

4 Human Resource Management and Volunteer Motivation

Christiane Blank

University of Wuppertal
Schumpeter School of Business and Economics

Learning goals

Upon completing this chapter, you should be able to accomplish the following:

- Describe the special characteristics of volunteers.
- Explain the theoretical background and the motivational factors of volunteering.
- Describe procedural measures for the promotion of volunteer work (“volunteer programs”).
- Illustrate the theoretical elements in a practical context.

4.1 Introduction

Social enterprises form a topic which challenges us to reclassify known concepts from economics research in general and entrepreneurship research in particular within a new context. Their social orientation and the fact that they are only indirectly profit-oriented distinguish social enterprises from commercial business enterprises (Part I), but nevertheless they also need to survive in the market, and they, too, have organizational structures and hierarchies that we know from classical economics. This chapter will focus on Human Resource Management and on employee motivation and commitment strategies. These topics were comprehensively analyzed in the context of purely profit-oriented companies (Wöhe and Döring, 2005). However, Human Resource Management in social enterprises is subject to some special conditions. Although many social enterprises have paid employees, volunteers form a decisive part of their workforce and play a big part in the performance and continued existence of social enterprises. It can even be assumed that volunteers, along with funding, are the most wanted resource of social enterprises. Dealing with volunteers is therefore a specific aspect of successful social work. Volunteers are not a mere accessory, they do not function casually, and they do not come for free either. In the light of the present demographic development and from an economic point of view, the volunteer must be regarded as a rare and much sought-after resource which several social enterprises are competing for. A company's ability to attract qualified volunteers and to win their lasting loyalty without cutting back on the quality standards of the services offered, will be fundamental for a successful market position in the future (Rosenkranz and Schill, 2009).

Choosing volunteers, creating tasks for them and ensuring their lasting commitment in the absence of formal contracts are important challenges that the management of social enterprises has to face. In this context, the fact that volunteers do not have a work contract is but one of several factors which distinguish volunteers from full-time associates. Cnaan and Cascio (1998) list further important differences:

- Absence of financial motivation
- Limited time
- In most cases contact with several companies
- No existential dependence from the company
- Informal application processes which often result in a test phase
- No obligation to abide by bureaucratic rules and structures
- No personal liability in case of mistakes

Volunteers freely decide to support a company's vision without a financial interest. Therefore, they seem to be ideal co-workers who meet the desires of many entrepreneurs. However, volunteers are often more critical with regard to the organizations they work for because they can choose their work targets and the extent to which they engage themselves. Hence, it is interesting to compare volunteers on the one hand and highly qualified, much

sought-after regular workers who can choose the aims and organization for which they want to work on the other (Mayerhofer, 2001).

Based on the insights above, the human resource management of social enterprises has to take into account individual interests when designing tasks and establishing structures for decision, communication and cooperation processes. It is essential for a successful management to analyze the intrinsic motives which drive the volunteers and the expectations they have with regard to their work in order to retain their loyalty even if they sometimes are given less attractive tasks. Only if the individual motives are known it will be possible to keep motivating the volunteers and to earn their lasting commitment to the company. A strong commitment and identification will lead to even greater engagement in the support of the company's interests and aims, to a better acceptance of changes and new developments and to lasting loyalty even if attractive alternatives are offered (Felfe, 2008). Commitment strategies therefore form an important aspect of dealing with volunteers (**Table 4.1**).

The next chapter gives an overview of the different forms of employment in social enterprises, starting with a differentiation between contract-based forms of employment and employment without a contract. Then volunteers themselves are analyzed in chapter 4.3 with regards to their socio-economic status, interpersonal networks, demographic characteristics and personality traits. Chapter 4.4 deals with altruistic and egoistic motives which may result in voluntary work. It covers the theoretical background as well as motivational factors. In the final chapter 4.5 the basic principles from chapter 4.4 are pulled together in a functional context. Referring to the findings on motivational background, implications for volunteer management are derived with a special focus on procedural measures for the promotion of volunteer work ("volunteer program").

Table 4.1 Chances and positive consequences of employee commitment

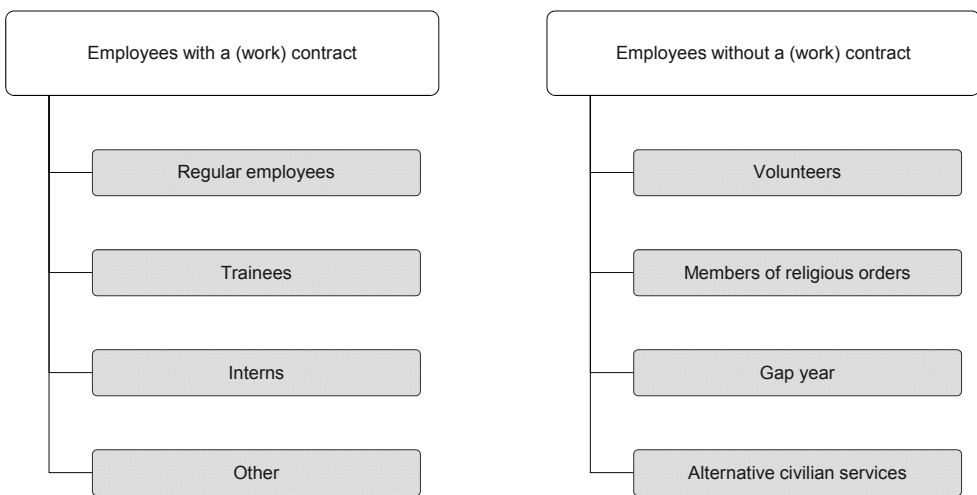
Level	Employee commitment
Organizations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Readiness for action – Motivation, Output – No fluctuation or absenteeism
Employees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Self-respect – Content through satisfaction of need for affiliation – Resource for stress reduction (social support)

Own table based on Felfe (2008)

4.2 Personnel Work in Social Enterprises

In social enterprises a number of different ways of employment exist which – in addition to specific characteristics of volunteer work – form a challenge to human resource management because in most cases several forms of employment have to be managed at the same time (Mroß, 2009). Mroß distinguishes employees who are bound by a (work) contract and employees without a (work) contract. Employees with a work contract work full-time or part-time and earn their living with this work. Others who also have a work contract may include interns or trainees. The second group of employees in social enterprises are those who do not have a legal work contract in the sense of the BGB (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch). Here, Mroß counts volunteers, conscientious objectors doing alternative civilian service, members of religious orders and young people who are taking a gap year to do voluntary social or ecological work. According to Mroß, this category is solely defined through the lack of a work contract which in some cases is replaced by other legal contracts or laws (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Categories of personnel work



Own illustration based on Mroß (2009)

Mroß' categories are helpful for the definition and distinction of voluntary work which is to be used in the context of this chapter. It is perceived as a work form which is done voluntarily without financial compensation and not as a regular employment, and which is dedicated to social welfare (Strecker, 2002; In this context it has to be noted that for some voluntary work small compensations are paid. However, since these are usually really small, these cases are counted as free of charge, too.) It is not done to earn a living but is per-

formed in addition to a regular employment. For the context of social entrepreneurship, this chapter will focus on voluntary work in operative positions which are designed to create an added social value rather than on voluntary work for an association or as board member of a club. Voluntary work also has to be distinguished from housework, such as caring for the sick or elderly, or neighborly help. This distinction is made assuming that voluntary work has to be done in an organization. Such work is defined as formal voluntary work while the rather informal housework or neighborly help can hardly be statistically surveyed (Holzer, 2005; Strecker, 2002).

4.3 The Person Who Volunteers

Volunteers are not a homogeneous group. They come from all age groups and different social backgrounds. In order to find out who volunteers really are, several factors are taken into account: socio-economic status, interpersonal networks, demographic characteristics and personality traits (Pearce, 1993).

Socio-economic status: „Those with higher income, educational level, occupational status, and family/lineage status and those who own more property are more likely to volunteer, to volunteer for multiple associations and organizations, and to assume leadership roles in their organizations that are those who have fewer of these advantages.”(Pearce, 1993, p. 65). These results have been verified by a number of studies in different decades and countries.

Interpersonal Networks: Many studies have led to the result that people who know volunteers are more willing to take up voluntary work themselves (Scott, 1957). Research has shown that most volunteers are recruited through personal contacts. Thus the more friends people have the more likely they are to work as volunteers.

Demographic characteristics: The impact of demographic factors on voluntary commitment is not easy to outline comprehensively. The complexity of the context starts with the relation of age and voluntary commitment. „Volunteering among teenagers increases until about 18 years, then decreases, remaining low until the late twenties, when it rises, researching a peak from age 40 to 55, from which it gradually decreases.” (Pearce, 1993, p. 68). Gender-specific influences in general result in more female than male volunteers, but the engagement clearly varies according to the tasks. While women prefer church or social institutions, men tend to work in political or administrative positions which may also be beneficial for their career.

Personality: Most studies try to distinguish personality traits of volunteers from those of people who do not volunteer. By way of conclusion, findings have shown that self-confident, sociable, optimistic people with dominant tendencies are more likely to engage themselves to voluntary work.

4.4 Motivation of Volunteers

Voluntary engagement is the result of many different motives. Often the main motive cannot even be defined, since it is a combination of altruistic and egoistic motives which leads to voluntary work (Moschner, 2002). Motivation explains the direction, the intensity and duration of human behavior (Thomae, 1965). Motivation research therefore focuses on the reasons and driving forces of human behavior.

4.4.1 Volunteer to Serve: The Altruism Debate

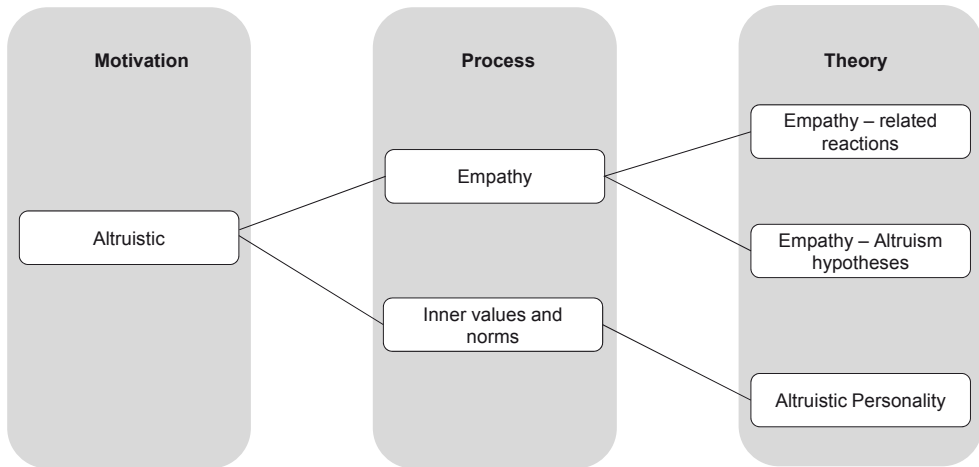
The concept of altruism goes back to the French sociologist Auguste Comte who postulated that there had to be a binding morale within a society. This morale should help to emphasize the corporate feeling rather than egoistic behavior (Comte as cited in Fuchs-Heinritz, 1998).

4.4.1.1 Theories of Altruism

Altruism theories are based on the assumption of selflessness. Altruistic behavior can be theoretically explained through three different approaches. These are the theory of empathy-related reactions, the empathy-altruism hypothesis and the altruistic personality (**Figure 4.2**). The theoretic assumptions result from earlier processes which are defined either by empathy, that is compassion, or by inner norms or values which lead to an altruistic motivation (Bierhoff, 2004).

The theory of empathy-related reactions was developed by Eisenberg. It focuses on character traits because these create empathy. Empathy is experienced, and therefore the readiness to help others increases if a situation is characterized by great sympathy, emotional intensity and emotional regulation of the spectator. The emotional regulation has to be emphasized in this context because it is characterized by the limitation to substantial issues, little impulsivity and high self-control (Eisenberg, 2000).

Figure 4.2 Altruism Theories



Own illustration based on Bierhoff (2004)

The empathy-altruism hypothesis is based on situation-related empathy which is triggered by another person's actual emergency situation. The basic assumption is that several factors increase or decrease the observers' empathy in a specific situation. Empathy increases if the observers know the victims personally (family or friends). It also increases if there are similarities or commonalities between victim and observer so that the observers can better put themselves in the victim's position, which will result in greater compassion (Bierhoff, 2002). In a series of experiments, Batson studied how the existence of escape possibilities influences a person's readiness to help. Empathic persons will help the victim, no matter if they could escape from the situation or not, and thereby display a great altruistic motivation, while less empathic persons will only help if they cannot escape (Batson, 1991).

The altruistic personality is defined by empathy and inner values. Volunteers often show a higher level of empathy and emotional stability. In addition, a greater interest in other people's needs also characterizes an altruistic personality. This applies to voluntary commitment as well as to emergency situations (Bierhoff and Schülken, 2001). Social responsibility is a norm which makes us feel a moral obligation to help others who are in an emergency. This includes that we want to meet justified expectations of others and to follow social rules (Bierhoff, 2006).

4.4.1.2 Motives of Altruism

The motives of altruism include the norm of social responsibility, a religious, charitable obligation and the aspect of reward (Moschner, 2002). Altruistic people want to contribute to the solution of social problems or at least to improve the situation. They are driven by the norm of social responsibility which includes the obligation to help people in difficult situations. They act in an altruistic manner because they like to help and to commit themselves to society, because they want to support people who have to face problems which they once had to face themselves, too, and/or because they want to take over social responsibility.

In addition to social responsibility there is also a political responsibility which focuses on societal shortcomings and generates the wish to improve these. The aim is to serve society, and this may be reached through commitment in political, societal or cultural organizations.

Another motive of altruism is the religious, charitable obligation which is based on the commandment of charity. This is the main motivation of church volunteers in the western countries because they are driven by their Christian self-concept. Most of them have grown up in Christian families or are convinced of Christian values. Their aim is to help others who are physically or psychologically in a worse situation, and they also expect others to act in a similar way (Brommer, 2000).

However, it must not be ignored that altruistic motives may also have a rewarding quality, albeit without financial aspects. One's own clear conscience and other people's gratefulness may well be considered rewarding.

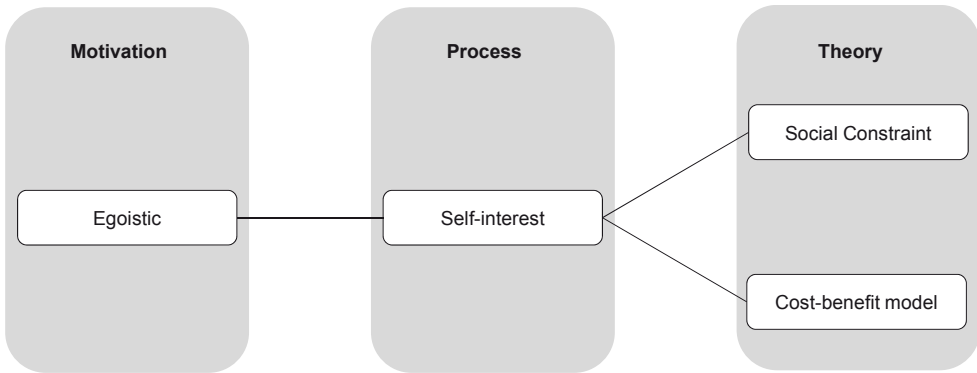
4.4.2 Volunteer to Meet the Own Needs: The Egoism Debate

Egoism is defined by self-centeredness, which is biologically based on instinctive and animalistic tendencies of self-preservation (Brockhaus Encyclopedia, 2005-06). Today the term "egoism" brings about strong negative connotations such as taking hard-nosed advantage of others. However it is one-sided to stick to the negative point of view because the term comprises many facets which can be evaluated in a differentiated manner from an ethical point of view.

4.4.2.1 Egoism Theories

Egoism theories are based on the individual self-interest which is caused by egoistic motives. The basic assumption is that human beings in general act selfishly. This means that for any human being it all comes down to their own well-being, their self-preservation and satisfaction of their needs. Humans strive for their own happiness, and self-interest can be regarded as a natural motive (Göbel, 2006). Two of the theories are the cost-benefit analysis and the theory of social constraint (**Figure 4.3**).

Figure 4.3 Egoism Theories



Own illustration based on Bierhoff (2004)

From the cost-benefit model the assumption can be derived that human beings decide and act in a way which best fits their cost-benefit analysis. In addition to material and immaterial costs, the consequences of one's behavior are at the center of the deliberations. These also include consequences of omission or psychological costs such as feelings of guilt or threats to one's self-perception. It is assumed that human beings anticipate such consequences and take them into account when making decisions. For example, they may deal with the following questions: What is my input in this particular action? How good will I feel when I succeed? Will I feel bad if I do not do anything? Such lines of thought occur rather unconsciously. The costs include factors such as expenditure of time, dangers, potential financial loss and degree of difficulty of the assistance. Among the positive consequences which are incorporated into the subjective cost-benefit analysis are factors such as proving one's own skills and feeling good about them, getting a positive feedback, showing compassion and solidarity and being a role model for others (Bierhoff, 2004). The higher the costs are, the lower the wish to engage oneself is, and the bigger the expected reward or benefit is, the stronger the inclination to assist others is (Bierhoff, 2006).

The theory of social constraint includes the presence of others, i.e., the role of the public. In emergency situations where help is needed the number of witnesses who could potentially provide assistance plays an enormous role (Darley und Latané, 1968). Darley und Latané proved that people's willingness to help decreases, even in threatening situations, the more „bystanders“ there are, i.e., the bigger the audience is. In literature this is known as the “bystander effect”. The reasons lie in the diffusion of responsibility and in the fear of disgrace (Bierhoff, 2004).

4.4.2.2 Motives of Egoism

The motives of egoism include the feeling of significance, social relationships, self-esteem and appreciation, work-life-balance and career (Moschner, 2002).

The feeling of significance is a very strong motive. Voluntary commitment can help to give one's own life a direction or a goal. Especially people who are not regularly employed (any more) can find a meaningful activity here. For elderly people for example, voluntary work can provide meaning and structure, as many of them emphasize how important it is to them to have a reason to get up every morning.

Another motive is the need for social relationships and affiliation. Voluntary commitment can reduce feelings of individualization and anonymity and create new relationships. It can provide the opportunity of getting to know other people and of building up new contacts and relationships as a means of avoiding loneliness. Voluntary commitment therefore also results from self-care because social relationships reduce the risks of illness and social isolation (Brusis, 1999). Some studies have proved the beneficial consequences of voluntary work for the volunteers' health (Badelt, 1997).

In addition, career-oriented motives can be found. Young volunteers get the opportunity to gain additional organizational and social experiences and to acquire and develop key competences such as communication skills or capacities for team-work, which may well serve to brush up their curriculum vitae. Voluntary social work can help young people to bridge the gap between the end of school and the beginning of their professional training, to gain new insights, to learn more about new topics and to make new contacts. For unemployed people, voluntary engagement may also serve as a measure of qualification. Another motive which is often mentioned is the search for new learning opportunities. Volunteers can acquire new knowledge, open up new perspectives and learn from new experiences with people of very different characters. This can help to identify one's own strengths and weaknesses very quickly (Moschner, 2002).

Richter (1980), however, also assumes that sometimes the craving for power and appreciation may prevail. When helping others one can also enjoy one's own power and greatness as opposed to the weak and needy victims. So apparent altruism may well be revealed as an especially refined strategy of egoistic self-fulfillment.

Reciprocity is also considered as the guiding motivation of mutual give-and-take. Some volunteers engage themselves in the hope of receiving help in return when they need it. However, fun and a thirst for adventure also form a very important basis of voluntary work (Moschner, 2002).

4.5 Implications for Volunteer Management

Chapter 4.4 has shown that there is a variety of altruistic and egoistic motives which may result in voluntary work. The volunteers' primary motivation can often not be retraced since their engagement results from a variety of motives (Moschner, 2002). Measures for the promotion of voluntary work must therefore take this motivational variety into account. In order to pull the various altruistic and egoistic motives together in an organizational context, a functional approach is needed which allows us to derive implications for volunteer management. Clary and Snyder (1999) follow such a functional approach when categorizing the different needs of volunteers into compensatory and social functions, the satisfaction of a desire to learn, self-fulfillment and the fulfillment of inner moral standards (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Functions served by volunteering

Function	Conceptual definition
Values	The individual volunteers are driven by values like humanitarianism.
Understanding	The volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or to exercise skills that are often unused.
Enhancement	One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities.
Career	The volunteer wishes to gain career-related experience through volunteering.
Social	Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships.
Protective	The individual uses volunteering to reduce negative feelings, such as guilt, or to address personal problems.

Own table based on Clary and Snyder (1999)

It is the human resource management's job to adjust the offers and opportunities within a social enterprise to the motives and needs of the volunteers. The better offers and needs match, the happier the workers will be and the more their commitment will grow. The interaction between person and situation is therefore decisive for the readiness to take up and to continue voluntary work.

In order to allow for an interaction between person and situation in companies which also have regular employees or in organizations which are completely based on voluntary workers, it makes sense to establish a "volunteer program" (Brudney, 2005). Such a „volunteer program“ provides structures for the recruitment of new volunteers, the individual check and positioning within the organization, the assignment of duties and positions as well as for trainings that may be required. Volunteers need supervising, they need to be motivated and to gain recognition for their work, and they also should get feedback on their performance in order to develop a sense of their own productivity within the company.

Companies, however, must make certain structural adjustments in order to meet the requirements of a volunteer program. Of course, these adjustments will vary in relation to the size of the respective social enterprise. The recruitment of volunteers and the establishment of a volunteer program may lead to great changes within social enterprises. It is therefore important to involve the paid employees in the processes and decisions with regard to the volunteer program from the beginning. In a first step, the social enterprises have to define the reasons why volunteers are to be recruited. Does the company wish to save money or to optimize the cost-effectiveness? Another aim may be to learn more about society from the volunteers in order to be able to raise public awareness for the company's services. On the other hand, volunteers may have special skills which the company lacks, such as programming, legal or accounting knowledge. In addition, volunteers can make very good fundraisers because they are regarded as neutral persons who do not profit directly from donations.

All social enterprises, no matter how small or large they are, will need a visible, recognized person who is responsible for the volunteer management. If the founder cannot take over this task, a so-called "director of volunteer services" should be appointed who functions as a "program manager" or a "personnel manager" according to Fisher and Cole 1993, p. 18: „In the program management approach, the volunteer administrator is a program developer as well as the leader of volunteer efforts integral to the organization's program delivery. In the personnel management approach, the volunteer administrator recruits, selects and places volunteers and trains paid staff to work with them. In both approaches, the responsibilities of the volunteer administrator usually include job design, recruitment, interviewing, orientation and recognition.“

In a next step, formal positions for volunteers should be created. Written task descriptions are recommended in order to understand the range of responsibilities of different positions within the company. These descriptions should be similar to those of regular employees in order to provide volunteers with clear information on the company's expectations and their respective qualification to meet these expectations. Task descriptions include (McCurely and Lynch, 1996):

- Job title, offered position
- Purpose of the job (most important part)
- Job responsibilities and activities
- Qualifications for the position (desired skills and knowledge)
- Benefits to the occupant
- Timeframe (for example, hours per week)
- Proposed starting date
- Reporting relationships and supervision

It must, however, not be forgotten that the volunteers' leisure time is a precious good. When planning new positions, the amount of time which the individuals have at their disposal must be taken into account. It seems to make sense to create positions for a relatively short period of time at first, for example in smaller projects. In such positions, the individuals have the opportunity to get to know the company and to find out if the tasks suit them.

Most volunteers are recruited via personal contact (Pearce, 1993), so new volunteers might be won among the initial volunteers' and employees' friends. External „volunteer agencies“ may also be helpful for social enterprises searching for suitable volunteers, but they should try to avoid dependencies from external sources and rather develop their own recruitment strategies.

Staffing is then done according to the applicants' motives and requirements. The activities should create added value for the company as well as for the volunteer. Social enterprises could also establish internal counseling and placement offices in order to find suitable positions for new volunteers according to their individual motives and in order to protect them against wrong expectations and disappointments.

Since the motives of volunteers may change over time, social enterprises should be prepared to react accordingly. Continued voluntary commitment is a dynamic process which is formed by feedback processes and the recognition of personal development. This process will sometimes require a modification of certain positions within the company. In addition, individual motivation incentives should be used, which, for example, may include the assignment of greater responsibility, participation in decision making processes, training opportunities, supportive feedback and performance documentation. Other tokens of esteem are of similar importance. For example, attention in the media (newsletters, newspapers), awards or social events (luncheons, banquets, ceremonies) or certificates (for tenure or special achievements) may motivate volunteers. While for some volunteers, a simple but cordial “Thank you!” will increase their motivation, others may prefer written acknowledgments (Brudney, 2005). Again, it is important that motivation incentives meet the volunteers' needs. Not everybody will appreciate an invitation to a banquet. Most motivation incentives arise from the job itself or the friendly contact with colleagues anyway (Pearce, 1993).

The development measures and incentives for voluntary commitment presented here show that the interaction of person and situation in social enterprises may be cost intensive and far from simple. The tasks of the volunteer management are very challenging and go well beyond traditional management responsibilities. It is essential to choose a leadership style that fosters trust building, cooperation, teamwork, competition, personal development, success, value creation, fun and commitment among the volunteers. “Management-by-Partnership” will lead to better results than a merely formal supervision (Walter, 1987). Although volunteer management differs from traditional personnel work in important aspects such as the lack of contractual obligations, this does not mean that volunteers must not be asked to leave the company in case of deviance or bad behavior (Drucker, 1990). Tolerating volunteer deviance might be misinterpreted by other (paid and volunteer) staff members and lead to further misconduct and loss of leadership awareness.

By way of conclusion it can be stated that volunteering is both a hobby as well as a traditional work in an organizational context (Pearce, 1993). The deliberations on the "volunteer program" are based on the assumption that volunteering is regarded as work which legitimates the application of management practices. The attention of the management has to focus on the volunteers' performance and the customers' content. However, voluntary commitment can only take place during a person's leisure time and will, like any other hobby, only be pursued if it is fun and interesting.

4.6 Case Study

GEPA – The Fair Trade Company, one of the best-known enterprises in Fair Trade, has its home office in Wuppertal, Germany. GEPA presents itself as Europe’s biggest Fair Trade Organization whose mission it is to “improve the living conditions of people, especially in developing countries, who are presently disadvantaged in the regional economic and social frameworks as well as in the global economy. GEPA wants to be a reliable partner in order to enable producers to participate in the national and international markets under humane conditions and to make an adequate living for themselves” (GEPA partnership agreement). The services offered by GEPA comprise fair prices, advance financing, long-term supply-agreements, counseling and product development, avoidance of unfair intermediate trade, direct, co-operative and long-term trade relationships and creation of market access for small organizations. Main products are victuals (coffee, tea, honey, bread spreads, chocolate, wine etc.), handicrafts and textiles which are bought from associations and trade organizations in Africa, Asia and Latin America. At present GEPA co-operates with 169 producers from 43 countries.

GEPA, which has more than 170 associates by now, was founded in 1975 by church institutions as a GmbH (limited liability company). Based on exclusively social aims and civic engagement at the beginning, GEPA now is a successful import company with a turnover of 54.4 million Euros in 2009/2010. GEPA is financed exclusively from the revenues of the products sold. Occuring profits are not distributed among the partners but re-invested in accordance with the company aims. In Germany, the products are sold at 800 fair trade stores and by more than 6,000 so-called action groups but also at food retailing companies and via an online shop.

The fair trade stores and the action groups, which make 41.39% of the turnover, are GEPA’s most important distribution channel. More than 100,000 people work there, most of them voluntarily. The fair trade stores, however, are not directed by GEPA but are independent organizations which must sustain themselves without any external funding. They are either owned by private associations or – if they are bigger – non-incorporated firms or limited liability companies. The original idea of the fair trade stores was to create a room for educational discussion and examination of the challenges which developing countries have to face. Thus at first, selling the products was not the primary aim, but GEPA mainly used them to sensitize customers for unfair structures in global trade, for example to show how little the actual producers earned in contrast to the intermediate traders. Nowadays, fair trade shops are popular in other European countries as well, for example there are more than 550 in Italy and 400 in the Netherlands. Outside Europe, particularly in the U.S., there are many more shops.

The action groups (the term was coined by the “Aktion Dritte Welthandel”) are exclusively formed by volunteers who organize special sales events such as Christmas bazars to sell GEPA products. These groups have no business premises and no VAT deduction. They buy products to sell them with a profit for a special aim. GEPA offers the products with a discount to these groups in order to enable them to support their chosen social or ecological projects.

In comparison with German shops, some foreign fair trade stores make more turnover due to their better locations and more attractive appearance. Therefore, GEPA thinks that German stores also have a potential for better turnover if they are developed as more professionally managed shops which focus on selling the products and finding new target groups. However, the educational aspect must not be neglected either but should help to balance economic and social aims. By now the stores also have salaried associates in addition to the volunteers and GEPA strives to increase their percentage. In addition to the professionalization of the existing stores, GEPA is also planning to support individuals or groups in starting new stores in Germany.

Questions:

1. What about you? Could you imagine volunteering at GEPA fair trade stores and action groups? Consider pro and contra arguments.
2. What are the reasons that so far, GEPA could rely on voluntary workers in fair trade stores and action groups for selling their products?
3. Which opportunities and risks may arise when GEPA turns the fair trade stores into more professional managed shops and shifts the volunteers' work to professionally trained personnel?
4. How would you manage the professionalization process and the start-up of new fair trade stores if you worked for GEPA?

4.7 Further Reading

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