant arguing with important people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
145.	I would describe myself as a flexible person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
146.	Generally, I need a lot of incentives in order to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
147.	Even when I'm arguing with someone, I'm usually able to take their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
148.	On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
149.	I try to avoid people who may stress me out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
150.	I often indulge without considering all the consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
151.	I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
152.	I find it difficult to take control of situations at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
153.	Some of my responses on this questionnaire are not 100% honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9

PsycTESTS Citation:

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9 [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t05561-000>

Test Shown: Full Test Format:

All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always/every day).

Source:

Schaufeli, Wilmar B., Bakker, Arnold B., & Salanova, Marisa. (2006). The Measurement of Work Engagement With a Short Questionnaire: A Cross-National Study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol 66(4), 701-716. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013164405282471>, © 2006 by SAGE Publications. Reproduced by Permission of SAGE Publications.

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doi: 10.1037/t05561-000

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9
UWES-9

Items

Never 0	Almost Never 1	Rarely 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very Often 5	Always 6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (VI1)
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (VI2)
5. I am enthusiastic about my job. (DE2)
7. My job inspires me. (DE3)
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (VI3)
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely. (AB3)
10. I am proud of the work that I do. (DE4)
11. I am immersed in my work. (AB4)
14. I get carried away when I am working. (AB5)

Source: Schaufeli and Bakker (2003).

Note: VI = Vigor scale; DE = Dedication scale; AB = Absorption scale.