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"THE SPIRIT IS WILLING, BUT THE FLESH IS WEAK": THE ROLE OF SERVICE QUALITY, SATISFACTION AND REPUTATION IN VOLUNTEER RETENTION

Keywords: Church, perceived service quality, satisfaction, organisational reputation, volunteer retention

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THESIS

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of the requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Stefan Dyck

Enschede, 12-08-2011

PREFACE

The European Commission has called to the year 2011 to be the *European Year of Volunteering*. In the European Union, millions of citizens are volunteering. People of all ages make a positive contribution to their community by investing some of their free time in civil society organisations, in non-profit organisations, in sport clubs, etc. As to the European Commission, volunteering has a great, but so far under-exploited, potential for the social and economic development of countries. The Commission expects that the *European Year of Volunteering* will lead to an increase in volunteering and to greater awareness of its benefit. The European Year of Volunteering is both a celebration and a challenge: a celebration of the commitment of people who work in their communities during their free time without being paid. Their efforts and those of the many thousands of volunteering organisations make a huge difference to our lives in countless ways. The world would be much worse off without volunteers! It is also a challenge to population who do not do any volunteering yet – they can also make a difference in the future.

The thesis at hand is based on a study within the field of service marketing and non-profit management to obtain a Master's degree in Business Administration from the School of Management and Governance at the University of Twente. It deals with the important question on what organisations can do or improve to retain volunteers. Moreover, it is piece of research rooted in my passion for my local church and its people to whom I stand in close relationship to this day. Being a member of my hometown Christian community, for now twelve years, I have dedicated much of my free time to volunteer at the church in different areas. I experienced difficulties and gained much of my work experience as a volunteer which altogether led me to focus on the church and its volunteers.

Finally, I wish the reader of this thesis an enjoyable reading experience and a fresh and new perspective on the topic of volunteering.

August 2011

Stefan Dyck

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

NPO	Non-profit organisation
EKD	Evangelische Kirche in Deutschland
PSQ	Perceived Service Quality
RET	Retention
SAT	Satisfaction
REP	Reputation
IQ	Interaction Quality
PQ	Physical Evidence Quality
OQ	Outcome Quality
AT	Attitude
BE	Behaviours
EX	Expertise
AC	Ambient conditions
DE	Design
SF	Social factors
WT	Waiting time
TA	Tangibles
VA	Valence
TF	Time flexibility
OT	Orientation and training
CC	Customer contact
EM	Empowerment
SI	Social interaction
RF	Reflection
RW	Rewards
AM	Altruistic motivation
H	Hypothesis
SEM	Structural equation modelling
PLS	Partial least squares
FA	Factor Analysis
CA	Cluster Analysis
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
M	Mean
SD	Standard Deviation
V	Variance
SE	Standard Error
λ	loadings
alpha	Cronbachs alpha
CR	Composite reliability
AVE	Average variance extracted
FLC	Fornell/Larcker-Criterion
Corr	Correlation
VIF	Variance inflation factor
CI	Condition index
sig.	significance
PC	Path coefficient
R^2	Coefficient of determination
q^2	Predictive relevance
*f*2	Effect size
n.s.	non-significant or not significant

ABSTRACT

"THE SPIRIT IS WILLING, BUT THE FLESH IS WEAK":

THE ROLE OF SERVICE QUALITY, SATISFACTION AND REPUTATION IN VOLUNTEER RETENTION

As non-profit organisations rely heavily on the contribution and participation of volunteers a major goal to ensure the viability of these organisations is to retain volunteers. This is of significance since volunteers provide services as unpaid employees on behalf of the organisation and by definition are not bound by contractual arrangements to remain within the organisation. Hence, other instruments, which ensure volunteers' loyalty, need to be utilized by such organisations. To investigate the factors contributing to volunteer retention, this study draws on an internal marketing perspective considering a volunteer as someone who is enabled by the organisation to serve a third party. From the for-profit sector job satisfaction and service quality – both factors, which lie within the confines of the organisation's basic strategic alignment – along with intrinsic motivators -, are known to serve as a means to enhance employees' loyalty towards their work. In this vein, this study examines perceived service quality and satisfaction in relation to their impact on volunteer retention. Moreover, it considers whether the organisation can indirectly influence loyalty through its reputation since reputation is convincingly proposed as an antecedent of loyalty and a mediator of service quality and satisfaction. Altruism, as a volunteer's intrinsic motivator, is also investigated for its contribution to volunteer satisfaction and retention.

A sample of 232 church volunteers in Germany was asked to report on their level of satisfaction, perception of service quality and the reputation of the organisation as well as their intention to remain as a volunteer for the organisation. First, the reliability and validity of the different constructs was assessed leading to an adjusted model of the relations among the constructs. A Partial Least Squares approach was used to evaluate the overall model. The data analysis supported the proposed links between the constructs and revealed satisfaction to be more important than service quality while reputation mediated the link of service quality towards retention. Moreover, empirical data revealed altruism to be of significant importance in the specific context. In line with the internal marketing perspective, this study argues for a focus on the volunteer as the ultimate provider of service. Furthermore, results from Factor and Cluster Analysis reveal potential new conceptualizations of constructs. For instance, the importance of altruism is supported but in addition, the analysis has uncovered that the design of the church buildings is a significant factor to distinguish among different groups of volunteers. By contrast, orientation and training are postulated to be important for all clusters of volunteers. Overall, the results indicate that organisations need to take care to strategically manage the provision of high quality support to enhance volunteers' satisfaction and loyalty towards the organisation, while at the same time keeping an eye on specific components of the volunteering experience.

Keywords: Church, perceived service quality, satisfaction, organisational reputation, volunteer retention

INTRODUCTION

Significance of the topic

Most non-profit organisations (NPO) rely on the contribution and participation of individuals – often referred to as volunteers (Govekar & Govekar, 2002) – as to the fact of limited financial resources (Mulyanegara et al., 2010; Cuskelly et al., 2006). This is supported by the higher ratio of volunteers than paid staff (Wisner et al., 2005). In particular, consumer participation takes place in terms of contribution of money (Sargeant, 2005) and volunteering time (Self et al., 1988). The important role of volunteering in the provision of goods and services has helped to stimulate a variety of explanations of why people supply unpaid labour (Carpenter & Myer, 2010). Since non-profit organisations serve societies in important ways (Garner & Garner, 2010) and are increasingly operating in a competitive environment (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010), it is important to their survival to manage money and volunteers properly (Mulyanegara et al., 2010). A challenge for many non-profit organisations is to retain its volunteers (Netting et al., 2005) since volunteers do not depend on the organisation in terms of salary (Adams et al., 1988). Further, their commitment to the organisation is not predetermined by contractual arrangement; hence, volunteers may simply leave (Garner & Garner, 2010). In view of the difficulties to manage volunteers, many non-profit organisations adopt management practices from the business context for staff retention as well as service strategy and delivery (Goerke, 2003; Hume & Hume, 2008; Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010) and professional volunteer management emerges as an integral activity in non-profit management (Netting et al., 2005).

Despite the importance of volunteers in non-profit organisations, participation of individuals – by volunteering or donating – is fairly under researched from a non-profit marketing point-of-view (Mulyanegara et al., 2010). In view of the difficulty to attract and retain volunteers, marketing scholars were attracted to focus on churches as a research context in studies of the non-profit sector in recent years (Abreu, 2006; Mulyanegara et al., 2010; Mulyanegara et al., 2011). Churches require a high level of member participation (Self et al., 1988) due to minimal financial support from other constituencies and scarce financial resources to afford a high number of paid staff (Mulyanegara et al., 2010). For instance, recent official statistical data supports that approximately 84% (1,114,140 people) within the major German protestant church – "Evangelische Kirche in Deutschland" (EKD) – are volunteers while only employed 216,170 (~16%) people are working as paid pastors, musicians and administrative staff (EKD Internetredaktion, 2008b). This is in line with Wisner et al. (2005) emphasizing the importance of volunteers in service delivery which reflected in the ratio of volunteers to paid staff. Additionally, churches are facing fluctuation of members, especially volunteers, due to an increasing number of religious varieties, fostered by greater religious freedom and significant changes in the social environment over the last decades (Abreu, 2006).

While volunteer retention is an important issue, most studies investigated church participation as driven by religious antecedents – beliefs, motives and valued outcomes – whereas limited empirical research has taken a marketing perspective (Mulyanegara et al., 2010; Newman & Benchener, 2008). A review on church marketing literature by Stevens et al. (2006) revealed a total of roughly 40 empirical and conceptual papers in the 90s. Recent academic work reflects the increasing investigation of specific marketing concepts and their application to churches (Mulyanegara et al., 2010). Increasing academic interest of marketing towards church echoes in the dedication of a journal – *Journal of Ministry Marketing and Management* – on church marketing issues (Santos & Mathews, 2001) and the publication of more and more academic papers in the renowned marketing and service research journals (Mulyanegara et al., 2011). Despite the fact that churches are applying marketing tools, especially in western congregations (Abreu, 2006; Newman & Benchener, 2008), the level of academic research on specific concepts is only recently gaining interest (Santos & Mathews, 2001). Current areas of investigation and application include marketing communications (Au, 2000; Rupp & Smith, 2002; Vokurka et al., 2002), market orientation (Mulyanegara et al., 2010; White & Simas, 2008), brand image (Abreu, 2006) and services marketing (Webb & Joseph, 1998; Sherman & Devlin, 2000; Rodrigue, 2002) and, in particular, service quality (Santos & Mathews, 2001).

The spreading trend to apply marketing in other than the business context is not new. Especially, Kotler and Levy's (1969) early work point to the fact that the marketing concept is not limited to the business arena solely. The authors note that every organisation performs marketing activities whether or not they are recognized as such. The example given by Kotler (2005) clarifies the authors' claim: Proselytizing – the act of convincing people to believe in God and join the church – accounts much for historical growth of major religions.

Besides academic research on church marketing, evidence to a widespread application of marketing activities in recent years is frequently anecdotal (Newman & Benchener, 2008). As an example, Christian Today (2008) reported on 'mystery worshipping':

> *"Mystery churchgoers will assess everything from the state of the exterior noticeboard to the length of the sermon as they put church services under the microscope. They will rate the atmosphere, singing and even the after-service chat before ending up with a percentage score for the church that identifies the strengths and weaknesses of its welcome."*

The author refers to a well-known tool in service marketing – mystery shopping (Wilson, 1998) – that nowadays is applied in churches, too. Even though the use of marketing practices as well as strategic marketing planning does occur, the question whether religious organisations should apply business concepts and marketing is still highly debated and criticized due to a variety of reasons both from church leaders and public (Newman & Benchener, 2008; Sherman & Devlin, 2000; Webb & Joseph, 1998). For the profound discussion of the ethical issues with marketing in the church context, I direct you to the section on ethical issues.

Treating marketing from a neutral standpoint might help to understand its potential to help organisations beyond business, especially in the religious context (Angheluță et al., 2009). Hence, I refer to the general definition by Kotler (1991), who defines marketing as a "social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering and exchanging products of value with others". Later definitions added the term 'customer relationship'. Especially Grönroos (2007) reshaped and sharpened the definition for marketing as "the process of managing ongoing relations", which is at the core of churches mission (Angheluță et al., 2009; Wrenn, 1993). Hence, as long as the core concept of spirituality and the mission of the church is not distorted, marketing in the church context provides a strong means to better focus on the relationship between the church and its members (Abreu, 2006) and to providing a good service to the population (Baimbridge & Whyman, 1997; Kotler & Andreasen, 1996; Shawchuck et al., 1992).

Purpose of the study and delimitations

Mulyanegara et al. (2010) stress, that future research is needed in the non-profit domain, respectively on volunteering. Hence, given the fact that marketing in line with church mission could be defined as relationship marketing – thus it refers to attract and retain people - the major question remains how marketing could aid to provide a better understanding of volunteer retention in the church context.

Therefore, the aim of the thesis at hand is to provide a framework, which applies the marketing perspective to the church volunteer context. The framework provides a backdrop to investigate marketing related dimensions and parameters of volunteer retention in a non-profit church context to finally develop a measurement model for church volunteer retention. By using an extensive literature research, I first establish a research model. Empirical data from a sample of German church volunteers permits statistical evaluation – including assessment of validity and reliability – to validate hypothesized relations within the proposed model. Moreover, exploratory analysis might reveal underlying latent variables and helps to pinpoint at specific groups of volunteers, which provide a basis for further research. Finally, I outline and discuss the results from the empirical work in view of the literature and discuss the outcomes. The study generally follows a deductive approach using quantitative design with the intent to generalize from the sample to a population using cross-sectional data as outlined in the process (Figure 1). The rest of the paper proceeds as follows: after reviewing the Literature on marketing and volunteering in the context of churches, I provide a conceptualization of the specific constructs under study. Further, I outline their interrelations and their impact on volunteer retention. Subsequently, I describe the methodology and analysis procedures followed by the statistical analysis and results of the empirical study. The paper concludes with a summary of the results and its discussion, the potential limitations as well as implications for practice, and further research.

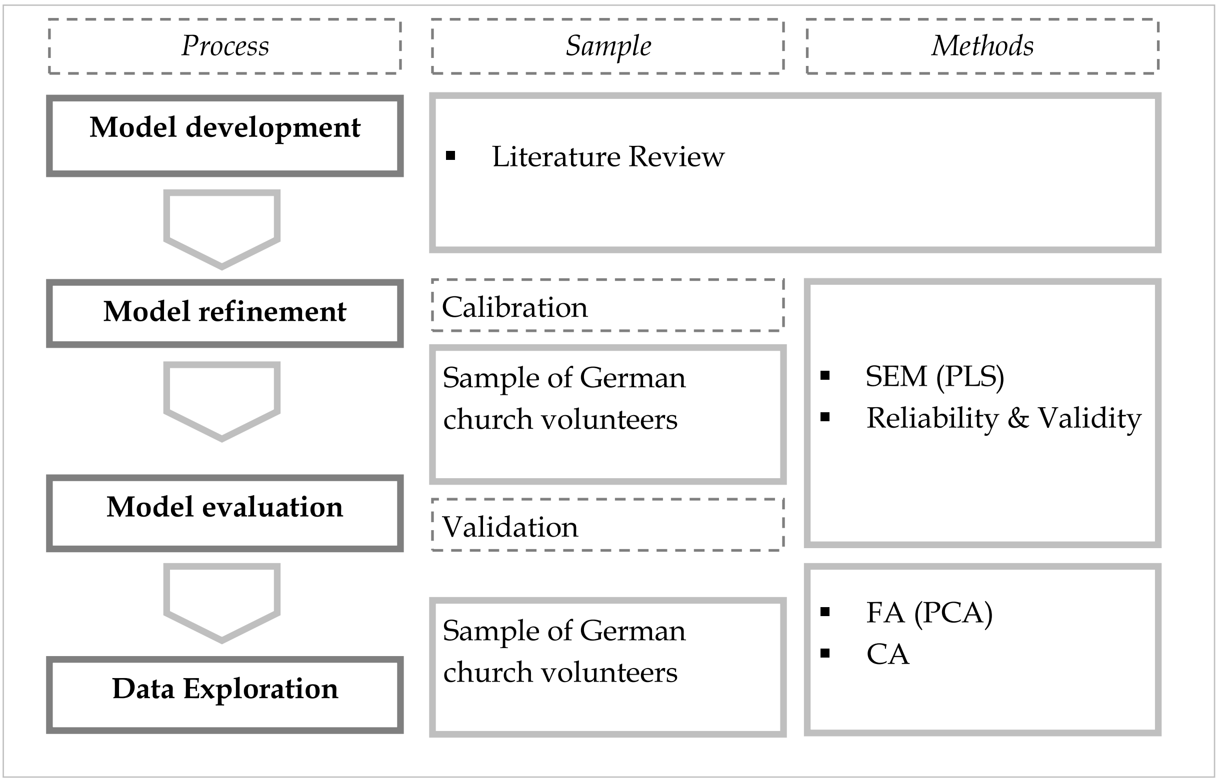

Figure 1: research procedure
Source: Author's own illustration

Theoretical perspective

Marketing

To lay a foundation for the empirical research, I propose a framework of investigation taking the marketing lens. As outlined above, marketing is becoming increasingly important –

scholars as well as practice confirm this observation – in the non-profit, especially church, domain (Mulyanegara et al., 2010; Newman & Benchener, 2008).

Services Marketing

Mulyanegara et al. (2011) propose that a services marketing perspective on the church (Rodrigue, 2002; Sherman & Devlin, 2000; Webb & Joseph, 1998) is not uncommon. Nevertheless, Angheluță et al. (2009) argue that within the church context it is more appropriately to talk about social or societal marketing than about services. However, this strict boundary between services and social marketing drawn by the authors is due to a very rigid definition of services. The authors are conceptualize services marketing as a practice solely for organisations that offer commercial services while social marketing as a practice for organisations serving a non-commercial audience (Angheluță et al., 2009). Moreover, they draw the border based on difference knowledge intensity between products and service as well as on the service characteristics. However, they only mention immateriality. Much of the distinction by Angheluță et al. (2009) is due to an old-fashioned rigid understanding of services marketing. What is predominant in the recent academic discourse on the 'service-dominant logic' (see i.e. Ballantyne & Varey, 2008; Grönroos, 2006; Gummesson, 2007; Lusch & Vargo, 2006; Lusch et al., 2007, Sweeney, 2007; Warnaby, 2009) among service research scholars is the insight that services are the prevalent form of value creation by "doing something for someone" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Hence, the rigid conceptualization of services by Angheluță et al. (2009) is at odds.

In revisiting and rethinking (Angheluță et al., 2009) three arguments before the backdrop of the 'service-dominant logic', I want to give a sound understanding for a services marketing approach including the general known service characteristics:
The core characteristic of services in their distinction to products is their *immateriality*, also referred to as intangibility (Grönroos, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 2009). Angheluță et al. (2009) argue that churches do not only deliver services but also, moreover, promote a set of ideas and believes – i.e. social ideas, values –which should shape the behaviour – i.e. social justice – of their target audience. I argue, that believes and values are obviously intangible; they are thoughts and opinions by nature. Only when those believes translate into behaviour, we see a material outcome because people translating them into practice, which refers to the core of the 'service-dominant logic' of "doing something for someone" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In the church context there is a set of values and believes which are immaterial, which is referred to as doctrine or theology. Only when they are put into practice, faith is lived out by church

members. Generally, this is true for all kinds of services – i.e. hairdresser, management consulting, legal advice – since they are dependent on *customer's participation* – i.e. information, physical presence – in the creating the service experience and outcome (Bendapudi & Leone, 2003; Bettencourt, 1997; Bettencourt et al., 2002; Zeithaml et al., 2009). Some of the core services by the church – i.e. worship service, communion, weddings, funerals, and baptism – are immaterial and require a high degree of personal participation (Santos & Mathews, 2001). A third argument by Angheluță et al. (2009) is that churches – as social organisations – cannot align all of their activity to the target groups. In this vein, the authors refer to the *asymmetry of information* between the provider and customers – i.e. a priest knows better the path to Salvation than parishioner (Angheluță et al., 2009). In the marketing context, this is often referred to as credence qualities (Darby & Karni, 1973): a consumer has to trust the provider in terms of his knowledge and the quality of the service. Credence qualities are common in knowledge intensive professional services – i.e. management consulting, legal advice – where the provider offers very specific services, which a customer – if needed – might purchase. In the same direction, Angheluță et al. (2009) argue that a church proposes her services, belief, and values and the target audience may or may not accept it. Thus, I disagree with the authors in two aspects: (1) the higher level of knowledge of professionals – credence qualities of the services – is not solely limited to social marketing, especially church, context and (2) churches as well as service providers stick to their core mission and vision likewise and do not forsake their purpose of existence totally for customer's claims or wishes. Finally, this leads me to the conclusion, in line with (Abreu, 2006; Cutler & Winans, 1998; Rodrigue, 2002; Santos & Mathews, 2001), that according to the constituent characteristics of service, a church could be regarded as a service provider.
Moreover, to revisit the argument of financial funding in churches (Angheluță et al., 2009), I would agree with the authors that churches are not selling their services in turn of direct monetary payment. However, it could not be neglected that though there is no exchange of service for money, consumers in a more informal way donate money (Sargeant, 2005) and time (Self et al., 1988) for the activities and campaigns of a churches. Thus, while generally there is no direct link between financial or time contribution and a specific service, value for both parties is created.

Having discussed the nature of marketing in a religious context, a fundamental question emerges: Is it possible to view religion as a product or service? There are diverse definitions of the religious product (Angheluță et al., 2009). Starting with Weber, who considers the product of religion as 'salvation' which is truly the core of a religious experience (Burger, 2006), the religious product is more (Angheluță et al., 2009). Martin (2006) reflects on religion using the concept of a core product – unchangeable sacred values, i.e. doctrine, rituals – and the augmented product – non-sacred components – as an extension of Weber's idea. Even though Weber called the religious product 'salvation good' (Burger, 2006), the product of religious organisation is primarily intangible following Martin's (2006) category of core product. Angheluță et al. (2009) refer to the fact in that they first acknowledge that there is a product – goods and services addressed to certain audience. Santos and Mathews (2001) note that there are genuine services – i.e. worship service, communion, weddings, funerals, and baptism – provided by the church. By nature, those services require a high degree of involvement and participation of the people the service is provided to (Angheluță et al., 2009; Mulyanegara et al., 2010; Santos & Mathews, 2001). Furthermore, a non-material – thus intangible – form of how religion shapes personal values, beliefs and view is comprised in the religious product (Angheluță et al., 2009). Intangibility goes together with the fact that customers need to participate in the process of delivery and accounts for a typical characteristic of service (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 2009). This characteristic of services is satisfied equally in for-profit services – i.e. a legal consultation at the attorney – and social non-paid services – i.e. pastoral care. Additionally, a second characteristic of services is satisfied in the context of religious products. Chan and Chau (1998) highlight that churches are faced with an overlap of production and consumption since members and visitors of a church provide resources – i.e. money, volunteer work time – for the delivery of the services and products rendered by a church (Santos & Mathews, 2001; White & Simas, 2008).

Internal Marketing

The marketing function in service providing organisations is different from what is traditionally considered as marketing. Marketing does not take place in a single department any longer, but it is dispersed over the whole organisation supporting the idea that all the employees are involved in marketing and conscious of their functions as marketers (Grönroos, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 2009). As volunteer management as an important activity within the church (Netting et al., 2005) and the need for churches to rely heavily on volunteer work (Self et al., 1988), I adopt an internal marketing lens on the context of volunteer retention. Additionally, studies from the for-profit sector have revealed internal marketing to be an excellent device to enhance retention (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005). Hence, in line with Svensson (2006) the internal marketing perspective accounts for the under researched area of provider's perspective in service encounters. *Internal marketing* is an integral part of the services marketing triangle (Grönroos, 1996) (Figure 2) which best serves as a backdrop for the focus on volunteer this study from a services marketing perspective. The triangle reflects the idea of marketing activity spread throughout the organisation and divided between the different actors. The triangle depicts the marketing relationships among the service organisation, its employees and customers. In many respects, volunteers can also be viewed as customers since they volunteer to further their own goals and objectives (Wisner et al., 2005). They are also similar to customers in that they are free to decide to start, to retain or to withdraw from volunteering at any time (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990).

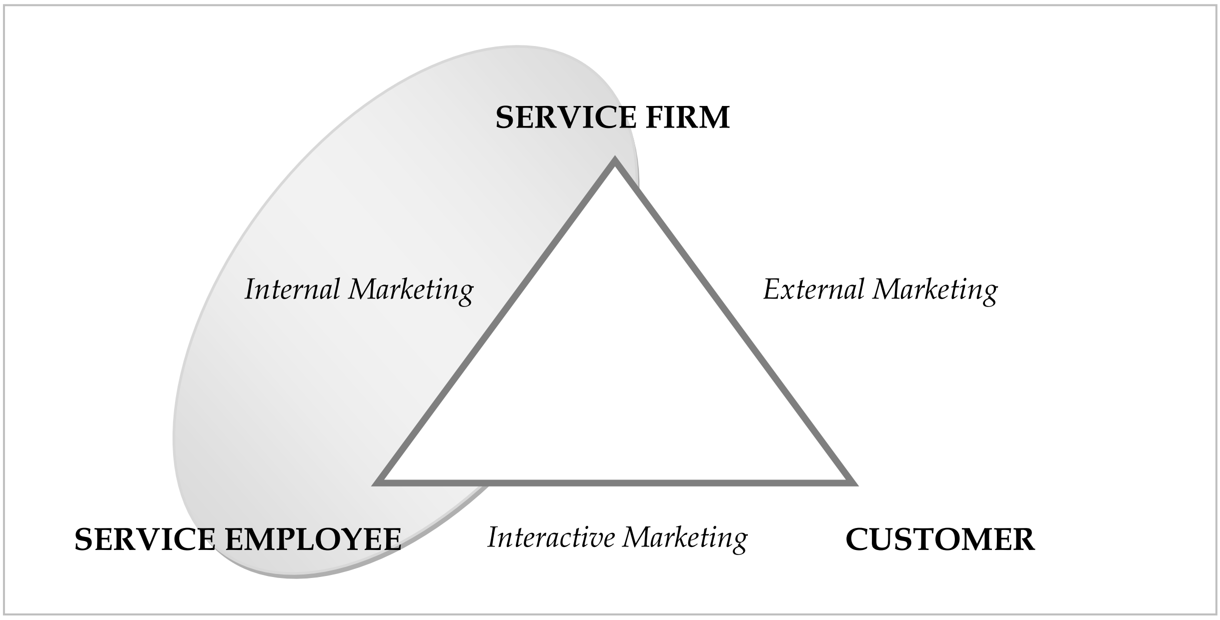

Figure 2: The Service Marketing Triangle
Source: Grönroos (1996)

Internal marketing, particularly, refers to the relationship between the service firm – the church – and its employees – the volunteers. Thus, it accounts for the frontline roles of volunteers – comparable to frontline employees in service firms as boundary spanners (Bettencourt & Gwinner, 1996; Zeithaml et al., 2009) – in non-profit organisations (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Netting et al., 2005). The term itself subsumes a set of human resource policies and practices regarding employees as customers of an internal market. Applying marketing activities, internal marketing seeks to develop customer-awareness and a service attitude among employees – in this context volunteers – as internal customers (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005). According to Grönroos (2007), internal marketing has to be managed by the company's leadership to develop motivated and customer-conscious employees. The functions of internal marketing outlined above can be sequentially linked to the attraction and retention of volunteers to the church (Netting et al., 2005). The ultimate purpose of effective internal marketing is to increases job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees which in turn lead to greater motivation to provide better client service (Bell et al., 2004; Papasolomou-Doukakis, 2003; Wisner et al., 2005). Thus, internal customers need to be informed, educated, developed, and motivated in order to serve clients more effectively (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005).

Research question

Formal bonds to terminate volunteering are weak because volunteers do not receive monetary compensation – thus they are not bound by formal working contract (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Wisner et al., 2005). High turnover is damaging in particular when volunteers are equipped with unique skills requiring a long-term commitment to the organisation or when individual volunteer's termination has negative effects on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Miller et al., 1990). Volunteer's low satisfaction-level directly affects his or her decisions to terminate volunteer work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Miller et al., 1990; Wisner et al., 2005). Further, poor satisfaction – if an individual chooses to retain – can reduce a volunteer's desire to provide high quality service (Adams & Shepherd, 1996; Shin & Kleiner, 2003), hence affecting customers – interactive marketing – as well as fellow volunteers – internal marketing – equally. Thus, it is important to examine matters of volunteer retention in the church context under the perspective of internal marketing (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005).

Following the purpose of this study, the main question is ***how internal marketing influences volunteer retention in the context of German local churches.*** To answer this overarching question, I ask the following sub-questions which break up the complexity:

- How **volunteer retention** (outcome variable) is best conceptualized from a service marketing perspective?
- What are relevant **driver constructs** of volunteer retention?
- How do the **independent driver constructs relate to the dependant variable**?

To create a research model – under the perspective of internal marketing – that accounts for the question how driver constructs relate to the outcome variable – volunteer retention – I draw on services marketing concepts. In doing so, I translate core concepts of services marketing research focusing on the for-profit sector to the non-profit, respectively the church domain. Thus, I enhance the body of knowledge on church marketing and management helping to satisfy the increasing interest in the application of marketing techniques to church (Santos & Mathews, 2001).

Since internal marketing regards the volunteer as an internal customer (Wisner et al., 2005), it is appropriate to include perceived service quality as an important concept (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005). The importance of perceived service quality arises from the fact that it has been increasingly identified as a key factor in building and maintaining successful relationships (Svensson, 2006). Thus, it directly influences volunteer retention if seen as maintaining a relationship. Moreover, a number of papers suggest that church laypeople demand high-quality service (Gilkes, 1998). Especially, with regard to volunteering, research is sparse focusing on total quality management rather than perceived service quality (Santos & Mathews, 2001). However, Cronin (2003) and Edvardsson (2005) recently question the definition, conceptualization and measurement of perceived service quality. In particular, Edvardsson (2005) argues perceived service quality to be more than the outcome of cognitive assessment. Especially, the author stresses service experience and the customers' emotions to be of importance. Moreover, Cronin (2003) criticizes the omission of the traditional attitude-based models of consumer decision-making and proposes a broadened view on service quality.

Taking into account the arguments by Cronin (2003) and Edvardsson (2005), I propose a attitude-based model (Appendix 1) following Cronin (2003) as the foundation to conceptualize the relations between **perceived service quality** (PSQ) and the outcome variable - customer's purchase behaviour (PB) (Cronin, 2003).

Moreover, Cronin's (2003) model (Appendix 1) accounts for the inclusion of attitude towards the service provider (ATT_{SP}) linking perceived service quality and purchase behaviour and integrates the cognitive evaluation and emotional reaction of customers (Cronin, 2003) as emphasized by Edvardsson (2005). What is important in this context to note is that the model is rooted in the for-profit sector. Thus, I need to rethink the conceptualization in terms of non-profit organisations. As to Cronin's (2003) model, purchase behaviour is a behavioural outcome of a cognitive evaluation and emotional reaction. Hence, I consider volunteer **retention** (RET) – likewise defined as an outcome (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Wisner et al., 2005) – could be used as an outcome in the volunteer context. Additionally, Garner and Garner (2010) point to the fact that volunteer retention incorporates behaviour, too. In their recent qualitative study, the authors asked experts how this variable could best measured. Responses indicated that the individual's plans for his contribution to the specific organisation as well as for volunteering in general and her referral behaviour to other people were among the most important considerations for retention. Hence, I argue that it is appropriate using volunteer retention as the outcome variable in the volunteer management context.

A third aspect the model (Appendix 1) is covering is the integration of customer satisfaction (CS) (Cronin, 2003). As outlined above, the equivalently for customers in this context are volunteers while they could also be seen as unpaid employees of a non-profit organisation. Thus, customer satisfaction refers to volunteer's **satisfaction** (SAT) with his volunteer experience. It is especially important to investigate satisfaction since low levels of volunteer job satisfaction are key determinants of volunteers' decisions to remain or withdraw from his work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Miller et al., 1990; Garner & Garner, 2010; Wisner et al., 2005).

As Cronin (2003) claims, there is a need to re-include attitudinal constructs in the link between perceived service quality and purchase behaviour. Thus, including non-profit **reputation** (REP) as defined by Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010) – an attitudinal construct comprising affective and cognitive components – seems to be an appropriate component. Especially, the authors mention that reputation denotes an emotional and cognition based mindset. Thus, it helps to include the emotional component, Edvardsson (2005) is advocating for. Moreover, the impact of reputation on consumer behaviour is to help to maintain a loyal relationship (Yoon et al., 1993; Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001a) which is in line with the aim to retain volunteers (Leete, 2006). Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010) note that quality is a driver construct of reputation; thus, it relates to the link between service quality and reputation. Furthermore, reputation communicates quality of a service or product (Yoon et al., 1993) and includes aspects such as identification and retention as direct experiences with an organisation (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010).

In summary, the outlined components are illustrated according to Cronin's (2003) model and adapt to the non-profit church context (Figure 3)

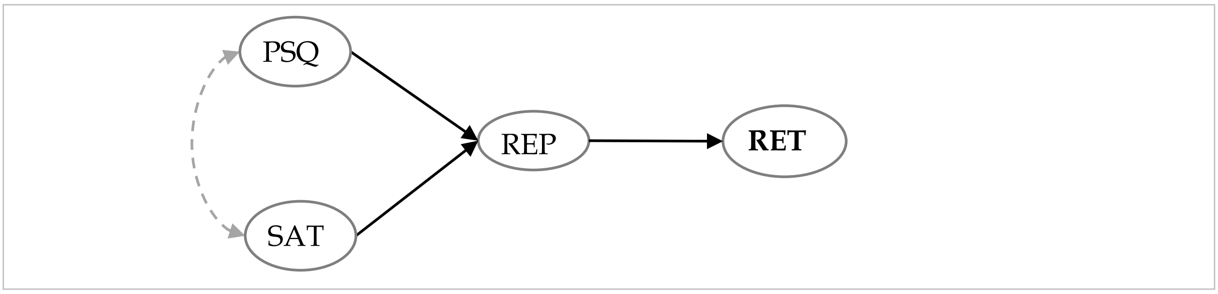

Figure 3: Adaption of Cronin's (2003) structural model to the volunteer context
Source: Author's own illustration.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Search and quality assessment of the literature

Following the argumentation of Bourguignon et al. (2004) that a literature-based analysis helps to increase the level of clarity and precision, I review the literature in the related fields to understand the concepts used in this study. The field of interest with regard to this study draws on literature of different but related research areas as shown in Figure 4. The broad background of literature stem from the management and marketing literature, which somehow are interlinked and overlap to the extent that marketing is the management of relations to the internal and external markets of an organisation. In the specific context of this study services marketing literature with regard to the service perspective and concepts at hand is related to non-profit management as to the research object of volunteers in the church. The integration of both embeds the two research fields in the church marketing and management literature. Concepts applied to the research object are service quality, satisfaction and loyalty which all three bridge the field of consumer as well as organisational behaviour.

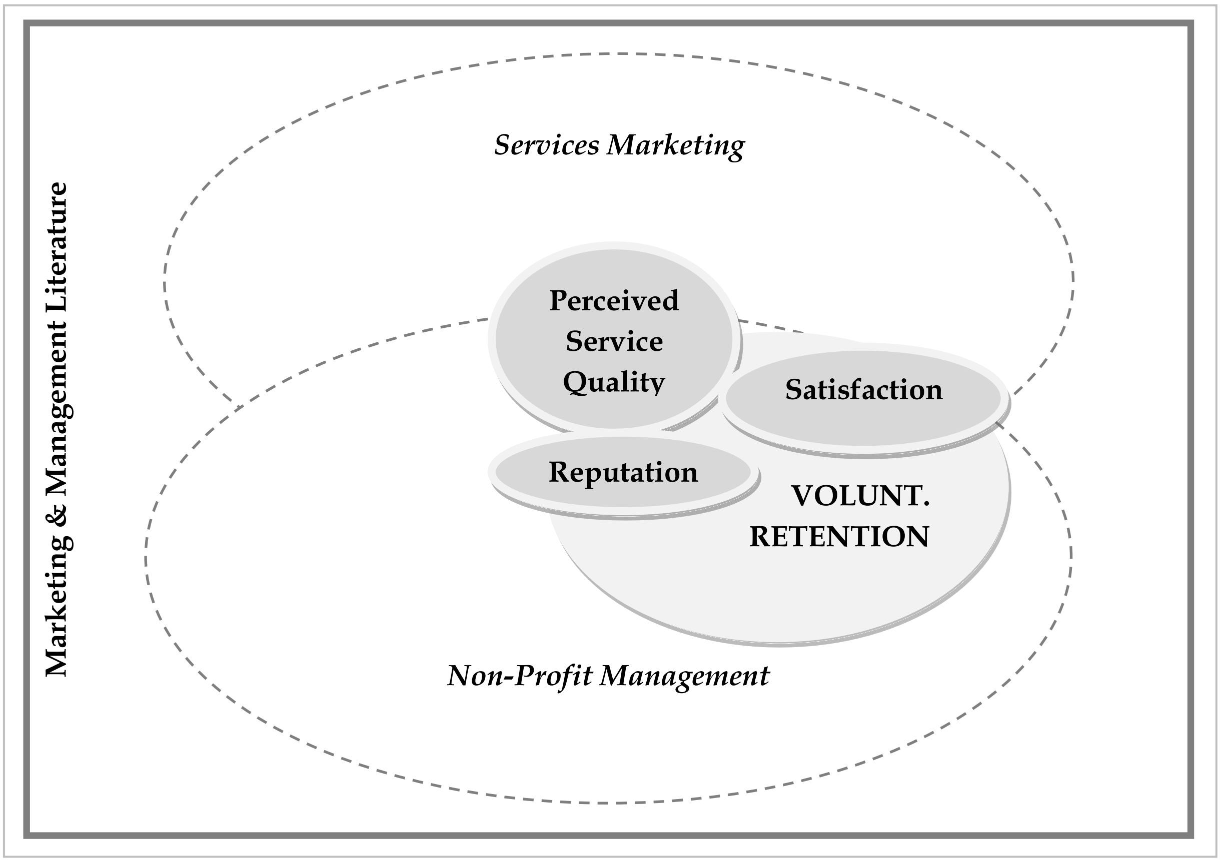

Figure 4: Systematic illustration of the literature and research areas
Source: Author's own illustration.

Relevant journals range in the fields of Marketing, Non-Profit Management as well as Psychology and Sociology. Especially, the journals dedicated to non-profit management are meaningful in this context. Literature termed as church marketing or management journals mingle between both, the non-profit management as well as marketing category of literature and hence do not create a completely new set of literature. The research databases EBSCO, Scopus, Web of Science and Google Scholar were used to find relevant articles, which were selected, based on title, abstract and ranking of the journals.

Perceived service quality

Conceptualization of perceived service quality

The importance of perceived service quality arises from the fact that it has been increasingly identified as a key factor in building and maintaining successful relationships (Svensson, 2006) and competitive advantage (Santos & Mathews, 2001). However, while much research has been undertaken in different industries (Santos & Mathews, 2001), academia is still concerned with the proper assessment of perceived service quality (Cronin, 2003). While the first appearance of the service quality construct dates back to the 1960s (Donabedian, 1966) most of the profound investigation of service quality and the development of multidimensional measurement emerged in the 80s (Lehtinen & Lehtinen, 1991; Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman et al., 1988). A more recent review of service quality models by Seth et al. (2005) highlights the various abstractions of the service quality construct (Cronin, 2003; Dabholkar et al., 1996; Santos & Mathews, 2001; Santos, 2003). For detailed discussion on the different service quality models refer to the original article and the summarizing review by Seth et al. (2005). Among others, the authors highlight the most prevalent models – 'technical and functional quality model' also known as the 'Nordic School' (Grönroos, 1984), SERVQUAL referred to as 'American School' (Parasuraman et al., 1985, Parasuraman et al., 1988), and SERVPERF by Cronin and Taylor (1992) – and summarize their characteristics. Drawing on the pioneering work by (Grönroos, 1984) who identified service quality as a three dimensional model – 'technical quality' (outcome), 'functional quality' (process), and 'firm's image' (mediator) – Parasuraman et al. (1985) conceptualized service quality as a gap between consumers' expectations and perceptions and proposed the well-known SERVQUAL model (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2007). However, their contribution has not gone unchallenged. The controversial discussion of the SERVQUAL instrument, which extends to the present, has centred criticism with regard to its paradigmatic foundation, its convergent and discriminant validity, the use of difference scores and the use of negatively phrased items (Carman, 1990; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Especially, the latter bring forth the discourse on the SERVQUAL instrument. While it has been broadly applied (Woo & Ennew, 2005), different authors – i.e. Brady and Cronin (2001) as well as Carman (1990) – have pointed to the nonspecific nature of SERVQUAL's five dimensions (i.e. assurance, reliability, responsiveness, tangibility, and empathy) which restricts its utility. Moreover, general discussion on the assessment of service quality is taking place, too. Particularly, researchers' opinion varied with regard to conceptualization and measurement of service quality perceptions (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Svensson, 2006). Edvardsson (2005), for example, argues perceived service quality to be more than the outcome of cognitive assessment. Especially, the author stresses service experience and the customers' emotions to be of importance. Moreover, Cronin (2003) criticizes the omission of the traditional attitude-based models of consumer decision-making and proposes a broadened view on service quality. While there has been significant development on how perceived service quality should be measured, only slight progress on the dimensionality has been made (Brady & Cronin, 2001). More or less, scholars draw on either Grönroos' (1984) functional und technical quality or SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988) while consensus has not reached as to which, if either, is the more appropriate approach. The controversy, while both perspectives highlight important aspects of service quality, lies in the fact that the former defines service quality by overall categorical terms, whereas the latter draws on descriptive terms. Thus, neither fully captures the construct (Brady & Cronin, 2001). Recent results of the recent discourse provide better information on how customers conceptualize, perceive, and evaluate service delivery, as well as how these factors impact purchase behaviour (Brady et al., 2005). However, while there is agreement that the concept of perceived service quality is based on multiple dimensions there is still incongruity as to the nature or content of the dimensions (Brady & Cronin, 2001). Apparently, service quality evaluations are highly complex processes that may operate at several levels of abstraction (Carman, 1990). To encompass the shortcomings of each individual conceptualization, Brady and Cronin (2001) attempted to integrate them and provided empirical evidence for a multidimensional, hierarchical conceptualization of perceived service quality (Figure 5). Their model suggests and proves that individuals form their quality perception as they evaluate performance at multiple levels – three primary dimensions (interaction, environment, and outcome) with three sub-dimensions each – and ultimately combine these evaluations to arrive at an overall service quality perception (Brady & Cronin, 2001).

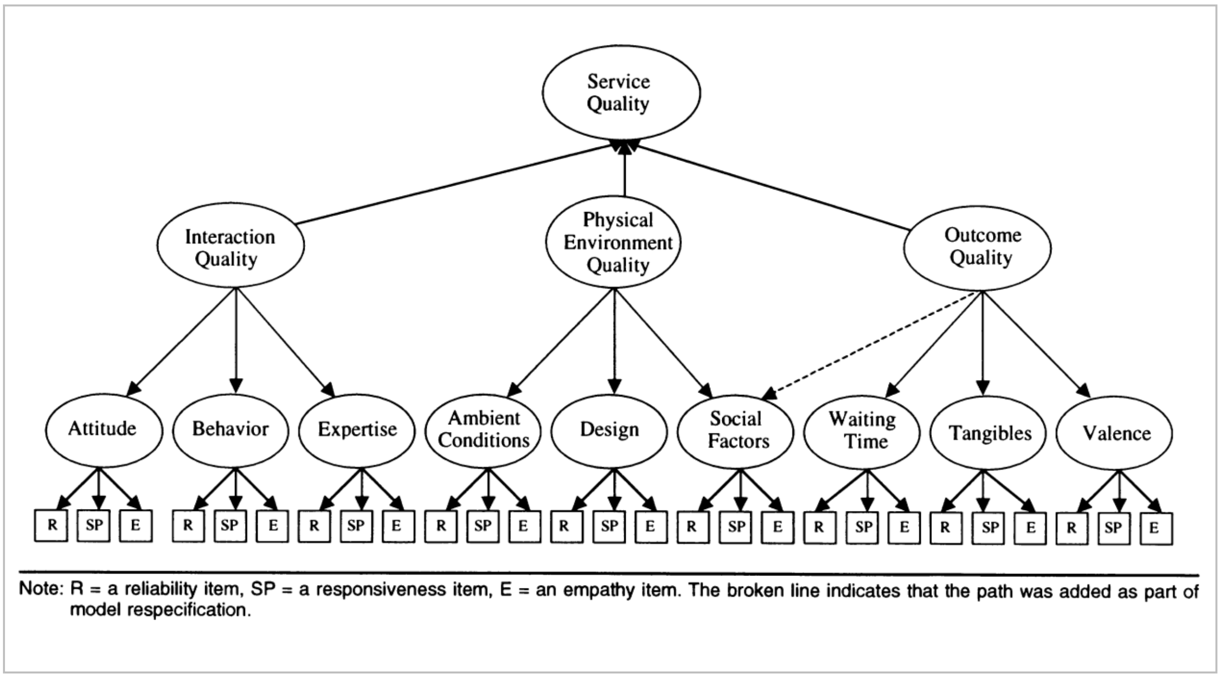

Figure 5: Hierarchical perceived service quality model
Source: (Brady & Cronin, 2001)

In addition, the hierarchical model repositions the SERVQUAL's five-factor structure (Parasuraman et al., 1985) – now nine sub-dimensions. Three dimensions of the SERVQUAL model – reliability, responsiveness, and empathy – serve as descriptors of the nine sub-dimensions rather than as direct determinants of service quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001). This is in line with Dabholkar et al.(2000) who argue that it is better to consider factor associated with service quality – such as reliability and responsiveness – as being antecedents to perceived service quality rather than components of the construct. In particular, *reliability* (R) refers to the ability to perform elements of the service as promised. For instance, this is more relevant when the process itself is of more intangible nature or targeted at belongings of the customers (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2007). *Responsiveness* (SP) is associated with the willingness to help customers and provide prompt services (Parasuraman et al., 1985). *Empathy* (E) reflects how a service provider cares and gives individualized attention to its customers, including access, communication and understanding of customers' needs. This is especially important in services where input from customers and their presence is high (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2007). Thus, the reliability, responsiveness, and empathy variables serve as descriptors of the nine sub-dimensions (Brady & Cronin, 2001). Assurance, as a dimension of SERVQUAL, was eliminated after factor analysis since it has been found to load on several different factors depending on the industry context (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Carman, 1990; Dabholkar et al., 2000; McDougall & Levesque, 1995). The tangibles dimension of the SERVQUAL model is included as a sub-dimension of outcome quality rather than a descriptor since customers use tangibles as a proxy for evaluating service outcomes (Brady & Cronin, 2001; McDougall & Levesque, 1995).

Not only does the conceptualization add to the strength of the authors' model, but also its managerial implications, especially its' potential to discriminate dimensions, evaluation at different levels, and the importance of sub-dimensions. Thus, it enables managers to track performance and segment customers across those sub-dimensions (Brady & Cronin, 2001). For instance, the authors provide evidence that delivering reliable, responsive, and empathetic service is related to improved service quality perceptions. While Chowdhary (2002) suggests that generalizations are difficult to make because of the variable nature of services (i.e. labour intensity, industry), the author provides evidence for the relative importance of dimension: empathy and responsiveness - for labour intensive industry - and reliability – for capital-intensive services - affected the evaluation of quality dimensions (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2007).

Antecedents and consequences of perceived service quality

In view of the discussion about the measurement of service quality, as reflected in the conceptualization above, the hierarchical model (Figure 5) by Brady and Cronin (2001) appears to be most adequately. It reflects the need for a measurement approach, which on one hand is precise enough to capture perceived service quality, but on the other hand provides opportunity to be applicable in different context, such as the non-profit church context. The hierarchical model comprises the three main dimensions – Interaction Quality (IQ), Physical Evidence Quality (PQ), and Outcome Quality (OQ) – which together combine into the overall perceived service quality (PSQ) (Brady & Cronin, 2001).

Interaction Quality incorporates interpersonal interactions that take place during service delivery between service employees and customers (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). They are considered an essential part of customers' perception of service quality (Bitner, 1990; Gwinner et al., 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1985). Interaction quality includes *attitude* (AT), *behaviour*s (BE), and *expertise* (EX) of the service employee (Grönroos, 2007). Bitner (1990), for instance, suggests attitudes and behaviour of service employees impacts consumer perceptions of quality. Similarly, Bitner et al. (1990) divide the provider-customer contact into attitude, actions, and skills. The overall importance of interaction quality is also reflected in the recent research on emotional contagion and emotional labour: Employees, who show authentic emotion in the interpersonal interaction, differentially influence the customer experience during service encounters and thus influence customers' perceptions and evaluations of the service (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997). During the service experience, various types of emotions can be elicited which convey important information on how the customer will eventually evaluate the service quality (Wong, 2004).

H_{1a}: Perceptions of the quality of interactions (IQ) directly contribute to service quality perceptions (PSQ).

H_{1b}: Perceptions of co-volunteer attitudes (AT) directly influence the quality of interactions (IQ).

H_{1c}: Perceptions of co-volunteer behaviors (BE) directly influence the quality of interactions (IQ).

H_{1d}: Perceptions about co-volunteers' expertise (EX) directly influence the quality of interactions (IQ).

The **Physical Evidence Quality** considers the influence of the physical or tangible environment on customer service evaluations (Bitner, 1990; Baker et al., 1994; Spangenberg et al., 1996). Physical facilities are said to can have a significant influence on perceptions of the overall quality of the service encounter (Baker et al., 1994; Baker et al., 2002; Crane & Clarke, 1988; Reimer & Kuehn, 2005) because intangibility of services often requires customers to be physically present during provision, the surrounding environment (Bitner, 1992). Moreover, because the tangible environment provides clues about the quality (Baker, 1998) the physical environment is not only a direct indicator for the service quality, but also indirectly influences the evaluation of the intangible dimensions (Reimer & Kuehn, 2005). Servicescape, widely applied term to describe the physical surroundings of a service provider, includes ambient conditions – i.e. temperature, noise, odour – and tangibles related to the servicescape – i.e. brochures, uniforms – and the exterior and interior design of the facilities – i.e. functionality or pleasing architecture of the buildings (Bitner, 1992; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Parish et al., 2008). The design of facilities relates to the different types building related to a church (i.e. churches, parish halls, auditoriums and adjunct buildings). This is in line with (Brady & Cronin, 2001) who found *ambient conditions* (AC), facility *design* (DE), and *social factors* (SF) to be sub-dimensions of physical evidence quality. The last factor, social conditions, refers to the influence number and type of people and their behaviour (Aubert-Gamet & Cova, 1999; Grove & Fisk, 1997). Additionally, social conditions seem to be evident in view of customer's emotions. In the same way as employees might influence customers' perceptions and evaluations of the service also other individuals present in the service environment might do (Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Edvardsson, 2005).

H_{1e}: Perceptions of the physical evidence quality (PQ) directly contribute to service quality perceptions (PSQ).

H_{1f}: Perceptions of ambient conditions (AC) in the facility directly influence physical evidence quality (PQ).

H_{1g}: Perceptions of the facility design (DE) directly influences physical evidence quality (PQ).

H_{1h}: Perceptions of the social factors (SF) directly influence physical evidence quality (PQ).

What is referred to as **Outcome Quality** is the result of the service process. Grönroos (1984) terms the outcome as 'technical service' and defines it as what the customer gets after the service production and delivery process was performed. There is agreement that the technical quality of a service encounter influences customer perceptions of service (Carman, 2000; Grönroos, 1984, Grönroos, 1990; de Ruyter & Wetzels, 1998). Moreover, there is a logical pragmatic reason to expect outcome quality to affect the overall quality perception (Brady & Cronin, 2001). As the first-order dimension for outcome quality, the authors identified *waiting time* (WT), *tangibles* (TA), and *valence* (VA). Recent research on time suggests that speed of service is linked to perceived service quality (Shamdasani et al., 2008) while perception of time – referred to as time consciousness – is dependent on individual characteristics of a person (Kleijnen et al., 2007). To reduce service delivery time, some people prefer to perform parts of the service themselves (Lovelock & Young, 1979) since unoccupied time feels longer than occupied time (Maister, 1986) which in turn influence the perception of the overall service. This is in line with Brady and Cronin (2001) who provide evidence that waiting time impacts outcome quality perceptions. Thus waiting time is an important predictor of service outcome quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Houston et al., 1998). *Tangibles* include all physical elements in the service experience. Theory confirms that customers use any tangible evidence of the service outcome – i.e. the meal in a restaurant or the annual financial statement provided by an accountant – as a proxy for judging performance (Hurley & Estelami, 1998; Shostack, 1977; Zeithaml et al., 1985). Since the tangibles quality is assessable, they do not only contribute to quality assessment directly but also provide cues for the quality of other intangible parts (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Reimer & Kuehn, 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985). V*alence* captures attributes that control whether customers believe the service outcome is good or bad, regardless of their evaluation of any other aspect of the experience. The rational for the inclusion is that service quality is similar to an attitude (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1985). Inclusion of valence goes along with Cronin's (2003) claim that service quality evaluation for long time omitted the attitudinal aspect. Valence reflects the degree to which the object of interest is considered favourable or unfavourable (Mazis et al., 1975). This means that the customer may have a positive perception of each service quality dimension, but the negative valence of the outcome can ultimately lead to an unfavourable service experience. For instance, an airline passenger may be dissatisfied with his flight due to a blizzard while the airline let the passenger with a good impression about quality in all other dimensions.

H_{1i}: The quality of service outcome (OQ) directly contributes to perceived service quality (PSQ).

H_{1j}: Perceptions of waiting time (WT) directly influence the quality of the service outcome (OQ).

H_{1k}: Perceptions of the tangible evidenced (TA) directly influence the quality of the service outcome (OQ).

H_{1l}: The valence (VA) of the service encounter directly influences the quality of the service outcome (OQ).

Increased importance of volunteer work has led to extensive research on the dynamics of attracting and keeping volunteers. However, there is a lack of clear evidence for the causality between drivers and the outcome to start and to maintain volunteering (Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). The most important outcome with regard to volunteering is the **retention** of volunteer workers (Hager & Brudney, 2004). Different studies have been conducted to examine the postulated relation between service quality and more specific behavioural intentions. For instance, there exists a positive correlation between service quality and behavioural intentions, such as repurchase intentions and willingness to recommend (Boulding et al., 1993). Theory and empirical evidence support an antecedent link to behavioural intentions from service quality (Brady et al., 2005; Fornell et al., 1996; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Retention could be seen as a behavioural intention such as loyalty towards the organisation (Wisner et al., 2005). In view of these findings, it is proposed that:

H_2: **Perceived service quality** (PSQ) is positively associated with volunteer **retention** (RET).

Volunteer satisfaction

Conceptualization of volunteer satisfaction

According to Locke (1969), job satisfaction is a pleasing emotional condition resulting from the evaluation how a specific job of an individual worker serves him- or herself to achieve job-related values. Thus, job satisfaction includes job characteristics and the working environment (Churchill et al, 1974). Operationally, job satisfaction covers different dimensions comprising satisfaction with the supervision, the work itself, opportunities for career advancement, co-workers and customers, and financial reward (Brown & Peterson, 1993). With regard to the results of job satisfaction, Churchill et al. (1985) stress – however limited to the context of salespeople – job satisfaction to be closely related to the employee's behaviour. Relational similarities are likely to occur with workers in the service context, in general (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996) because employee's behavioural performance often is the service itself as perceived by the customer (Bitner, 1990). Hence, as employees interact with customers, more satisfied employees are likely to engage in behaviours that satisfy customers (Locke & Latham, 1990; Weatherly & Tansik, 1993). Likewise, other authors provide evidence for job satisfaction to be the most important driver of good service delivery (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Schneider, 1980). Thus, different authors support the fact that satisfied employees engage in behaviour that is positive for those they work and as a result beneficial to the organisation they work for. Moreover, Seashore and Taber (1975) as well as Spector (1985) report job satisfaction to correlate with turnover and withdrawal behaviour, two important managerial outcomes.

While job satisfaction in the for-profit sector has been broadly under research the same is not true in volunteer settings (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Wisner et al. (2005) as well as Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) argue that lessons can be drawn from for-profit models for employee loyalty. However, while there are similarities in the work experiences of all workers – either paid or unpaid – these similarities alone are insufficient to justify an assumption job satisfaction to operate similarly in employee and volunteer work settings (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). For an extensive discussion of the differences between paid and unpaid work in relation to job satisfaction I point to Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001). Especially, Gidron (1985) notes to consider relevance of for-profit concepts in the context of volunteer work. Thus, (Wisner et al., 2005) carefully limit their definition of volunteers to the extent that volunteers can be viewed as unpaid employees in fact that volunteers do not engage in the traditional exchange of service for compensation. This definition of volunteers as service employees is in line with the definition of service as "doing something for someone" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Additionally, Handy (1990) distinguishes volunteering activities with regard to the organisational context as service delivery, mutual support, and campaigning or cause specific. Likewise, Geroy et al. (2000) group volunteer activities along the industry the organisations operate in; thus also referring to the service industry.

As organisations, particularly in the non-profit sector, are concerned about retaining volunteers, there is a strong need to evaluate volunteers' satisfaction (Finkelstein, 2008). Investigating dimension of volunteer job satisfaction is crucial since satisfaction increases the possibility to predict retention-related results, i.e. turnover. This is even more important in the volunteer than in the for-profit context as volunteer organisations have limited resources while volunteer turnover puts a strain on the organisations resources to recruit and train new volunteers (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Hence, it is important to investigate satisfaction since low levels of volunteer job satisfaction are key determinants of volunteers' decisions to remain or withdraw from his or her work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Miller et al., 1990; Garner & Garner, 2010; Wisner et al., 2005). In contrast, to regard satisfaction from a positive point of view, in the same way as a paid employee's loyalty increases over time, volunteers also tend to be more committed to an organisation they serve for (Finkelstein, 2008; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Wisner et al., 2005). For instance, Davis et al. (1999) prove that satisfaction with volunteer work itself is the main reason for involvement, both in terms of the amount of time regularly dedicated to it and continuing volunteer work. Furthermore, individuals continue to volunteer because they value the volunteering experience and count them as a reward which they want to maintain and extend (Gidron, 1985).

Antecedents and consequences of volunteer satisfaction

While volunteer satisfaction has been under research since more than two decades, literature reflects no consistency in the measurement of volunteer job satisfaction. For this study, I draw not on the conceptualization by Wisner et al. (2005). The authors focus on volunteer organisations as service deliverers, which is in line with the service marketing lens of this thesis. More precisely Wisner et al. (2005) take the typical and widely applied service-profit-chain (Heskett et al., 1997) and adapt it to the non-profit context. Thus, they consider the specificity of volunteers' motivations, skill levels, and availability in order to understand what factors contribute to volunteer satisfaction (Wisner et al., 2005). While there are different options to conceptualize volunteer satisfaction, the existing body of literature on volunteer job satisfaction shows five themes consistent to be included: communication quality – i.e. adequate flow of information, information clarity, recognition, and feedback (Cyr & Dowrick, 1991; Field & Johnson, 1993; Pardis & Usui, 1989; Stevens, 1991), work assignment – i.e. scheduling convenience (Miller et al., 1990) and opportunity to develop abilities and skills (Gidron, 1983), participation efficacy – i.e. volunteers want to be sure that their work benefits someone other than themselves (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Wharton, 1991), support – i.e. training (Ozminkowsk et al., 1990) and encouragement (Cyr & Dowrick, 1991), and group integration – i.e. relationships with other volunteers and paid staff (Field & Johnson, 1993; Stevens, 1991). Those themes are also reflected in the conceptualization of Wisner et al. (2005) even though they are not labelled the same way and are sorted differently. Hence, the following section enfolds the presentation of antecedents (Figure 6) of volunteer satisfaction. Furthermore, the direct consequence of volunteer satisfaction towards retention is presented while the mediated relationship of satisfaction through reputation is discussed in the section on reputation.

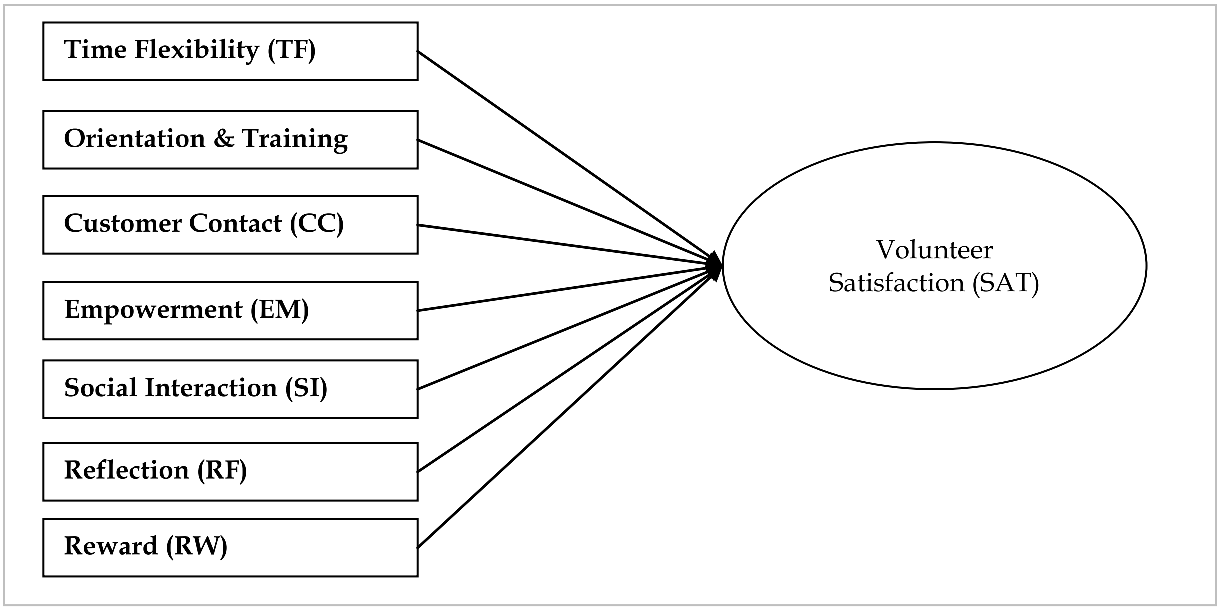

Figure 6: Antecedents of volunteer satisfaction
Source: Author's own illustration.

People derive value from efficient and timely consumption of time by activities (Becker & Mulligan, 1997; Childers et al., 2001), hence time represents peoples most scarce and least replaceable asset (Kleijnen et al., 2007). Moreover, as volunteers are a heterogeneous group with regard to much of socio-demographic variables – i.e. age, working status, and availability – the individual's volunteer time is usually determined by the need to find a match of the volunteer's activities with the need of volunteer time by the organisation. For instance, professionals who engage as volunteers contribute less when time demands of both volunteer work and other activates, especially professional work, conflict (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). Thus, **Time Flexibility (TF)** is needed to accommodate volunteers' schedule preferences and time limitations to the extent possible (Wisner et al., 2005). The general claim that volunteer workers need flexibility to schedule their time is related to the perception of time: the higher the time consciousness of an individual the more the person is concerned with time planning (Kleijnen et al., 2007) because time planning implies control. Hence, people who are conscious of the way they spend their time want to have an influence over the amount of time they spend for a specific activity (Roulac, 1994). For instance, Miller et al. (1990) found that scheduling convenience had a direct effect on turnover.

Orientation and Training (OT) comprises activities such as introducing volunteers to co-workers – either volunteers or paid staff – providing guidance as to the workflows in the organisation, and training specific skills and knowledge (Wisner et al., 2005). Thus, orientation and training serves the organisation to ensure service capabilities of its volunteers to prioritize according to the organisations goals, fulfil activities and achieve the organisation's mission (Fox & Wheeler, 2002; Heskett et al., 1997). Qualitative inquiry indicated training to be especially significant in non-profit organisations as it helps volunteers to gain confidence in their skills and to understand the fit of their work in accomplishing the goals of the NPO thus reducing turnover (Wisner et al., 2005). Moreover, Ozminkowsk et al. (1990) and Gidron (1983) found that volunteers who got an opportunity to develop abilities and skills were more satisfied with the volunteer experience.

Customer Contact (CC) refers to the direct interaction of volunteer workers with clients of an organisation (Wisner et al., 2005). Service research suggests that interaction between service employees and customers is considered to be essential part to customers' evaluation of services quality and the relationship to the provider (Bitner, 1990; Gwinner et al., 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1985). Emotions are often central to service encounters where direct interaction with customers takes place (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). For instance, the research on emotional contagion – defined as the flow of emotions from one person to another, with the receiver picking up the emotions that the sender displays (Schoenewolf, 1990) – accounts for the notion that direct contact is important for volunteers, too, since direct interaction provides opportunity to have impact on his or her counterpart. Thus, in line with Wisner et al. (2005), volunteers highly appreciate the opportunity to have direct contact with those they serve as volunteers. Wharton (1991), for instance, confirms that volunteers who felt to be unimportant to the population they served were not satisfied.

While training is concerned with the provision of skills and knowledge to ensure quality service, **Empowerment (EM)** is presented as a way of increasing flexible behaviour of those in direct contact with customers to respond to customer's needs (Chebat & Kollias, 2000). In this vein, empowerment and training are strongly intertwined because training provides tools and skills to act in an empowered way (Zeithaml et al., 2009). Thus, empowerment is granting authority to make decisions to those in direct customer contact but also – and this is equally important – to provide incentives to encourage service personnel to provide adequate service for the individual customers (Grönroos, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 2009). Benefits to empowering service workers are among others increased job satisfaction (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Chebat & Kollias, 2000) which has been associated with task autonomy (Brown & Peterson, 1993) and decision-making latitude (Westman, 1992). Moreover, empowerment according to Bowen and Lawler (1992) is helpful in service environments relying on long-term relationships, tasks are non-routine and social needs and interpersonal skills are of importance. In the context of volunteers, Wisner et al. (2005) report that volunteer workers positively react to empowerment as they want to be sure that their contributions and skills – in absence of monetary compensation – are appreciated by the organisation. As a result, those who exercise their job in an empowered way are more satisfied with their job.

Volunteers often seek to satisfy social needs through **Social Interaction (SI)** with other volunteers (Davis et al., 1999; Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). Thus, serving as a volunteer is both serving others and to serve the own need for social interaction (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). Generally, social interaction could be formal – i.e. eating together, social events – and informal. Informal social interaction occurs randomly but is enabled by the job design – i.e. team and group work, assignments involving more than one person – of serving opportunities (Fox & Wheeler, 2002). However, volunteers appreciated the opportunity to socialize while serving as a volunteer; hence, they do not require formal interactions (Wisner et al., 2005). More importantly, the authors found out that this was the case even if a special task could be fulfilled well individually. This is in line with Fox and Wheeler (2002) who point to social interaction as a predictor that increases volunteer satisfaction. For instance, volunteers indicated they were more satisfied when they had contact with other volunteers and staff (Field & Johnson, 1993; Stevens, 1991). Moreover, volunteers need emotional support from other members – either paid or unpaid – of the organisation (Cyr & Dowrick, 1991).

Reflection (RF), in general, is a means to foster people to think and ask questions about what they experience (Silcox, 1993). The intention is to gain and apply new perspectives and to change behaviour (Gibboney, 1996). Thus, reflection as a means of learning from the own past experiences helps to develop a person's skills and personality (Silcox, 1993). Nunn (2002) points out that in the volunteer or work context are formally institutionalized opportunities to reflect on the own work and the organisation. Thus, the author stresses reflection to be related to issues concerned with the work experience. In addition, reflection enables volunteers to incorporate their experiences with their knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs and to connect with the organisation's mission (Wisner et al., 2005). Reflection is similar to what is labelled feedback by Cyr and Dowrick (1991), Field and Johnson (1993), as well as Stevens (1991) and accounts for the need of volunteers to be involved in quality communication (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Although volunteers do not receive paycheck for their work and the volunteering activity itself intrinsically is a personal reward (Guseh & Winders, 2002), **Rewards (RW)** serve as recognition for their work (Fox & Wheeler, 2002). Non-financial rewards that recognize the contributions of the volunteers provide a strong signal on behalf of the organisation to affirm the value volunteers' contribution to the organisation's goal (Wisner et al., 2005). Hence, rewards are positively associated with volunteer satisfaction (Fox & Wheeler, 2002). As a part of what Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) refer to as quality communication, volunteers want to get informal recognition for their volunteer work (Stevens, 1991).

Given the discussion on the antecedents of volunteer satisfaction it is likely that volunteers will be satisfied with their volunteer work when they perceive a favourable volunteering setting with regard to the antecedents which reflects in the following hypothesis

H_{3a}: Time Flexibility (TF) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3b}: Orientation and Training (OT) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3c}: Customer Contact (CC) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3d}: Empowerment (EM) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3e}: Social Interaction (SI) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3f}: Reflection (RF) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

H_{3g}: Reward (RW) is positively associated with volunteer's satisfaction (SAT).

Job satisfaction is important to discuss in terms of its influence on specific outcomes. The most important outcome with regard to volunteer workforce is the intent to remain (or loyalty). Turnover and withdrawal behaviour, retention-related outcomes have been consistently found to be an inversely related of job satisfaction (Miller et al., 1990; Seashore & Taber, 1975; Spector, 1985). Moreover, theory and empirical evidence support an antecedent link to behavioural intentions from satisfaction (Brady et al., 2005; Fornell et al., 1996; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Hence, I hypothesize for the relationship between volunteer job satisfaction and his or her retention in volunteer activity

> H_4: Volunteer's **satisfaction** (SAT) is positively related to volunteer's **retention** (RET).

Organisational reputation

Conceptualization of organisational reputation

A strong organisational reputation, generally understood as its overall evaluation by its various stakeholders (Fombrun, 1996), has been shown to be associated with favourable financial as well as non-monetary results (Caruana, 2002; Rose & Thomsen, 2004; Shapiro, 1983). This is due to the effects that reputation – comprising brands and images – has on stakeholders' perception and evaluation of an organisation (Riel & Fombrun, 2007). Thus, academics and practitioners stress to consider reputation as significant as operational and financial aspects (Jones et al., 2000). For example, Herman (1990) proposes to regard reputation as an organisational performance objective along with fund acquisition and client satisfaction. While reputation has been under study in the management and marketing, there are limitations to what is known about the concept (Walsh et al., 2009). Discussion and available measurement approaches for reputation almost solely concentrate on for-profit rather than on non-profit contexts (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). Moreover, Walsh et al. (2009) argue that, while much of the previous work has been undertaken in manufacturing business, reputation is more important for the service context. This is because reputation provides a proxy to evaluate elements of services where direct assessment of service quality is difficult due to service's nature – especially intangibility (Boomley, 2001; Hardaker & Fill, 2005; Wang et al., 2003). Moreover, due to the co-production and interpersonal interaction with organisational members in the services delivery process, customer's interaction is higher in services. Thus, organisational reputation, conceptualized as an attitude resulting from interaction with the organisation, is of much importance in the service context (Walsh et al., 2009). Additionally, most previous research on organisational reputation has focused on multiple stakeholder groups rather on one specific group. Hence, existing empirical work tend to neglected antecedents of reputation that are associated for example with volunteers (Walsh et al., 2009).

Organisational reputation, image and organisational identity being different concepts are often confounded with each other because they are considered as strongly related yet distinct concepts (Balmer, 2001; Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001b; Walsh et al., 2009). To entangle this confusion it is helpful to regard the concepts of identity, image, and reputation as different expressions of associations – a general label for an individual's information about an organisation (Berens et al., 2005; Brown & Dacin, 1997). Following Brown et al. (2006), I distinguish these three related mental associations about the organisation by the fact that reputation is the impression held by individuals outside the organisation while image and identity are located with organisational members. Thus, the primary difference appears to be in who is doing the evaluation of the organisation (Walsh et al., 2009). As most scholars have addressed dimensions such as social and environmental responsibility or reliability of service delivery, reputation appears to rely heavily on perception of individuals (Walsh et al., 2009). Additionally, Roberts and Dowling (2002) emphasize the significance of relationship between an individual and the organisation determining the reputation a person holds. Thus, reputation is a cumulative judgment of an organisation's historical actions over time (Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001b). The diversity in definitions of reputation reflects also in its measurement. While some researchers have conceptualized and measured reputation in a unidimensional construct, more sophisticated notion of corporate reputation as a multidimensional construct has emerged more recently (Walsh et al., 2009). Representing those advocating for a multidimensional construct, Fombrun et al. (2000) characterize reputation as collective assessment of different dimension reflecting an organisation's ability to provide valued outcomes to individuals. I follow this approach by viewing reputation as a multidimensional construct. Especially, reputation according to Walsh and Beatty (2007) is an overall evaluation of an organisation based on reactions to provided goods, services, communication activities, and interactions with the organisation itself as well as its representatives, i.e. employees, management. Equally, empirical research, has revealed factor structures that closely resemble the theory-based conceptualization discussed above (Schwaiger, 2004; Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010; Walsh ,& Beatty, 2007) which were evaluated in a cross-cultural context, too (Walsh et al., 2009; Eberl & Schwaiger, 2005; Zhang & Schwaiger, 2009).

While there are several more or less scientific rankings and ratings that evaluate trustworthiness of NPOs, none of these approaches explicitly considers the organisation's reputation (Riel & Fombrun, 2007). The first notable attempt to measure reputation in the NPO context by Bennett and Gabriel (2003) is criticized because of its approach to measure reputation which assumed reflective measured constructs (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). In line with the outlined approach towards reputation is the definition of reputation in the non-profit context by Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010). The authors follow the general view of multidimensionality conceptualizing NPO reputation as an attitudinal construct comprising affective and cognitive component. Especially, the authors mention that reputation denotes an emotional and cognition based mindset. Thus, it helps to include the emotional component in evaluation of services Edvardsson (2005) is demanding for. Moreover, the impact of reputation on consumer behaviour is to help to maintain a loyal relationship (Yoon et al., 1993; Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001) which is in line with the aim to retain volunteers (Leete, 2006). Among other authors, Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010) note that quality is a driver construct of reputation (Roberts & Dowling, 2002; Rose & Thomsen, 2004; Wang et al., 2003; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Furthermore, reputation communicates quality of a service or product (Yoon et al., 1993) and includes aspects such as identification and retention as direct experiences with an organisation (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). Thus, organisational reputation functions as an antecedent as well as a consequence of other variables (Walsh et al., 2009). While the majority of researchers regards reputation as independent (i.e. Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Helm et al., 2010; Walsh et al., 2006), some researchers treat it as an outcome variable (i.e. Wang et al., 2003). While sometimes there is a potential of reverse causality – i.e. higher performance leads to good reputation, which in turn enhances the likelihood of performing well in the future (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990) – I make the assumption that positive perception of an organisation positively impacts the public's attitude, actions and behaviour towards that organisation. Hence, Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010) conceptualize NPO reputation as an attitudinal construct comprising an affective and cognitive dimension as presented in Appendix 1. Affective judgments, reflected in the *likeability* dimension, include emotional attitudes towards an organisation like identification and retention. *Competence* comprises the cognitive evaluations and attitudes towards an organisation. It is measured by recognition and performance (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010).

Antecedents and consequences of organisational reputation

Along the following lines, I develop the hypotheses related to the antecedents – perceived service quality and satisfaction of volunteers – and consequences – volunteer retention – of reputation:

From this theoretical perspective, perceived quality is said to be an important driver construct of NPO reputation (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010; Schwaiger, 2004). This is because reputation – in absence of direct quality indicators - provides a substitute to assess quality, which is foremost, the case for services nature (Boomley, 2001; Hardaker & Fill, 2005; Wang et al., 2003). Likewise, reputation may serve as a quality promise (Walsh et al., 2009). Thus, reputation communicates quality of a service or product (Roberts & Dowling, 2002; Rose & Thomsen, 2004; Wang et al., 2003; Walsh & Beatty, 2007; Yoon et al., 1993). Given the previous research, it is likely that volunteers will attribute a good reputation to an organisation that meets or exceeds their expectations of quality. Hence, I hypothesize that

> H_5: Volunteer's **perceived service quality** (PSQ) has a positive effect on organisational **reputation** (REP).

The relationship of satisfaction and organisational reputation has been examined before (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). Research has identified two key antecedents of reputation: an individual's evaluations of an organisation's actions – as captured in satisfaction – and what is known about this organisation (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). For instance, Walsh et al. (2009) demonstrated that a positive reputation and satisfaction are associated. In particular, Nguyen and Leblanc (2001a) stress reputation to be an effective predictor and can be considered a very reliable indicator of the ability of a service organisation to satisfy an individual's desires. In line with the presented relation between satisfaction and reputation, it is likely that volunteers will attribute a good reputation to satisfaction with the organisation that fits or surpasses their expectations. I therefore hypothesize that

> H_6: Volunteer **satisfaction** (SAT) has a positive effect on organisational **reputation** (REP).

(Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001b) argue that it is insufficient to measure loyalty, such as retention, only by behavioural constructs. Moreover, loyalty is to great extend affected by the relative strength of the interrelation between behaviour and attitude (Dick & Basu, 1994). Recent empirical studies have attempted to link perceived reputation with loyalty (Walsh & Wiedemann, 2004). For example, reputation has an indirect impact on customer's retention (Andreasen & Lindestad, 1998; Barich & Kotler, 1991). Moreover, Dick and Basu (1994), Nguyen and Leblanc (2001b), and Yoon et al. (1993) also refer to the direct effect of reputation on an outcome such as loyalty or retention. This is in line with Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010) who confirm NPO reputation to include retention as a behavioural outcome in direct experiences with an organisation. Thus, I propose the hypotheses that

> H_7: Organisational **reputation** (REP) has a positive effect on volunteer **retention** (RET).

Altruistic motivation

Since volunteers do not engage in the exchange of work for monetary compensation, altruistic motivations play an important role for volunteer involvement of individuals (Wisner et al., 2005; Rehberg, 2005; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Guseh & Winders, 2002). Frequently altruistic motives are rooted in religious tradition and belief systems (Rehberg, 2005). However, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) note altruism to have influence only on the initial decision to volunteer but not on the decision to continue. This is in line with empirical work by Wisner et al. (2005) who found the relation between altruistic motivation and intent to remain not to be significant. Neither was it a significant predictor of volunteer satisfaction (Wisner et al., 2005). In view of the discrepancy on the effect of altruistic motivation (AM) on volunteer retention, I include the construct as a control variable.

Denominational differences

Cantrell et al. (1983) suggest that different denominational structures have impact on church activity. The authors propose three-dimensional scales to measure local – legal, clerical, and budgetary – autonomy of a congregation. Autonomy is defined as the ability to take independent actions (Pearce et al., 2010) and positively associated with volunteer retention (Boezeman et al., 2009). While the proposed measures by Cantrell et al. (1983) for autonomy takes place on a congregational level, the empowerment construct used to predict volunteer satisfaction (Wisner et al., 2005) assesses the level of empowerment as perceived by the individual volunteer. Since Jambulingam et al. (2005) points to the fact that greater congregational autonomy may be reflected in increased empowerment of members, I think that autonomy reflected in the empowerment construct is more appropriate to assess the individual's intent to remain volunteering.

Figure 7 postulates the structural model incorporating the relationships among the constructs. Hypotheses associate a positive relation among the constructs, which is outlined for each construct in the preceding section.

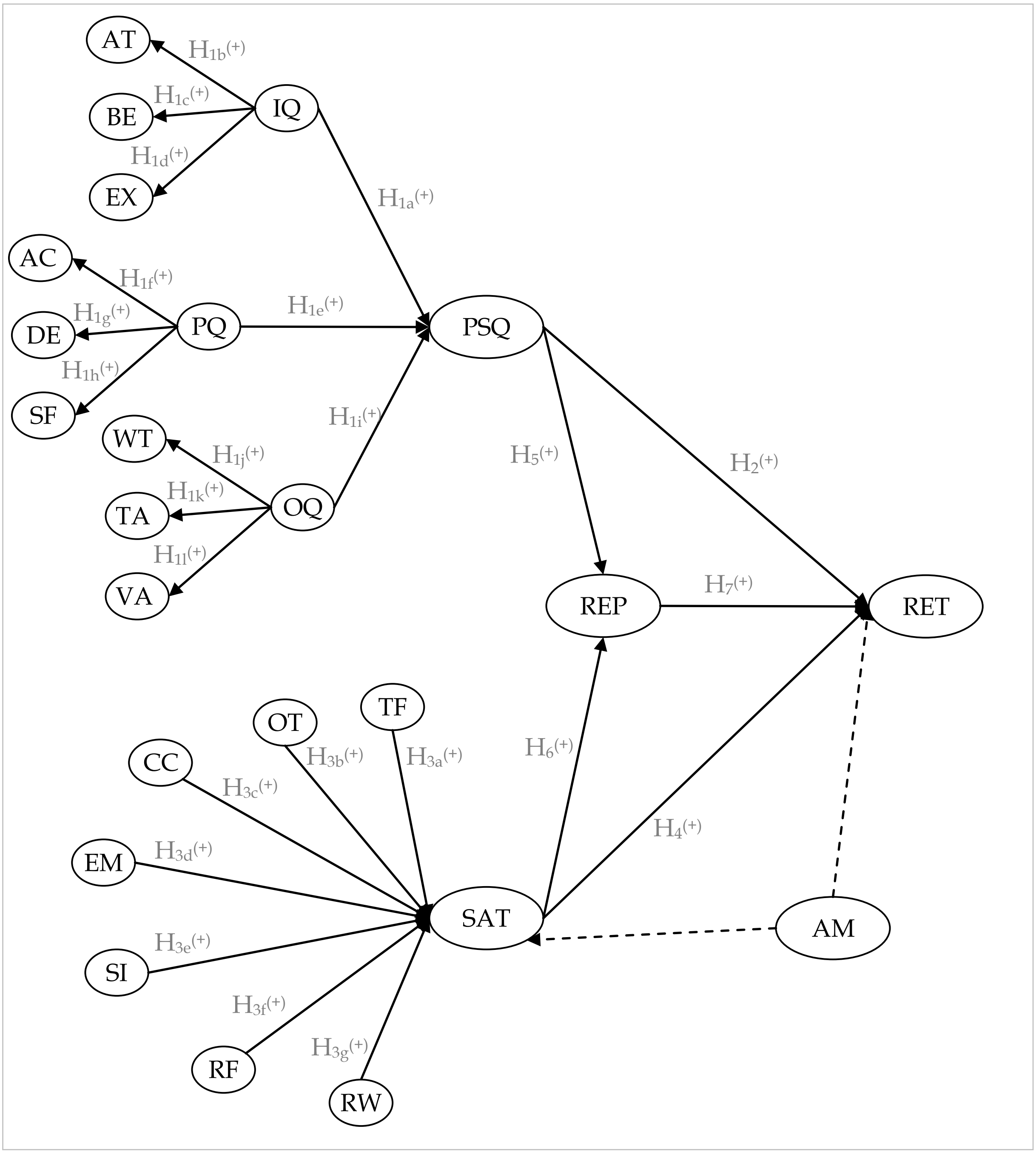

Figure 7: Structural model with hypotheses
Source: Author’s own illustration.

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Methods

Research setting, procedure and sample characteristics

The study generally follows a deductive approach using quantitative design with the intent to generalize from the sample to a population using a cross-sectional data. The *population* for the study comprises Christian church members in Germany of all different denominations. Christian church members in Germany account for 62.8% (51,504,422 people) of the total population (82,002,356) in 2008 (EKD Internetredaktion, 2008a). Thereof approximately 96.5% belong to the two major official Christian churches – protestant (47.6%) and catholic (48.88%) – in Germany. With about 2.83% the official Orthodox Church and other non-official Christian churches, comprise the residual 3.5% (EKD Internetredaktion, 2008a). The *sample* will be selected in a single-stage sampling procedure due to the access to a database of contact persons, mainly pastors, in local churches. Those contact persons will be asked to hand on the information to the volunteers at their local churches.

Data will be collected via internet questionnaire. For clear understanding, the questionnaire is needed to be translated adequately since the sample is drawn from a German speaking population. Pilot testing with a convenience sample of approximately 40 participants will be conducted in advance to reveal potential weaknesses of the questionnaire. Due to the fact that some items measuring, the constructs – since taken from the business context – are not fitting the specific non-profit church context, it is necessary to develop refined measures. In doing so, I follow Churchill's (1979) recommended procedure for scale development (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Based on a review of the literature and expert interviews, the item pool will be refined for the constructs adapting the items proposed by the authors to the specific context and terminology of church.

Measures

Respondents were asked to give their responses to the same set of items measuring the study variables, together with a number of socio-demographic (age, gender, marital status, education, occupation) and context-specific (church attendance, time spent volunteering) variables (Appendix 3). A seven-point Likert scale[1] was used to measure the constructs (volunteer retention, organisational reputation, perceived service quality, volunteer satisfaction) and control variable (altruistic motivation). A Likert-type scale genuinely is defined as an ordinal scale. However, continuous scales are prerequisite for causal-analytical

[1] Response options; (data code in brackets): strongly disagree (1); disagree (2); slightly disagree (3); unsure (4); slightly agree (5); agree (6); strongly agree (7)

models (Bagozzi, 1981a, Bagozzi, 1981b). There is common agreement among pragmatists that rating scales, which are commonly used in business and social research, could be regarded as quasi-interval scaled as long as the rating points are equidistant (Jaccard & Wan, 2003; Zinnbauer & Eberl, 2004). However, Bagozzi (1981a; 1981b) advocates for at least five-point but better seven-point scales to not violate the assumption of continuous variables in spite of discrete measurement (Zinnbauer & Eberl, 2004).

Taking into account the epistemic nature of the constructs is critical to specify the measurement model when measuring complex multi-item constructs such as perceived service quality, satisfaction and reputation (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). Generally, there are two measurement approaches available: *Reflective* measurement regards indicators as functions of the latent variable (Homburg & Klarmann, 2006); thus changes in the latent variable mirror in changes of all the related manifest variables (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). On the contrary, the *formative* measurement model considers indicators to cause a latent variable (Homburg & Klarmann, 2006); hence, changes in the indicators evoke changes in the latent variable's value (Diamantopoulos et al., 2008). To distinguish whether a specific indicator is formative or reflective (Jarvis et al., 2003) as well as (Fassott & Eggert, 2005) provide guidance for decision-making (Table 1).

Characteristic / Question	***Requirement fulfilled?***	
	Yes	*No*
Are the indicators defining characteristics of the latent variable?	formative	reflective
Do changes in the indicators cause changes in the latent variable?	formative	reflective
Do changes in the latent variable cause changes in the indicators?	reflective	formative
Do indicators have the same or similar content or do they relate to the same topic?	reflective	(formative)
Does an elimination of one indicator change the conceptualized content of the latent Variable?	formative	reflective
Do changes in one indicator cause changes in the other indicators of a latent variable?	reflective	formative
Do the indicators have the same antecedents and consequences?	reflective	(formative)

Table 1: Distinction of formative and reflective indicators.
Source: Author's own illustration.

However, in most cases the indicator-construct relation could not be answered definitely since many constructs can be measured either formatively or reflectively dependant on their contextual conceptualization (Nitzl, 2010; Fassott & Eggert, 2005). Thus, researchers talk of a subjective component in deciding for a measurement model (Chin, 1998a). A misspecification of indicators would lead to different construct operationalization, casting the measures' validity into doubt (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). Furthermore, a misspecified measurement models may result in incorrectly assessed path relationships (Jarvis et al., 2003).

Volunteer **retention**, as the outcome variable, was measured on one hand as a continuous variable by the percentage (0-100) a respondent is likely to continue volunteering for his church and on the other hand through four items – adapted and combined from Wisner et al. (2005) and Nguyen and Leblanc (2001a) **–** on an ordinal scale (Table 2). These items are reflective in their nature to measure retention as they all have the same content – retention – and probably change in one indicator cause changes in all others.

Item
▪ Please give us the likelihood in percentages (0-100) that you will continue volunteering for your church.
▪ I intend to continue volunteering for my church. ▪ I do not intend to remain a long-term volunteer in my church. * ▪ I plan to quit volunteering in my church soon. ▪ If I had wanted to start volunteering now, this church would be my first choice. ▪ I would encourage friends and relatives to volunteer for my church I belong.
** denotes survey item was reverse coded*

Table 2: Item wording for the volunteer retention scale
Source: Author's own illustration.

The operationalization of the **perceived service quality**-construct was adapted from the original item pool by Brady and Cronin (2001). All items (Table 3) of the higher-order construct are measured on the ordinal Likert Scale. In line with the original operationalization by Brady and Cronin (2001), first-order constructs are measured reflectively as they measure different aspects – reliability, responsiveness, and empathy – for every quality dimension. The first-order constructs are reflected in the higher-order constructs which themselves represent defining dimensions of the overall perceived service quality-variable. Thus, the third-order overall service quality-dimension is best operationalized as a formative construct of its subordinate dimensions. In measuring the primary sub-dimension - Interaction, Physical Evidence, and Outcome – formatively, the operationalization accounts for the fact to not violate the overall definition of a three-dimensional service quality construct. This is especially of advantage if some of the first-order indicators and its latent constructs are of insignificant importance in a specific context, is not violated.

Variable	***Item***
Attitude (AT)	▪ You can count on the volunteers and staff at my church being friendly. ▪ The attitude of the volunteers and staff in the church, I belong to, demonstrates their willingness to serve and help me. ▪ The attitude of the volunteers and staff shows me that they understand my needs.
Behaviours (BE)	▪ I can count on volunteers and staff of at the church that I belong to, taking actions to address my needs. ▪ Volunteers and staff respond quickly to my needs. ▪ The behaviour of volunteers and staff indicates to me that they understand my needs.
Expertise (EX)	▪ You can count on volunteers and staff knowing their jobs. ▪ Volunteers and staff are able to answer my questions quickly. ▪ Volunteers and staff understand that I rely on their knowledge.
Ambient Conditions (AC)	▪ At the church, I belong to, you can rely that atmosphere (i.e. temperature, lighting, odour) in the buildings I volunteer in, is good. ▪ The ambiance at the church, I belong to, is what I'm looking for in a church. ▪ Volunteers and staff at the church understand that its atmosphere is important to me.
Design (DE)	▪ The layout of the church, I belong to, never fails to impress me. ▪ The layout of the church, I belong to, serves my purposes. ▪ Other volunteers and staff understand that the design of its facilities is important to me.
Social Factors (SF)	▪ Other volunteers and staff of the church that I belong to, consistently leave me with a good impression when I volunteer at the church. ▪ Other volunteers and staff do not affect the ability, to provide good quality service in my volunteering activity. ▪ Other volunteers and staff of my church understand that they affect how

Variable	*Item*
	I perceive the quality if my volunteer work.
Waiting Time (WT)	▪ I am aware that there are times in my church when responsible people are not available if I have questions or need support. ▪ My church tries to minimize times when responsible people are not available if I have questions or need support. ▪ The responsible people in my church understand that their availability if I have questions or need support matters to me.
Tangibles (TA)	▪ I am consistently pleased with the outward appearance (i.e. appearance of the buildings, furnishing, and website) of my church. ▪ I like the church that I belong to, because it has the outward appearance that I want. ▪ The responsible people in my church know what outward appearance is important to me.
Valence (VA)	▪ When I leave the church after volunteering, I usually feel that I had a good experience. ▪ I believe the church, I belong to, tries to give me a good experience during my volunteering activity. ▪ I believe that responsible people in my church know that good experiences matter to me.
For every variable, the first item refers to Reliability, the second to Responsiveness and the third Empathy.	
Interaction Quality (IQ)	▪ Overall, I'd say the quality of my interaction with volunteers and staff in my church is excellent. ▪ I would say that the quality of my interaction with other volunteers and staff in my church is high.
Physical Evidence Quality (PQ)	▪ I would say that physical environment of the church, I belong to, is one of the best in comparison to other churches. ▪ I would attribute high quality to the physical environment of my church.
Outcome Quality (OQ)	▪ I always have an excellent experience when I volunteer at the church, I belong to. ▪ I feel good about the volunteering opportunities my church provides.
Perceived Service	▪ I would say that my church provides superior service with its volunteering activities.

Variable	*Item*
Quality (PSQ)	▪ I believe that volunteers and staff at my church provide excellent service to achieve the mission of the church.

Table 3: Item wording for the perceived service quality-construct
Source: Author's own illustration.

I operationalized volunteer **satisfaction** adjusting the items (Table 4) used by Wisner et al. (2005). Since the ordinal-scaled items of each of the first-order latent constructs reflect similar content, they are measured reflectively. The seven first-order constructs distinctively define the higher-order volunteer satisfaction-construct, thus a formative measurement is appropriate.

Variable	*Item*
Time Flexibility (TF)	▪ Demands of my volunteer activity are so great that they take away from my other activities (i.e. family, work, outside interests).* ▪ When I volunteer I have so much to do that it takes away from my personal interests.* ▪ My volunteer activities take up time that I'd rather spend with family or friends.* ▪ The hours that I volunteer fit my schedule just fine. ▪ Short-term volunteer opportunities are available in the church, I belong to.
Orientation & Training (OT)	▪ Volunteers receive training prior to beginning work in the church, I belong to. ▪ Training is part of this church's volunteer management program. ▪ The church has an orientation program for all new volunteers. ▪ The church provides orientation materials to volunteers. ▪ Volunteers are regularly trained during their time with the church, I belong to. ▪ The church provides minimal training to new volunteers. *
Customer Contact (CC)	▪ Face-to- face contact between volunteers and other people (i.e. other church members, guests) during volunteering activities is high.
Empower-ment (EM)	▪ Volunteers are actively involved in planning and development of activities and programs of the church.

Variable	*Item*
	▪ The church provides leadership opportunities for volunteers. ▪ The church modifies its processes and structures in response to volunteer feedback and needs. ▪ Volunteers do not have contact with other people outside their volunteering opportunity. * ▪ Volunteers have direct contact with the people at the church.
Social Interaction (SI)	▪ Volunteers have the opportunity to interact with each other. ▪ Volunteers interact with our paid employees on a regular basis. ▪ Other volunteers and staff in my church are friendly. ▪ Responsible people in my church make sure that I get along well with my fellow volunteers and staff. ▪ Responsible people in my church facilitate social interactions between volunteers. ▪ Staff members of this church are very pleasant to deal with.
Reflection (RF)	▪ The church provides information to volunteers about the mission of the church. ▪ The church provides information to volunteers about policy issues related to the mission of the church. ▪ The church provides opportunities for volunteers to think of and reflect on their experiences with other people. ▪ The church frequently reminds volunteers about the impact that they have on the people that they serve. ▪ The church makes sure that all new volunteers understand the positive impact they are having on the people it serves. ▪ Volunteers receive feedback on the impact of their work. ▪ Volunteers understand how much they matter in fulfilling the church's mission.
Rewards (RW)	▪ The church arranges parties or luncheons to thank volunteers. ▪ Volunteers receive thank you letters or certificates of appreciation from our church. ▪ The church has a volunteer reward program to thank volunteers. ▪ People constantly express their appreciation for our volunteers' efforts. ▪ The church recognizes outstanding volunteers.

Variable	*Item*
	▪ Volunteers receive no special recognition in our church. *
Satisfaction (SAT)	▪ Overall, I am satisfied with my volunteer experience at my church. ▪ I am satisfied with the people who lead the church. ▪ I am satisfied with the church's policies. ▪ I am satisfied with the support provided by the church in helping me to do volunteer work. ▪ I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement in the church.
** denotes survey item was reverse coded*	

Table 4: Item wording for the volunteer satisfaction-construct
Source: Author's own illustration.

Organisational **reputation** was operationalized using a two-dimensional – likeability and competence – construct of six items (Table 5) drawn from the reputation scale which was developed by Sarstedt and Schloderer (2010). The items, which are measured on an ordinal scale, are formative indicators as they focus on different aspects of reputation and reflect defining characteristics of the reputation construct.

	Item
Likeability	▪ I can identify better with the church, I belong to, than with other churches. ▪ If my church no longer existed, I would miss it more than I would miss other churches. ▪ I regard the church, I belong to, as a likeable church.
Competence	▪ The church, I belong to, is a top church among existing churches. ▪ As far as I know, my church is recognized in our area and beyond. ▪ I believe that the church, I belong to, performs its mission and tasks at a premium level.

Table 5: Item wording for the organisational reputation scale
Source: Author's own illustration.

I operationalized **altruistic motivation** using nine items, which derived from qualitative interviews of a former study by Wisner et al. (2005). The items (Table 6) of the construct are of formative nature since they refer to different aspects – i.e. help others, give back to the community, self-expression – of the underlying theme of altruism.

Item
▪ I want to help others.
▪ I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
▪ I feel compassion toward people in need.
▪ I feel it is important to help others.
▪ I want to do something for a cause that it important to me.
▪ I want to give back to the community.
▪ I want to do something worthwhile.
▪ By volunteering, I help to create a better society.
▪ I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.

Table 6: Item wording for the altruistic motivation scale
Source: Author's own illustration.

Data analysis procedures

The collected data is purified for statistical analysis eliminating incomplete cases. Since structural equation modelling (SEM), which is dependent on the type of distribution, is used to test the relationship among the hypothesized constructs, all variables are checked for the type of distribution since. Multiple regression analyses Partial Least Squares (PLS)-method, which draws on variance analysis estimation were used to test the hypotheses (Nitzl, 2010). In contrast to covariance methods, PLS estimates parameters by maximizing the variance explained of a dependant variable and a construct's indicators (Lohmöller, 1989). Estimation is based on multiple regressions (least squares) which results in an optimal reconstruction of the real data (Nitzl, 2010; Ringle, 2004). Thus, PLS has a better predictive quality than covariance-based methods (Reinartz et al., 2009). Moreover, it is possible to draw on nominal, ordinal and continuous variables (Betzin, 2005) because PLS is not dependent on a specific type of scale to estimate the parameters (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Lohmöller, 1989). Dependant on the formative or reflective nature of constructs, different methods to assess the statistical goodness of the measurement model are performed (Nitzl, 2010). Here again, PLS provides advantage since PLS incorporates formative indicators without strict restrictions as known from covariance-based approaches (Weiber & Mühlhaus, 2010). However, since PLS is not dependant on normally distributed data, inference-statistical goodness-of-fit criteria as known from covariance-analysis (i.e. Maximum Likelihood-method), are rare (Nitzl, 2010). Nevertheless, Nitzl (2010) and Ringle (2004) present a full overview of goodness-of-fit criteria for PLS which will be taken into consideration for this study. The proposed model is tested afterwards with regard to the constructs' and structural model's predictive relevance and reliability. Lastly, the structural model is tested for stability and criterion validity. The latter examines whether the measurement scale detects the relationships identified by theory or prior research. According to Aaker et al. (2007), criterion validity is the most important type of validity regarding decision-making. Following the model evaluation procedures, which aim to confirm theoretically backed up relations, I conduct an exploratory analysis of the data to potentially reveal new relations among the variables under study. In this vain, both Factor Analysis (FA) and Cluster Analysis (CA) as a means of data reduction are performed on the data set (Backhaus et al., 2006; Burns & Burns, 2008; Pallant, 2007).

Anticipated ethical issues

Attitude towards marketing

Practically, the use of marketing practices – i.e. advertising (Cutler & Winans, 1998) or mystery shopping (Christian Today, 2008) – as well as strategic marketing planning – i.e. segmentation (Housewright, 1995) and targeting (Wellner, 2001) – does occur. However, the question whether religious organisations should apply business concepts is still highly debated among church leaders and public (Newman & Benchener, 2008; Sherman & Devlin, 2000; Webb & Joseph, 1998). Rodrigue (2002) points out, that attitudes towards the practice of church marketing are diverse. According to Wrenn (1993) and Abreu (2006), critics claim that religious marketing is used to manipulate people, contradicts biblical standpoint – i.e. advertising shifts the perspective from humility to pride (Marty, 1987), reduces spirituality and sacred significance of religion and is linked to unreasonable financial expenditures. Additionally, these arguments are entangled with strongly emotional – partly public – opinion (Newman & Benchener, 2008; Rodrigue, 2002). However, while the debate on using marketing as a business tool and its models within the church context continues, the application is occurring (Newman & Benchener, 2008).

The majority of church leaders describe part of their efforts – disapproving to refer to the word 'marketing' – as customer oriented towards congregation, donors and volunteers when, for example, there is a lack of participation in Sunday service or when there is scarcity in funds to support the church. Indeed much of the historical growth of major religions came through efforts of proselytizing – a marketing activity (Kotler, 2005). Additionally, church leaders might oppose the idea "promoting the word of God in the same way that sneakers and soda pop are sold" (Miller, 1994, p. 1). Kotler (2005) notes that especially some church leaders have been strong opponents to the intrusion of marketing language in the religious field as they regard marketing as a seriously endangering their sacred mission. The danger to sacrifice theology – i.e. the Christian message of the gospel – for pure entertainment and attraction of members, which especially the so called 'Mega churches' are accused for, could not be argued away (Miller, 1994; Newman & Benchener, 2008). However, in line with Kotler and Levy (1969), I argue that the question is not whether to market – all organisations perform "marketing activities whether or not they are recognized" (Kotler & Levy, 1969, p. 11) – but to apply marketing properly.

Thus, the way the concept of marketing is perceived, understood and interpreted by churches is crucial (Wrenn, 1993). In their recent work, Newman and Benchener (2008) support this argument in their quantitative analysis of marketing application in the church context. They confirm that church leaders are unfamiliar to the terminology or misunderstand concepts thus leading to a misapplication. Shawchuck et al. (1992, p. 43) put it in a vivid metaphor: The true understanding

> "*of marketing can be linked to the individual who has seen a hammer being used only as a tool of destruction and who, upon being handed a hammer when asking for a tool to use in construction, wonders if the other person has taken leave of his senses. In the same way, if marketing has been perceived as only deceptive advertising by dishonest salespersons and as efforts to manipulate demand (tool of destruction), it will be dismissed by individuals or religious institutions when faced with problems that it might help them solve.*"

Hence, the first question is, whether marketing is understood properly (Wrenn, 1993). Second, terminology and concepts must be translated to the non-profit religious context (White & Simas, 2008).

Treating marketing from a neutral standpoint might help to understand its potential to help organisations beyond business context, especially in the religious context (Angheluță et al., 2009). In an attempt to set the proper foundation to understand the term marketing right, the best point to start with might be a general definition. Hence, Marketing, according to Kotler (1991) is defined as a "social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering and exchanging products of value with others". Later definitions added the term 'customer relationship' thus not merely focusing on the on-spot exchange (Kotler et al, 2008). Grönroos (2007) sharpened the definition for marketing as "the process of managing ongoing relations". Those definitions, which take marketing to its core, do not talk about selling nor do they mention business specifically. Marketing is rather a concept used to accomplish of an organisation's mission and to satisfy target groups not primarily limited to the business domain (Kotler & Andreasen, 1996; Shawchuck et al., 1992). Christian churches, for example, by their very nature – as outlined in the bible in Matthew 28:16-20 – focus on reaching people, bringing them back into community with God – called 'conversion' – and helping them to grow spiritually and in their character (White & Simas, 2008). What the mission of the Christian church has in common with a marketing approach is the fact that it takes a relational approach focusing on people and their needs to bring them in a relationship with God. Thus, the mission of the church reflects the very nature of marketing (Angheluță et al., 2009; Wrenn, 1993). Hence, churches – even though they do not call it 'marketing' – apply marketing in order to fulfil their mission (Angheluță et al., 2009). Marketing is best understood in a church context keeping the core theology intact and using tools and methods in line with its mission (Wrenn, 1993). Thus, church marketing will be able to use marketing satisfy the needs of people – the community and unreached people (Abreu, 2006; Baimbridge & Whyman, 1997; Kotler & Andreasen, 1996; Shawchuck et al., 1992; Wrenn, 1993).

Response bias

Although the survey is conducted anonymously, there is a potential of response bias. First, the use of a sample from the church context might have potential weakness with regard to respondents: church volunteers, as respondents, may feel forced giving socially desirable responses, hence to evaluate their church, as the research object, more positively (Mulyanegara et al., 2011).

Though items were modified to fit the context and language of the, possibility of bias exists in that the person completing the questionnaire may not be familiar with the terminology used in this study (Newman & Benchener, 2008; White & Simas, 2008). Newman and Benchener (2008) also point to the fact that besides lack of understanding the potential of misunderstanding and misinterpreting is even more severe.

Analysis

Sample and descriptive statistics

The focus for the study was a sample of German volunteers at local church congregations. Randomly chosen volunteers were asked to fill in the self-reported online questionnaire. The online questionnaire generated 307 responses which was adjusted by removing incomplete data to an adjusted sample of n=232 responses. Table 7 provides a description of the sample characteristics. The majority (57.8%) of participants is female and education level generally is high since around 80% of participants had been educated through to at least intermediate secondary school. Age groups were computed based on significant events in the life of a person (i.e. legal maturity, start of work, retirement). The age of participants ranged from 16 to 89 (range=73) right-skewed (0.81) distributed with the mode (21) < median (33) < mean (38.77). Notably the right-skewed age distribution reflects in the high percentage of singles (31.9%) and the fact that about a quarter of respondents are students or apprentice (25.4%). Given the age profile of the sample, it is not surprising that the largest part of the sample is full-time (37.9%) or part-time employed (19.0%). The majority (62.9%) of respondents reported that they attend church activities several times a week.

Characteristic	*relative frequency*	*Descriptive Statistics*	
AGE		median	33
1 <19	4.8	mode	21
2 19–25	25.4	range	73 [16;89]
3 26–35	21.5	M	38.770 (SE =1.149)
4 36-49	22.8	SD	17.457
5 50–65	17.3	V	304.743
6 >65	7.8	scewness	.805 (SE =.160)
No answer	0.4	kurtosis	-.041 (SE =.319)
GENDER		mode	Female
Male	39.7		
Female	57.8		
No answer	2.6		
MARITAL STATUS		mode	Married
Single	31.9		
Relationship	9.1		
Married	54.3		
Divorced	3.0		
Widowed	1.7		
No answer	0.0		
EDUCATION		mode	College or university degree
Not graduated from school	1.3		
Lower secondary school (Hauptschule)	1.7		
Intermediate secondary school (Realschule)	16.4		
Advanced technical certificate (Fachhochschulreife)	13.4		
Grammar school (Allgemeine Hochschulreife)	22.4		
Apprenticeship (Ausbildung)	11.6		
College or university degree	32.3		
No answer	0.9		
OCCUPATION		mode	Full-time employment
Unemployed	3.9		
Part-time employment	19.0		
Full-time employment	37.9		
Student, apprentice	25.4		
Pensioner, retirement	8.2		
Housewife/house-husband, parental leave	3.4		

Characteristic	*relative frequency*	*Descriptive Statistics*	
No answer	2.2		
CHURCH ATTENDANCE		mode	Several times a week
Several times a week	62.9		
Weekly	20.7		
Several times a month (but not weekly)	13.8		
Once a month	0.4		
Irregularly	2.2		

Table 7: Sample characteristics.
Source: Author's own illustration.

Research model evaluation

The following section is concerned with the evaluation of the hypothetical model based on the empirical data. In view of the weal assumption about the type of distribution, PLS – in contrast to co-variance based methods – parametrical fit-measures are inappropriate (Chin, 1998b). Additionally, it is required to distinguish between formative and reflective models for validation (Krafft et al., 2005) which needs to be processed separately for the two types of constructs (Nitzl, 2010). Thus, the evaluation of the model typically follows a three-step process as depicted in Figure 8. SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2005) is used to analyze the data. The measurement - and structural model are assessed.

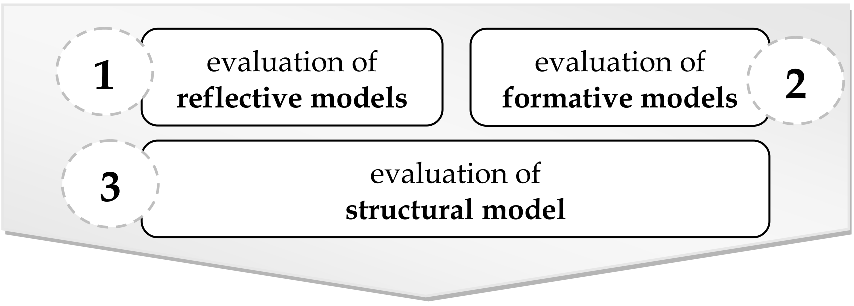

Figure 8: Evaluation process for the PLS-approach
Source: Author's own illustration

In general, reliability refers to consistency of measurement; validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. *Convergent validity*[2] of all **reflective constructs** is assessed. First *factor loadings* (λ), *Cronbachs alpha* (alpha) (Cronin, 2003) and *composite reliability* (CR) were computed. Factor loadings for the reflective constructs ranged from -.027 to .960 (Appendix 9). Alpha coefficients for the constructs

[2] *Convergent validity* accounts for the fact that indicators, loading on the same factor should, have a strong relationship (i.e. correlation) among each other. (see Homburg & Giering, 1996)

ranged from 0.212 to 0.928 (Appendix 10). Because Cronbachs alpha is dependent on the number of indicators (Chin, 1998b), composite reliability is provided. All coefficients exceed the suggested benchmark (CR ≥ .600) ranging from .661 to .959 (Appendix 10) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Ringle & Spreen, 2007). Furthermore, *average variance extracted* (AVE) was computed and investigated. AVE measures the variance captured by the indicators relative to measurement error, and should be greater than .500 to justify using a construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The constructs' AVE ranged from .414 to .921 (Appendix 10). Since CC1 (λ=alpha=CR=AVE=1.0) is the sole indicator for CC, it was excluded from investigation. Finally, the *Fornell/Larcker-Criterion* (FLC) – the average variance extracted needs to exceed the squared *correlation* (Corr) between all pairs of factors ($\boldsymbol{AVE}\xi_1 \geq [\mathrm{Corr}\ (\xi_1, \eta_1)]^2$) – (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) was used to evaluate discriminant validity[3]. As correlations already are reported to assess validity, I transformed the FLC to $\sqrt{\boldsymbol{AVE}\xi_1} \geq |\mathrm{Corr}\ (\xi_1, \eta_1)|$. Thus, there is no need to compute squared correlations. A number of indicators negatively impacted reliability and validity of reflective constructs. Based on the investigation of critical values, as reported in Table 8, constructs were adjusted and specific indicators excluded.

Construct	**Indicator** *(threshold)*	***λ*** *(≥ .707)*	***alpha*** *(≥ .700)*	***AVE*** *(≥ .500)*	***FLC*** *($\sqrt{\boldsymbol{AVE\xi_1}} \geq \lvert\mathrm{Corr}\ (\xi_1, \eta_1)\rvert$)*
SF			.212	.464	
	SF2	.168			
WT			.429		
	WT1	.027			
TA					
	TA3	.665			
PQ			.346		
	PQ2	.548			
OQ			.580		
TF					
	TF4	.688			
	TF5	.588			
EM				.493	
	EM4	.528			
	EM5	.571			
SI				.483	$\sqrt{AVE(\mathrm{SI})}$ < Corr (SI,RF) .695 < .741
	SI1	.623			
	SI2	.305			
	SI6	.658			
RW					
	RW2	.665			
	RW3	.663			

[3] *Discriminant validity* demands that association between indicators which measure different factors should be weaker than relationships among indicators loading on the same factor. Convergent validity and discriminant validity together measure construct validity. (see Homburg & Giering, 1996)

Construct	Indicator *(threshold)*	λ (≥ .707)	*alpha* (≥ .700)	*AVE* (≥ .500)	*FLC* ($\sqrt{AVE\xi_1} \geq \lvert Corr(\xi_1, \eta_1) \rvert$)
	RW6	.682			
RET			.674	.414	
	RETC	.156			
	RET2	.518			
	RET3	.642			

Table 8: Indicators of reflective constructs violating reliability and validity
Source: Author's own illustration.

Since indicators of **formative construct** do measure different aspects of the construct, other criteria are needed. First, significance of outer weights, which could be interpreted as regression coefficients (λ), is assessed (Ringle & Spreen, 2007). Coefficient values of the standardized PLS-model close to 1 or -1 indicate strong relationship while values close to 0 reflect weak relations (Krafft et al., 2005). Furthermore, the height of an indicator's weight contributes to the definition of the formative construct; high weights account for a strong defining character of that indicator. Thus, the height of the standardized weight provides a first evaluation criterion. Note that indicators should not be eliminated solely because of a low weight since indicators contribute to the full definition of the construct (Nitzl, 2010; Jarvis et al., 2003). Significance of weights is tested using bootstrapping[4]-method to compute an empirical distribution (Nitzl, 2010). Elimination of indicators in spite of insignificant weights should only be done based on a supplementary reflection on the defining content (Krafft et al., 2005). Additionally, multicollinearity is high when indicators linear relation is strong. To test for multicollinearity *variance inflation factor* (VIF) – an index that measures how much the variance of an estimated regression coefficient is increased because of collinearity – and *condition index* (CI) – square root of the ratio between maximal eigenvalue (λ_{max}) and the eigenvalue of the specific indicator (λ_i) - are used (Backhaus et al., 2006; Krafft et al., 2005). A VIF of 1 signifies no multicollinearity; values should not exceed 5 (Diamantopoulos et al., 2008). CI should not exceed 30 (Nitzl, 2010). Since high correlation between two formative indicators implies redundant information this case is one of the few reasons to eliminate an indicator (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Nitzl, 2010).

	weights λ	*Significance*	*VIF*	*CI*

[4] Boostrapping is a process that calculates a distribution based on the empirical data which substitutes the missing theoretical distribution (Chin, 1998b; Nitzl, 2010).

	weights λ	Significance					VIF	CI
	$\lim_{n \to \|1\|} RegC_i$	M	SD	SE	T-value	sig.	$VIF_i = \frac{1}{1-R_i^2} \leq 5$	$CI_i = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_i}} \leq 30$
AM							VIF=1.000 ≤ 5	≤ 30
AM1	.273	.202	.290	.290	.941	[2]	R^2=.000	1.545
AM2	.235	.224	.346	.346	.678	[2]		1.666
AM3	-.053	-.035	.395	.395	.135	-		3.507
AM4	.046	.014	.355	.355	.128	-		3.765
AM5	-.049	-.041	.318	.318	.155	-		3.648
AM6	-.463	-.342	.261	.261	1.770	[3]		1.187
AM7	.595	.469	.259	.259	2.298	[4]		1.047
AM8	.652	.565	.241	.241	2.711	[5]		1.000
AM9	-.164	-.171	.284	.284	.579	[1]		1.994
REP							VIF=1.715 ≤ 5	≤ 30
RL1	.277	.277	.210	.210	1.316	[3]	R^2=.417	1.534
RL2	.043	.043	.190	.190	.225	-		3.894
RL3	.401	.368	.205	.205	1.957	[3]		1.275
RC1	.005	.006	.199	.199	.023	-		11.419
RC2	.048	.049	.163	.163	.297	[1]		3.686
RC3	.431	.418	.168	.168	2.571	[4]		1.230

M=mean; SD=standard deviation; SE=standard error; sig=significance level
[1] sig. at p<.4; [2] sig. at p<.25; [3] sig. at p<.1; [4] sig. at p<.05; [5] sig. at p<.01

Table 9: Evaluation of formative indicators (initial model)
Source: Author's own illustration.

While VIF and CI for all indicators fall within the threshold, weights and significance of weights provide guidance to further investigate the following indicators: AM3, AM4, AM5, AM9, RL2 and RC1 (Table 9). In view of their non-significant and low weights, these indicators are excluded since both findings postulate weak relations.

After adjustment of constructs and calibration of the model, reliability and validity was re-assessed on the basis of the abovementioned criteria (step 1 of the process illustrated in Figure 8). Results for reflective (Appendix 11) as well as formative indicators (Table 10) are reported in. Factor loadings for the reflective constructs ranged from .714 to .96; excluded AC3 (λ= .668), DE3 (λ= .674), RW1 (λ= .705) and RET1 (λ= .685) which slightly undercut the threshold. Moreover, CC1 and PQ1 (λ= 1.0) load fully on CC respectively PQ as they are single indicators for the constructs. Alpha values, except for SF, WT and OQ, were between .704 and .928 and above the suggested threshold of .700 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2008). Composite reliability exceeds the suggested benchmark (CR ≥ .600) ranging from .823 to .959. Constructs' AVE ranged from .624 to .921. No violation of FLC is reported. Indicators of the formative constructs show significant weights. VIF and CI do not exceed critical values (Table 10).

	weights λ		*Significance*					*VIF*	*CI*
	$\lim_{n\to\|1\|} RegC_i$		M	SD	SE	T-value	sig	$VIF_i = \frac{1}{1-R_i^2} \leq 5$	$CI_i = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_i}} \leq 30$
AM								VIF=1.000 ≤ 5	≤ 30
	AM1	.676	.233	.179	.179	1.480	3	R^2=.000	1.442
	AM2	.605	.266	.201	.201	1.276	2		1.555
	AM6	.308	-.348	.185	.185	2.012	4		1.108
	AM7	.768	.549	.160	.160	3.502	6		.977
	AM8	.720	.531	.183	.183	3.108	6		.933
	AM9	.552	-.127	.182	.182	.576	1		1.861
REP								VIF=1.712 ≤ 5	≤ 30
	RL1	.815	.319	.109	.109	3.067	6	R^2=.416	1.432
	RL3	.875	.394	.141	.141	2.700	6		1.190
	RC2	.521	.074	.113	.113	.600	1		3.440
	RC3	.838	.411	.120	.120	3.552	6		1.148

M=mean; SD=standard deviation; SE=standard error; sig=significance level
[1] sig. at p<.4; [2] sig. at p<.25; [3] sig. at p<.1; [4] sig. at p<.05; [5] sig. at p<.01; [6] sig. at p<.005

Table 10: Evaluation of formative indicators (calibrated model)
Source: Author's own illustration.

The **structural model** is assessed by examining the *path coefficients*. T statistics are computed to assess the *significance of path coefficients* (Table 11).

H	Path	PC	M	SD	SE	T-value	sig
H_{1a}	**IQ → PSQ**	-.042	-.039	.092	.092	.460	*non-significant*
H_{1b}	**IQ → AT**	.728	.725	.043	.043	16.819	p<.005
H_{1c}	**IQ → BE**	.706	.709	.036	.036	19.607	p<.005
H_{1d}	**IQ → EX**	.735	.733	.043	.043	17.017	p<.005
H_{1e}	**PQ → PSQ**	.204	.207	.059	.059	3.441	p<.005
H_{1f}	**PQ → AC**	.533	.535	.055	.055	9.703	p<.005
H_{1g}	**PQ → DE**	.701	.704	.032	.032	21.995	p<.005
H_{1h}	**PQ → SF**	.395	.396	.060	.060	6.559	p<.005
H_{1i}	**OQ → PSQ**	.549	.546	.064	.064	8.641	p<.005
H_{1j}	**OQ → WT**	.451	.451	.064	.064	7.075	p<.005
H_{1k}	**OQ → TA**	.465	.460	.065	.065	7.169	p<.005
H_{1l}	**OQ → VA**	.689	.693	.040	.040	17.174	p<.005
H_2	**PSQ → RET**	.057	.053	.054	.054	1.071	p<.25
H_{3a}	**TF → SAT**	.117	.114	.050	.050	2.346	p<.01
H_{3b}	**OT → SAT**	.066	.070	.051	.051	1.285	p<.1
H_{3c}	**CC → SAT**	.037	.034	.053	.053	.699	p<.25
H_{3d}	**EM → SAT**	-.001	-.003	.063	.063	.023	*non-significant*
H_{3e}	**SI → SAT**	.250	.254	.084	.084	2.991	p<.005
H_{3f}	**RF → SAT**	.407	.402	.079	.079	5.151	p<.005
H_{3g}	**RW → SAT**	.163	.163	.068	.068	2.393	p<.01
H_4	**SAT → RET**	.319	.296	.101	.101	3.164	p<.005

H	Path	PC	M	SD	SE	T-value	sig
H_5	PSQ → REP	.144	.147	.075	.075	1.927	p<.1
H_6	SAT → REP	.558	.554	.073	.073	7.692	p<.005
H_7	REP → RET	.281	.297	.085	.085	3.299	p<.005
	AM → SAT	.047	.052	.044	.044	1.078	p<.25
	AM → RET	.290	.302	.074	.074	3.922	p<.005
PC= path coefficient M=mean; SD=standard deviation; SE=standard error; p=significance level							

Table 11: Hypotheses, Path Coefficients and T-statistics
Source: Author's own illustration.

In addition, the *coefficient of determination* (R^2) is used as an indicator of the overall predictive strength of the model. R^2 reports the variance explained of the latent exogenous variables. Values of .67, .33 and .19 are considered to be 'substantial', 'mediocre' and 'weak' (Chin, 1998b; Ringle, 2004). Table 12 reports the calculated criteria for the endogenous latent variables. The Stone-Geisser Criterion evaluates the *predictive relevance* (q^2) – how good the independent variables in the structural model describe the dependant variables – and needs to be greater than zero (Chin, 1998b; Fornell & Cha, 1997). *Effect size* (f^2) illustrates if an exogenous latent variable substantially influences an endogenous latent variable (Cohen, 1988; Nitzl, 2010).

Variable (threshold)	*R^2 (> .400)*	q^2 *(> 0)*	f^2		
AT	.530	.409			
BE	.499	.434			
EX	.540	.419			
AC	.284	.168			
DE	.491	.298			
SF	.156	.119			
WT	.203	.148			> .35 – large effect
TA	.216	.184			> .15 – medium effect
VA	.474	.299			~ .02 – small effect
PSQ	.478	.415	f^2 (PSQ→RET)= .004	f^2 (PSQ→REP)= .149	
SAT	.688	.466	f^2 (SAT→RET)= .087	f^2 (SAT→REP)= .376	
REP	.416	.244	f^2 (REP→RET)= .092		
RET	.507	.325			

Table 12: Evaluation of endogenous latent variables
Source: Author's own illustration.

Standardized path coefficients (Table 11) for the part of the model reflecting the third-order PSQ-construct (H_{1a}-H_{1l}) are relatively strong (above |.500|) for the majority of relations. Not only does path of IQ on PSQ (H_{1a} -.042; p=n.s.) undercut the threshold of .200 but, additionally, is negative and non-significant. However, AT (H_{1b} .728; p<.005), BE (H_{1c} .706; p<.005) and EX (H_{1d} .735; p<.005) report a statistically significant positive effect on IQ. As

hypothesized, AC (H_{1f} .533; $p<.005$), DE (H_{1g} .701; $p<.005$) and SF (H_{1h} .395; $p<.005$) significantly impacted PQ which in turn (H_{1e} .204; $p<.005$) was positively associated with PSQ. Significant positive effects are reported for WT (H_{1j} .451; $p<.005$), TA (H_{1k} .465; $p<.005$) and VA (H_{1l} .689; $p<.005$) on OQ as well as for OQ on PSQ (H_{1i} .549; $p<.005$).
For the latent variables of PSQ, 'weak' to 'mediocre' R^2-values are reported for AC (.284), SF (.156), WT (.203), and TA (.216) and 'mediocre' to 'substantial' values for AT (.530), BE (.499), EX (.540), DE (.491), and VA (.474). Schloderer et al. (2009) note that low R^2-values are common when a multitude of potentially influencing variables is not considered consciously.

With regard to the SAT-construct (H_{3a}-H_{3g}) the standardized path coefficients report values between -.001 and .407 (Table 11) with all but two coefficients (SI .250, RF .407) undercutting the threshold. The coefficient for EM (H_{3d} -.001; p=n.s.) has a negative minus sign and additionally is statistically non-significant. All other path coefficients – TF (H_{3a} .117; $p<.01$), OT (H_{3b} .066; $p<.1$), CC (H_{3c} .037; $p<.25$), SI (H_{3e} .250 $p<.005$), RF (H_{3f} .407; $p<.01$), and RW (H_{3g} .163; $p<.01$) have a significant positive effect on SAT. However, significance levels vary among the variables' path coefficients.

PSQ (H_5 .144; $p<.1$) and SAT (H_6 .558 $p<.005$) were found to have a statistically significant positive impact on REP (Table 11). Investigation of the effect size for both paths supported the magnitude of path coefficients. The hypothesized paths between PSQ and REP reported a small (.149<.15) and large (.376>.35) effect size for SAT and REP (Table 12). Moreover, PSQ (H_2 .057; $p<.25$), REP (H_7 .281 $p<.005$), and SAT (H_4 .319 $p<.005$) are reported to have a statistically significant positive impact on RET (Table 11). R^2-values for PSQ (.478), REP (.416) and SAT (.688) (Table 12) fall between 'mediocre' for PSQ and REP and are 'substantial' in the case of SAT which reflects the size of the path coefficients. In both cases – impact on REP (H_5) and RET (H_2) – PSQ undercuts the path coefficient-threshold, which leads to non-significant relations when the significance level decreases.

An analysis of AM, which was introduced as a control variable, demonstrated a significant positive effect of AM on SAT (.047 $p<.25$) and AM on RET (.290 $p<.005$). However, the impact of AM on SAT is weak as the path coefficient does not meet the threshold and statistical significance is not supported when tested with a more adequate p-level of $p<.1$ or lower.

All *hypotheses*, except H_{1a} (IQ→PSQ) and H_{3d} (EM→SAT), were supported (Table 11). The predictive relevance was greater than zero, which supports the high relevance of the latent variables (Table 12). For the proposed PLS-model a R^2 of .507 for RET (Table 12) ranges between 'mediocre' (.330) and 'substantial' (.670). Investigation of the effect size for both paths supported the magnitude of path coefficients. The hypothesized relations among PSQ and RET, SAT and RET as well as REP and RET reported a small effect size for all paths (Table 12). Hence, the empirical model, as illustrated in Figure 9, was found to be sufficiently reliable.

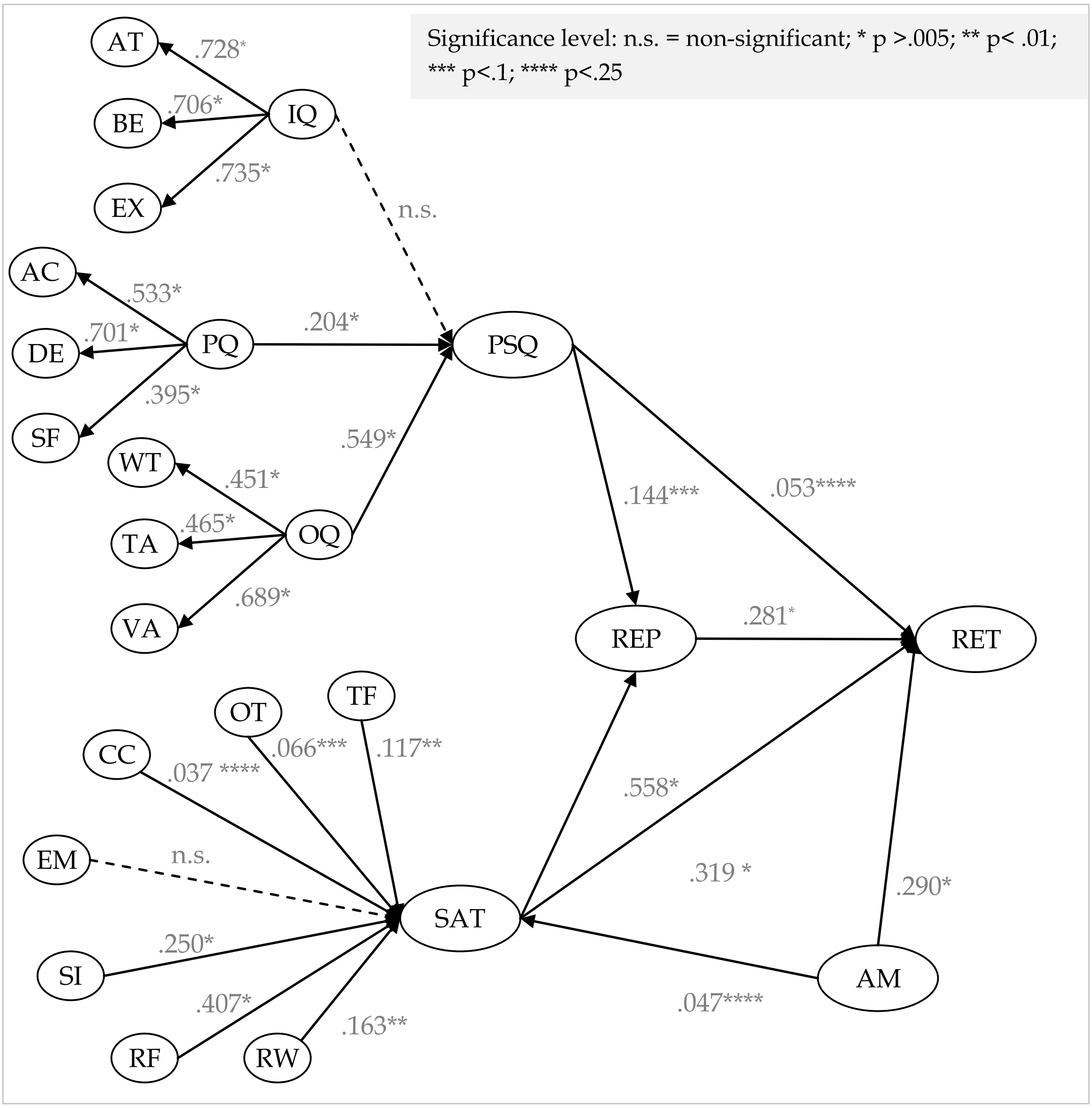

Figure 9: Empirical model
Source: Author's own illustration.

Exploratory analysis

This section investigates the sample in an explorative manner to reveal potential latent relations among variables and clusters of characteristically similar respondents to pinpoint to specific areas for further research. First, Factor Analysis (FA) is used, which is as a technique to reduce a large set of data to fewer components by looking for groups among intercorrelations of a set of variables (Backhaus et al., 2006; Pallant, 2007). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is chosen as an extraction method, which transforms the original variables into a smaller set of linear combinations under inclusion of the full variance of the variables (Jolliffe, 2004; Pallant, 2007). Second, Cluster Analysis is used to group respondents according to similarities of a specific set of variables – the clusters (Backhaus et al., 2006; Burns & Burns, 2008; Romesburg, 2004). Carrying out a hierarchical cluster analysis, I choose Ward's algorithm applying squared Euclidean Distance as the distance measure to determine the optimum number of clusters. Squared Euclidean distance is used frequently as it places progressively greater weight on objects that are further apart (Burns & Burns, 2008). Both CA and FA do not discriminate between dependent or independent variables since the entire set of interdependent relationships are investigated (Burns & Burns, 2008). Prerequisite for the application of FA and CA is that the variables need to be correlated and (approximately) interval scaled (Backhaus et al., 2006; Schermelleh-Engel & Werner, 2007). Whereas FA condenses the number of variables by grouping them into a smaller set of components, CA reduces the amount of cases by agglomerating them into a smaller set of clusters. Thus, the results of FA and CA provide a basis for further investigation into different areas of volunteering outside the specific context of this study.

The items, as used in the calibrated model, were subjected to PCA in terms of **FA** using PASW Statistics 18. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many correlation coefficients of at least .3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion* (.888) exceeded the recommended threshold of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity* (Bartlett, 1954) was statistically significant, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Appendix 13).

PCA revealed the presence of 15 components with initial eigenvalues above 1, with Component 1 explaining 33.53% and all other components less than 7.0% of the variance (for Details: Appendix 14). An inspection of the screeplot (Appendix 13), however, does not provide clear evidence for the number of components. Hence, Parallel Analysis[5] (Horn, 1965) was conducted which advocated for seven components accounting for a total of 58.849% of the variance (Appendix 14). Solutions for seven, six, five and four components were examined using varimax[6] rotation. In view of the factor loadings (> .5), the seven-component solution – as supported by Parallel Analysis – seems reasonable (Appendix 15). However, all items loading only on one component lower than the cut-off are excluded from further analysis (Table 13).

Item	***Components***						
	1 (SI)	2 (AT)	3 (VA)	4 (OT)	5 (DE)	6 (AM)	7 (TF)
OT4	.402			.478	.301		
EM1	.473			.368			-.352
SI3	.496	.471					
RW1							.301
RW4	.492	.385					
SAT1	.422	.456					
SAT5	.492	.303		.405			
AC2		.470			.486		
AC3			.480				
WT2			.439				
WT3		.349	.409		.310		
OQ1		.482					
RL1	.370				.320		
RL3	.484						
RC3	.499	.302					

Table 13: Items with loadings on components lower than .5
Source: Author's own illustration.

The rotated solution revealed the presence of three components reflecting the Satisfaction-construct. Component 1, which accounts for 33.983% of the total variance, comprises a multitude of items belonging to this construct with the highest loading (.719) of SI5 – an item of the Social interaction sub-construct – on the component and all other items' loadings ranging from .539 to .709. Items for OT and EM load on component 4 with loadings from .529 to .846. Even more distinct is component 7 which solely comprises the three items of TF; all three loading highly on the component (TF1= .839; TF2=.832; TF3=.787).

[5] Components with real eigenvalues larger than the random eigenvalue from parallel analysis are retained.
[6] Varimax maximizes the variance of loadings on a specific component, ideally resulting in a minimal number of variables with high loadings for each component; thus enabling better interpretation.

Another three components refer to the PSQ-construct and its sub-constructs. Accounting for 6.935% of the total variance, component 2 incorporates AT, EX, IQ – belonging to the IQ sub-construct – and SF1 (from the PQ sub-construct), VA1 and OQ (from the OQ sub-construct) as well as PSQ. While AT2 has the highest loading (.731) on the component all other loadings are between .519 and .730. Loadings on component 3, comprising BE1, BE2, BE3 – IQ sub-construct items –, DE3, SF3 (items of the PQ construct) as well as VA2 and VA3, range from .562 to .709, with VA3 occupying the highest loading. The last component referring to PSQ incorporates AC1, DE1, DE2 and PQ as well as TA1 and TA2 (from the OQ sub-construct). More interestingly, it also comprises the single left reputation-item (RC2) with a lowest loading of .519 while DE1 (.793) has the highest loading on the component. Finally, the AM-items form a distinct component, accounting for 3.372 & of the total variance with loadings from .566 to .742.

Additionally to PCA, **CA** was run with all 232 cases on the seven components. First, hierarchical CA using Ward's method was performed to derive the number of clusters. Results point to a two- or three-cluster solution (Table 14). Afterwards, CA was computed with a given number of clusters to group cases.

No. of clusters	Agglomeration last step	Coefficients current step	Change
2	1617.000	1466.973	150.027
3	1466.973	1355.215	111.758
4	1355.215	1266.974	88.242
5	1266.974	1184.033	82.941
6	1184.033	1108.174	75.859
7	1108.174	1036.001	72.173
	...		
231	.000	.000	0.000
232	.000		

Table 14: CA - agglomeration schedule (Hierarchical CA; Ward method)
Source: Author's own illustration.

Finally, I used one-way ANOVA to check for the significance of the classifying variables between groups (components derived from FA) for both, the two-clusters and three-clusters option. Additionally, for the latter solution I conducted a Turkey post-hoc test to determine where the difference are to be found for each of the groups.

For the two-cluster solution, there was a statistically significant difference at the sig.-level (≤ .05) for the components (labelled SI, AT, VA, OT, DE, AM, TF according to the highest item loading on the specific component). Component 1 (SI) F (1, 230)=5.637; p = .018, component 3 (VA) F (1, 230)=13.093; p = .000, component 5 (DE) F (1, 230)=251.781; p = .000, and component 7 (TF) F (1, 230)=5.821; p = .017. Thus, the two clusters discriminate between each other on the basis of the components SI, VA, DE and TF.

The different means for three-cluster option were a statistically significant at the sig.-level (≤ .05) for all components except OT. Component 1 (SI) F (2, 229)=3.312; p = .038, component 2 (AT) F (2, 229)=18.303; p = .000, component 3 (VA) F (2, 229)=19.073; p = .000, component 5 (DE) F (2, 229)=127.669; p = .000, component 6 (AM) F (2, 229)=32.409; p = .000, and component 7 (TF) F (2, 229)=6.994; p = .001. Post-hoc comparisons (Turkey-HSD test) indicated that the components SI, AT, VA, DE, AM and TF significantly differentiate between cluster 1 and cluster 2 while cluster 2 and 3 are significantly different with regard to the components AT, VA, DE, AM and TF. Significant difference between cluster 1 and cluster 3 is only dependant on the components VA and DE. OT in both options is attest to not having significantly different means between the different groups, which is also the case for AT and AM in the two-group scenario. Figure 10 provides an illustration of the components characteristics among the three clusters, thus pointing to the similarities and differences between the three groups of volunteers.

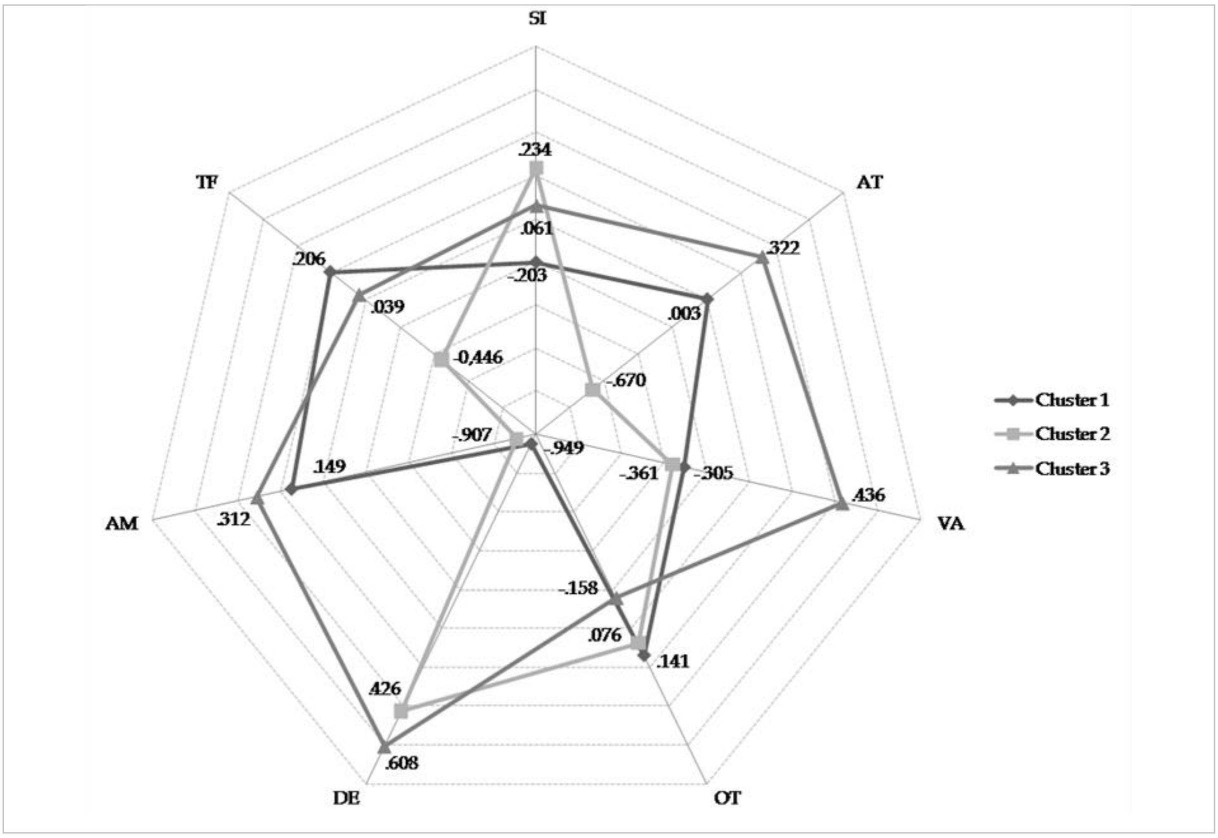

Figure 10: Component characteristics (mean) among clusters
Source: Author's own illustration.

Notably, the most distinguishing component is the low manifestation of DE for cluster 1 in comparison to cluster 2 and 3 while both cluster 1 and 3 score high on AM in comparison to cluster 2. Likewise, for AT scores for cluster 3 are higher than for cluster 1 and both higher than for cluster 3. With regard to VA cluster 3 has the highest scores while cluster 1 and 2 range both below -.3. TF is more important for cluster 1 and 3.

Having characterized the clusters by their scoring on the different components, I now turn to relate the socio-demographic data to the different clusters to picture the group of people underlying the clusters. Gender, age group, marital status, education, occupation and church attendance were investigated. As the socio-demographic data is mostly of nominal or ordinal nature, crosstabs (Appendix 19) and bar charts (Appendix 20) were used to summarize the results. Generally, the proportion of respondents in cluster 1 and 3 were higher for every variable; thus, cluster 2 is notably smaller. While *males* slightly dominate over *females* (11.5% vs. 9.3%) in cluster 2, females comprise a substantial majority in the two other clusters (24.3% and 25.7%). With regard to age, the majority of respondents in cluster 1 are between 19 and 25 years (11.7%). Cluster 2 is dominated by 36 to 49 old respondents (5.6%) while cluster 3 has a nearly equal distribution of *age groups* 19–25 (9.1%), 26–35 (9.1%), 36–49 (8.7%), and 50–65 (9.1%); excluded the groups "< 19" and "> 65"). Though the clusters differentiate on the magnitude of respondents for each characteristic, they jointly share that for marital status, education, occupation and church attendance respondents score highly on the same characteristic. For *marital status,* the majority of respondents in each cluster are married (17.7%, 11.2%, and 25.4%). Interestingly, only cluster 3 comprises widowed respondents (1.7%). Respondents are highly *educated* as most of them obtained a college or university degree (12.2%, 7.4%, and 13.0%) and *work* full-time (14.1%, 10.1%, and 14.5%) or at least part-time (7.9%, 4.0%, and 7.5%). Additionally, a substantial part of respondents in cluster 1 and cluster 3 are in academic or vocational training (12.3% and 10.1%). *Church attendance* in each cluster is high as respondents attend church events several times a week (26.7%, 10.8%, and 25.4%). However, a chi-square test for independence (Table 15) was conducted which revealed no significant association between the clusters and each of the socio-demographic variables. Thus, associations between clusters and socio-demographic variables are characteristically for the underlying sample only.

Variable	**N** of valid Cases	**Pearson Chi-Square**	**Assumption** (cells less than 5)	**df**	**Asympt. Sig.** (2-sided; ≤ .05)	**Result**
Gender	226	5.416	0 cells (0.0%)	2	.067	n.s.
Age Group	231	15.240	4 cells (22.2%)	10	.124	Assumption

Variable	**N** of valid Cases	**Pearson Chi-Square**	**Assumption** (cells less than 5)	**df**	**Asympt. Sig.** (2-sided; ≤ .05)	**Result**
Marital Status	232	15.855	7 cells (46.7%)	8	.045	violated
Education	230	13.407	6 cells (28.6%)	12	.340	
Occupation	227	17.494	7 cells (38.9%)	10	.064	
Church Attendance	232	15.931	6 cells (40.0%)	8	.043	

Table 15: Socio-demographic variables and clusters - Chi-square test for independence
Source: Author's own illustration.

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Drawing on the presented statistical results – both from model evaluation and explorative data analysis – in the preceding section, a discussion of the empirical findings based on the existing literature and previous research is presented in this section. Generally, the results of this study both support and augment the findings in prior literature.

First to mention is that the empirical research confirms prior research as the hypothesized model to great extend is confirmed by the empirical data. Thus existing theory on service quality, satisfaction and reputation as the proposed model explains about 50% of **retention**. As the *model evaluation* confirms, volunteer's retention could be impacted substantially through aspects of volunteer's job satisfaction and service quality along with organisational reputation; generally spoken by aspects, which are under the influence of the investigated organisation.

The findings corroborate the link between an organisation's **reputation** and a person's willingness to remain a volunteer with the organisation – the issue of "retention" when considered from the organisation's perspective (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010). Practically this advocates for an organisation that it can influence retention of its volunteers substantially by managing their reputation. On the theoretical level, these findings contribute to the body of literature as it generally confirms the proposed relations of Cronin's (2003) attitude-based model (Appendix 1). Thus it reintegrates an attitudinal component, represented by reputation (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010), into the investigation among service quality, satisfaction and a resulting behaviour. Since the sample for the empirical study is drawn from churches, the results extend knowledge in the fields of non-profit management and marketing, respectively church marketing. Especially with regard to the theoretical contribution, these findings spill over into the generic service research field. Furthermore, insights on volunteering and altruistic motivations could be equally important for services businesses due to the fact that customers need to be integrated to co-produce services. One could imagine that altruistic motivation could be used by for-profits when they outsource specific services to customers (i.e. support forums where customers help each other).

In spite of the limited theoretical evidence for an explicit link between **perceived service quality** and volunteer retention, we postulated a theoretical link between service quality and volunteer retention. Thus, I drew on the confirmed relation of service quality on a behavioural intention and interpreted volunteer retention as such a one. A significant but weak relation was confirmed which could be attributed to the theoretically constructed link and its possible lesser importance in the church context. Reflecting the attitude-based model

(Cronin, 2003), a second link from service quality to reputation, as reported in the literature (Sarstedt & Schloderer, 2010; Schwaiger, 2004), was confirmed. In line with previous research, the findings of this study confirm that outcome quality is an important dimension of perceived service quality: Volunteers value good experiences and support from co-volunteers and staff, which is also reflected in the social interaction-dimension in the satisfaction-construct. However, the importance of interaction quality was not supported (Santos & Mathews, 2001). A possible explanation might come from the fact that part of the interaction quality-dimensions (attitude, behaviour and expertise of co-volunteers and staff) are reflected in the social interaction-construct, which positively impacts satisfaction. The quality of the physical environment or servicescape (labelled physical evidence), though not being as important as the outcome-dimension, contributes to the overall quality. It is noteworthy that the design of facilities is most important followed by ambient conditions (i.e. temperature) and other people (social factor). A reason might be that design lies out of the volunteer's sphere of influence while he could possibly influence ambient conditions and social factors. Thus, adjustments to these two could be made by the volunteer when his expectation of quality is not met.

While existing research did not provide much evidence for the relation between **altruistic motivation** and retention (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Wisner et al., 2005) and altruism and satisfaction (Wisner et al., 2005), the results of our study indicate positive relations for both, retention and satisfaction. These findings may be due to the specific nature of the research context since Rehberg (2005) reports that altruistic motives frequently are rooted in religious tradition and belief systems. Altruism is confirmed to be an important driver of volunteering in the church context (Nelson, 1999). Moreover, altruistic motives resonate in the generic definition of service as "doing something for someone" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This might explain why contact to people to whom a person volunteers (customer contact) – in contrast to findings by Wisner et al. (2005) – were significant.

Consistent with existing research, the data confirms the relationship between volunteer's **satisfaction** and their intention to continue volunteering for the organisation (Miller et al., 1990; Seashore & Taber, 1975; Spector, 1985; Wisner et al., 2005). The findings confirm the positive effects of time flexibility, orientation and training, contact to other volunteers, social interaction, reflection as well as rewards and recognition on volunteer satisfaction. The highest weight on satisfaction is postulated by reflection which is in line with prior research (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Wisner et al., 2005). Contrary to previous empirical work, a positive effect of empowerment on satisfaction was not supported (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Wisner et al., 2005). A relatively low weight for reward is reported which might be explained by the fact that in the church context religious rewards and altruistic reasons for volunteering far outweighed material rewards (Nelson, 1999). The highest weight on satisfaction is postulated by reflection which is in line with prior research (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001) followed by social interaction (Wisner et al., 2005).

The factor analysis clearly provides evidence for the distinction between satisfaction and service quality as to the items loading on the different components (Appendix 15). Moreover, subsequent cluster analysis pinpoints to different groups of volunteers. Opting for a solution with only two groups, church volunteers in the sample are different with regard to their perception of social interaction, valence, and design and time flexibility. The three-cluster solution has advantageous predictive potential over the two-group option since it provides a more detailed insight on volunteer segments. While orientation and training is the uniting theme among all groups of volunteers, the different groups distinguish on the importance of the other components – social interaction, attitude, valence, design, altruistic motivation and time flexibility (Figure 10). In particular, altruistic motivation is a distinguishing characteristic, which is in line with the results form model evaluation. Moreover, the importance of design is to be considered which points to the role of servicescape (Parish et al., 2008). Attitude of people volunteers interact with – i.e. co-workers – is another discriminator among types of volunteers, which is in line with the importance of social interaction. It is noteworthy to stress orientation and training as the unifying theme among all types of volunteers that reflects similar results from previous research (Gidron, 1983; Wisner et al., 2005).
Relating the clusters to the socio-demographic variables of the sample gives a possibility to segment volunteers. While this procedure provides a clearer understanding of the sample, the associations between clusters and socio-demographic variables do not hold statistically, statistically, i.e. do not provide significant differences, which would allow draw conclusions for the whole population. However, the clusters pinpoint to potential similarities in other contexts. The clusters could be described as follows: The first cluster is best characterised by 19 to 25 year old married females valuing time flexibility. Cluster 2 comprises 36 to 49 year old males who value most the design of the facilities and who appreciate interaction with other volunteers as well as people they volunteer to. The last cluster consists of volunteers from a widespread age group (19 to 65), mainly females. Like the second cluster, they value the design of facilities but appreciate the outcome of the volunteer experience as well as the attitude of co-volunteers and staff.

Limitations and further research

Exploratory analysis clearly provides evidence for the distinction between satisfaction and service quality as to the items loading on the different components (Appendix 15). However, as to the sub-constructs, the exploratory investigation reveals possibilities for different conceptualizations of the constructs. Especially, the grouping of orientation and training along with empowerment needs further investigation in view of the non-significant relation of empowerment and the weak loading of orientation and training on satisfaction. The distinctive component for time flexibility might pinpoint to its underestimated importance relatively to the other sub-constructs. Hence, a more detailed investigation of the construct is needed in the future.

Moreover, as altruistic motivation emerged as a distinct component, there is scope to investigate whether the strong support for altruism holds in other contexts. Notably, the importance of religious values and belief systems are mentioned to strongly drive altruism (Rehberg, 2005). Thus, an investigation of the importance of altruism in absence of religious values at the core of an organisation – such as in governmental non-profits or in business – seems to be of importance. As altruism can be defined as "doing something for another at some cost to oneself" (Ozinga, 1999, p. 5) it clearly reflects the basic definition of service – "doing something for someone" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Moreover, altruism provides the distinction between volunteering and providing paid work as costs for the individual are higher than the value derived from service provision. For instance, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) note altruism to be a motivator for customers to volunteer in service and product development. Thus, people are willing to co-create value; especially when they believe their actions will make a positive difference (Lovelock &Young, 1979). Hoyer et al. (2010) propose that .some consumers may participate purely from a sense of altruism because they believe in the objectives of the activity (i.e. service). In the volunteer sector, it was found that altruism had the most influence on hours spent at the organisation (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2000). Hence, altruism is an intrinsic driver for co-production and the provision of quality service. Further research is needed to get detailed insights on how altruism is related to service quality (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2000). Moreover, additional research should reveal how organisations best can make use of altruism to involve unpaid people in service provision (i.e. volunteering, co-creation).

Thirdly, while perceived service quality is a third-order construct, the original conceptualization could be questioned in view of the findings from the factor analysis. Three components emerged from the analysis but none of them could be linked back clearly to the conceptualization - which is due to the fact that items from different sub-constructs loaded on each of the components. Thus, while service quality is paramount in the non-profit context, further research is needed on the conceptualization of service quality in non-profit contexts (Ezell et al., 1989; Ghobadian et al., 1994; Mirvis, 1992). Moreover, the emergence of facility design as important points to the overall importance of servicescape, which provides ground for further investigation of the link between servicescape and job satisfaction or the commitment towards the organisation (Parish et al., 2008).

A potential limitation with regard to the *methodology* could be the use of an online survey to collect data since it is possible that the sample obtained via e-mail, social media and personal referral solicitation might not be fully representative of a population of church volunteers. Future research should also address the limitations of the empirical study, which drew on a sample from the German church volunteers. Thus, generalizability of the results may be limited. Moreover, a replication in different contexts in the non-profit and for-profit domain might yield better results for the weak association of perceived service quality with retention and the relation of interaction quality. In addition, future research could employ a longitudinal design to reveal the dynamic aspect of satisfaction (LaBarbera & Mazurski, 1983) and relational perspective on service quality (Grönroos, 1996; Roos & Grönroos, 2000).
As some of the postulated relations were not supported empirically, further investigation of the reasons is needed. With regard to service quality, interaction quality was not significant. A possible explanation – as outlined above - is the similarity to the social interaction-dimension of satisfaction. Moreover, empowerment, counter intuitively and in contrast to prior research (Bowen & Lawler 1992; Wisner et al., 2005), is found to have no significant influence on satisfaction. While reliability and validity was controlled for, a possible explanation might be that dimensions were inadequately specified or did not make sense in the specific church context. Thus, replication in another context and further qualitative investigation of causes – i.e. reflection with additional experts on the wording of items and sense of the construct – could enhance the results.

Managerial implications

In conclusion, these findings have the potential to improve management of non-profit organisations including churches. First, it is noteworthy that **altruistic motivation** has significant influence on retention. Hence, part of the effect that accounts for volunteer's retention is ingrained intrinsically in the volunteer as part of the altruistic motives stems from religious tradition and belief systems (Rehberg, 2005). Thus, especially for churches and organisation, which build on strong, believes, altruism is a considerable driver. Moreover, religious rewards and altruistic reasons are far more important than material rewards for volunteering (Nelson, 1999).

Generally, there are three dimensions for management to positively influence retention of its volunteers. First, the organisation's **reputation** is of importance. High reputation is postulated to positively impact loyalty. Thus, management should think about volunteer's perception of the organisational image and communicate it appropriately. In case of low reputation, management should improve reputation, as this will increase loyalty: People volunteering for a prestigious organisation with a high reputation might be less likely quit volunteering since reputation serves as a reward. Moreover, high reputation might attract new volunteers. Second, reflection and social interaction contribute substantially to volunteer **satisfaction**. Reflection includes that volunteers want to think and talk about the value they are adding to the organisation. Thus, management may need to provide scheduled occasion during volunteer work to give volunteers the opportunity to engage in reflection. As rewards were also shown to significantly impact the satisfaction of volunteers, management should pay attention to provide formal (i.e. recognition events, 'volunteer of the month' awards) as well as informal (i.e. verbal thank you, slap on the back, birthday card) rewards. Wisner et al. (2005) note, that it is important to align award with volunteer's motivation for volunteering. For instance, recognition may contain a letter of recommendation letter or certificate, if a volunteer is attempting to gain work experience. To facilitate social interaction, organisations should pay attention to work design (i.e. teamwork). To provide time flexibility for each individual volunteer, management needs to have a substantial pool of volunteers and know their time preferences. Moreover, volunteers from different age groups with different occupation potentially cover a wide range of timeframes. For example, retired people could volunteer during daytime, students could volunteer after school and full-time employees could work on weekends or in the evening. In general, this requires that volunteer organisation profile their potential and existing volunteers to find the best fit between opportunities and candidates. Third, in view of the importance of the outcome quality for **service quality**, management should focus to maximize availability of superordinate staff or volunteers for support reasons. This could be enhanced by flat hierarchies where volunteers mutually help each other. Another option is to provide manuals, which provide guidance for standard cases or to make people available through phone and the like. What is reflected in the valence-dimension is that volunteers want to have a good volunteering experience. Thus, it is important for management to create opportunities for good volunteering experience. It is difficult to clearly give specific advice since good experiences are dependent on the organisation and on the volunteer's expectation. Again, management should investigate expectation and profile volunteers. Moreover, a general approach to provide good experience is to implement a culture where volunteers are valued. Here, management could draw on the dimension for volunteer satisfaction and service quality and improve them. However, it is noteworthy that high levels of quality and satisfaction for every dimension are not automatically driving retention. Thus, management should identify the dimension relevant to the organisation as well as to its volunteers.

CONCLUSION

Using the lens of internal marketing, this study contributes to the understanding and extension of knowledge of how non-profit organisations, specifically churches, can impact on retention of their volunteers. Non-profit organisations are faced with challenges that are not typical for service businesses as such. Foremost among these is that they rely heavily on volunteer labour as a primary resource. Previously, volunteer organisations may have assumed altruistic motivation of their volunteers to be sufficient to ensure their retention (Wisner et al., 2005). However, the findings of this study indicate that additional factors play a role, which lie within the sphere of the organisation, and are influential for volunteers' loyalty towards an organisation. Literature research in areas covered by this study revealed three important dimensions within the scope of an organisation, which have an influence on volunteer retention: the quality of services provided by the organisation to its volunteer, the volunteer's job satisfaction, and the organisation's reputation. All of these three constructs reflect the perspective of a volunteer's perception of quality, satisfaction and reputation. The impact of each distinct construct and of their relationships was verified empirically. The study does confirm prior knowledge regarding service quality, volunteer satisfaction and organisational reputation. Moreover, however, it links those specific constructs in a model thus providing a new conceptualization of driver constructs of volunteer retention. Additionally, this work integrates aspects of non-profit and volunteer management with commonly known for-profit concepts (i.e. service quality), thus enhancing the body of knowledge for non-profit marketing and management, especially with regard to church marketing. Hence, this study contributes to the existing body of research and provides evidence and practical guidance for the management of non-profit organisations. Furthermore, the explorative investigation of the empirical data pinpoints scope for further research since it reveals other relations and conceptualizations than witnessed by prevalent theory. In general, to improve the volunteering experience, it remains important to consider the specific nature and mission of an organisation and the expectations of its volunteers. In line with the internal marketing perspective, this study argues for a further priority namely a volunteer centred perspective where organisations focus on the provision of quality support, in order to enhance volunteer satisfaction and loyalty towards the organisation.

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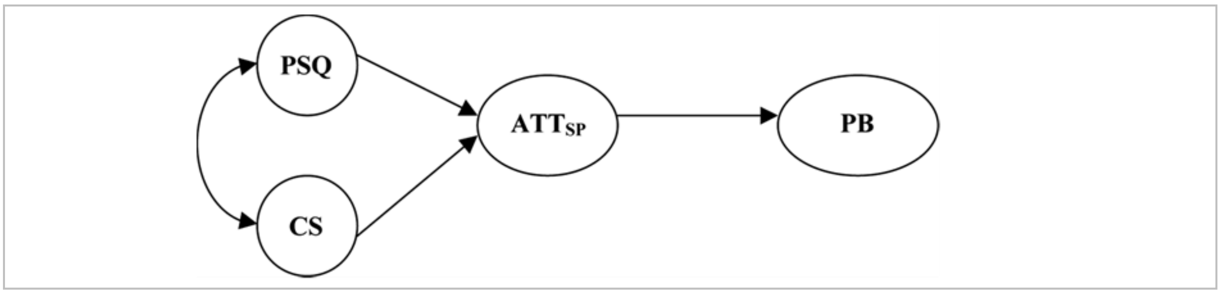
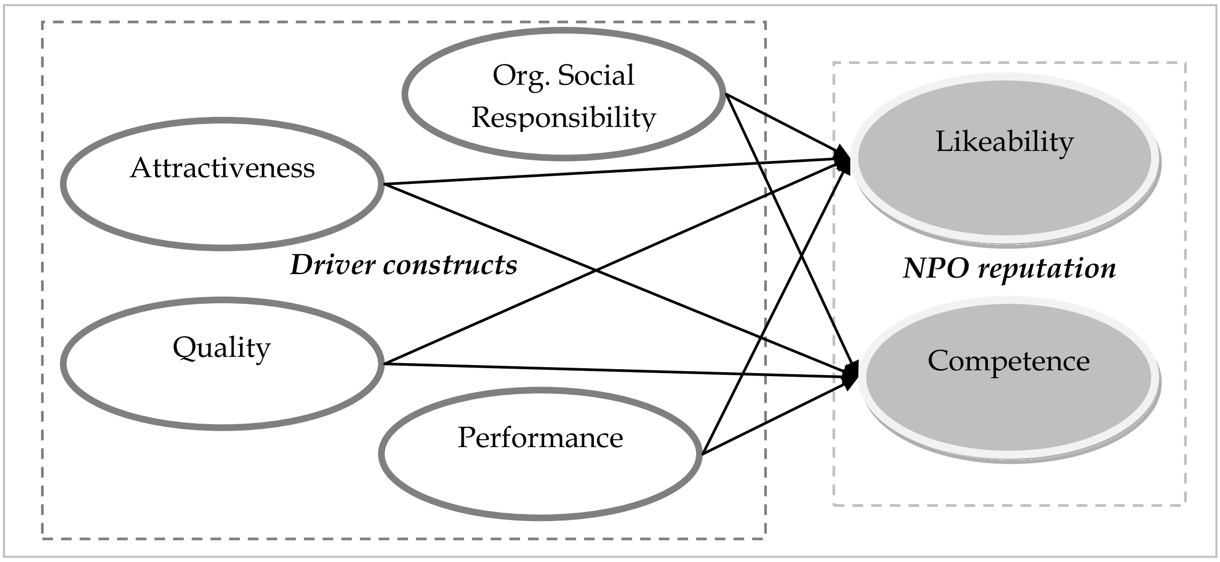
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Attitude-based model of perceived service quality and customer satisfaction purchase behaviour
Source: Cronin (2003)



Appendix 2: Original model: non-profit reputation
Source: Sarstedt & Schloderer (2010)



Appendix 3: Control variables
Source: Author's own illustration

Socio-demographic variables
Gender / ***Geschlecht*** Female /*Weiblich* Male / *Männlich* No answer / *keine Antwort* *Nominal, dichotomous*
Age / ***Alter*** Year of birth / *Geburtjahr* No answer / *keine Antwort* *Continuous, calculated via Year of birth*
Marital Status / ***Familienstand*** Single / *Ledig* In a relationship / *In einer Beziehung* Married / *Verheiratet* Divorced / *Geschieden* Widowed / *Verwitwet* No answer / *keine Antwort* *nominal*
Education / ***Erziehung*** Not graduated from school /*ohne Schulabschluss* Lower secondary school /*Hauptschule* Intermediate secondary school / *Realschul- oder Mittelschulabschluss* Advanced technical certificate /*Fachhochschulreife* Grammar school /*Allgemeine Hochschulreife* Apprenticeship /*Ausbildung* College or university degree / *Fachhochschul- oder Hochschulabschluss* No answer / *keine Antwort* *ordinal*
Occupation / ***Beschäftigung*** Unemployed / *Ohne Beschäftigung* Part-time employment / *Berufstätig Teilzeit* Full-time employment / *Berufstätig Vollzeit* Student, apprentice / *in der Ausbildung (Schüler, Student, Auszubildender)* Pensioner, retirement / *Ruhestand* Housewife/house-husband, parental leave / *Hausfrau, -mann oder Elternzeit* No answer / *keine Antwort* *nominal*

Context-specific variables
Church attendance / ***Teilnahme an Gemeinde-Aktivitäten*** Several times a week / *mehrfach wöchentlich* Weekly / *wöchentlich* Several times a month (but not weekly) / *mehrmals im Monat (aber nicht wöchentlich)* Once a month / *einmal im Monat* Irregularly / *sehr unregelmäßig* never / *gar nicht* *ordinal*

Appendix 4: Questionnaire items
Source: Author's own illustration

All items were measured on a seven-point Likert Scale

Retention
Please give us the likelihood in percentages (0-100) that you will continue volunteering for your church. *Geben Sie bitte eine Wahrscheinlichkeit für die Fortsetzung ihrer ehrenamtlichen Mitarbeit in der Gemeinde in Prozent (0-100) an.*
I intend to continue volunteering for my church. *Ich beabsichtige meine ehrenamtliche Mitarbeit in der Gemeinde fortzusetzen.* I do not intend to remain a long-term volunteer in my church. *Ich beabsichtige nicht auf lange Zeit ehrenamtlich in der Gemeinde mitzuarbeiten.* I plan to quit volunteering in my church soon. *Ich werde meine ehrenamtliche Mitarbeit in der Gemeinde bald beenden.* If I had wanted to start volunteering now, this church would be my first choice. *Wenn ich jetzt eine Tätigkeit zur ehrenamtlichen Mitarbeit suchte, würde ich diese Gemeinde wählen.* I would encourage friends and relatives to volunteer my the church. *Ich würde Freunde und Bekannte ermutigen in dieser Gemeinde ehrenamtlich mitzuarbeiten.*

Perceived Service Quality
You can count on the volunteers and staff at my church being friendly. *Man kann sich darauf verlassen, dass die ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und die Angestellten meiner Gemeinde stets freundlich sind.* The attitude of the volunteers and staff in the church, I belong to, demonstrates their willingness to serve and help me. *Die ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde haben eine Mentalität des Dienens und der Hilfsbereitschaft mir gegenüber.* The attitude of the volunteers and staff shows me that they understand my needs. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten zeigen mir, dass sie meine Bedürfnisse kennen und verstehen.*

I can count on volunteers and staff of at the church that I belong to, taking actions to address my needs. *Ich kann mich darauf verlassen, dass ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende und Angestellte, mit denen ich zusammenarbeite, etwas unternehmen, um auf meinen Bedürfnissen einzugehen.* Volunteers and staff respond quickly to my needs. Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende und Angestellte, mit denen ich zusammenarbeite, reagieren schnell auf meine Bedürfnisse. The behaviour of volunteers and staff indicates to me that they understand my needs. *Im Umgang ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitender und Angestellter, mit denen ich zusammenarbeite, mit mir zeigt sich, dass sie meine Bedürfnisse verstehen.*
You can count on volunteers and staff knowing their jobs. *Ich kann mich darauf verlassen, dass ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende und Angestellte wissen, was ihre Aufgaben sind.* Volunteers and staff are able to answer my questions quickly. *Fragen und Unklarheiten meinerseits werden schnell beantwortet.* Volunteers and staff understand that I rely on their knowledge. *Die ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten, mit denen ich zusammenarbeite, sind sich bewusst, dass ich auf ihr Wissen und ihre Fähigkeiten angewiesen bin.*
At the church, I belong to, you can rely that atmosphere (i.e. temperature, lighting, odour) in the buildings I volunteer in, is good. *Man kann sich darauf verlassen, dass die Atmosphäre (z.B. Temperatur, Lichtverhältnisse Geruch) in den Räume und Gebäuden, in denen ich tätig bin, gut ist.* The ambiance at the church, I belong to, is what I'm looking for in a church. *Eine Atmosphäre, wie sie in meiner Gemeinde vorhanden ist, sollte jede Gemeinde haben.* Volunteers and staff at the church understand that its atmosphere is important to me. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde wissen, dass Atmosphäre für mich wichtig ist.*
The layout of the church, I belong to, never fails to impress me. *Die Gestaltung und Einrichtung der Räume und des Gebäudes, in denen ich tätig bin, beeindruckt mich immer wieder.* The layout of the church, I belong to, serves my purposes. *Die Gestaltung und Einrichtung der Räume und des Gebäudes, in denen ich tätig bin, erfüllt – aus meiner Sicht – ihren Zweck.* Other volunteers and staff understand that the design of its facilities is important to me. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde wissen, dass mir räumliche Gestaltung wichtig ist.*
Other volunteers and staff of the church that I belong to, consistently leave me with a good impression when I volunteer at the church. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde tragen dazu bei, dass ich ein positives Gefühl habe, während ich in meiner Gemeinde tätig bin.* Other volunteers and staff do not affect the ability, to provide good quality service in my volunteering activity. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde beeinflussen die Qualität meiner ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit nicht.* Other volunteers and staff of my church understand that they affect how I perceive the quality if

my volunteer work. *Die anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten meiner Gemeinde wissen, dass sie Einfluss darauf haben, wie ich meine Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde wahrnehme.*
I am aware that there are times in my church when responsible people are not available if I have questions or need support. *Mir ist bewusst, dass es in meiner Gemeinde Zeiträume gibt, in denen Verantwortliche nicht verfügbar sind, wenn ich Fragen habe oder Hilfe und Unterstützung benötige.* My church tries to minimize times when responsible people are not available if I have questions or need support. *Meine Gemeinde versucht Zeiträume, in denen Verantwortliche nicht verfügbar sind, gering zu halten.* The responsible people in my church understand that their availability if I have questions or need support matters to me. *Die Verantwortlichen in meiner Gemeinde wissen, dass ihre Erreichbarkeit und Verfügbarkeit, wenn ich Hilfe und Unterstützung benötige, für mich von Bedeutung ist.*
I am consistently pleased with the outward appearance (i.e. appearance of the buildings, furnishing, and website) of my church. *Ich bin durchweg zufrieden mit dem äußeren Erscheinungsbild (z.B. Aussehen der Gebäude, Einrichtungsgegenstände, Gestaltung des Materials und Internetauftritts) meiner Gemeinde.* I like the church that I belong to, because it has the outward appearance that I want. *Ich mag meine Gemeinde, weil sie genau das äußere Erscheinungsbild hat, dass ich mir vorstelle.* The responsible people in my church know what outward appearance is important to me. *Verantwortliche in meiner Gemeinde wissen, dass das äußere Erscheinungsbild der Gemeinde wichtig für mich ist.*
When I leave the church after volunteering, I usually feel that I had a good experience. *Wenn ich nach meiner Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde nach Hause gehe, habe ich für gewöhnlich das Gefühl, ein gutes Erlebnis gehabt zu haben.* I believe the church, I belong to, tries to give me a good experience during my volunteering activity. *Ich glaube, dass meine Gemeinde versucht, mir ein gutes Gefühl und gute Erlebnisse in meiner ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit zu bescheren.* I believe that responsible people in my church know that good experiences matter to me. *Ich glaube, dass Verantwortliche in meiner Gemeinde um die Bedeutung eines guten Gefühls und guter Erlebnisse für mich wissen.*
Overall, I'd say the quality of my interaction with volunteers and staff in my church is excellent. *Insgesamt würde ich sagen, dass meine Zusammenarbeit mit anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten in meiner Gemeinde ausgezeichnet ist.* I would say that the quality of my interaction with other volunteers and staff in my church is high. *Ich würde sagen, dass die Qualität der Zusammenarbeit mit anderen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten in meiner Gemeinde hoch ist.*
I would say that physical environment of the church, I belong to, is one of the best in comparison to other churches. *Die räumliche Gestaltung (z.B. Einrichtung, Dekoration) meiner Gemeinde gefällt mir, im Vergleich zu anderen Gemeinden, am besten*. I would attribute high quality to the physical environment of my church. *Die Gestaltung der Räume*

und Gebäude empfinde ich als sehr wichtig.
I always have an excellent experience when I volunteer at the church, I belong to. *Es ist immer ein hervorragendes Erlebnis, wenn ich eine ehrenamtliche Aufgabe in meiner Gemeinde wahrnehme.* I feel good about the volunteering opportunities my church provides. *Die Möglichkeiten zur ehrenamtlichen Mitarbeit in meiner Gemeinde empfinde ich als gut.*
I would say that my church provides superior service with its volunteering activities. *Ich würde sagen, dass meine Gemeinde, mit dem was ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende dort tun, überragende Dinge leistet.* I believe that volunteers and staff at my church provide excellent service to achieve the mission of the church. *Ich bin der Meinung, dass ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende und Angestellte in meiner Gemeinde ihre Aufgaben hervorragend erfüllen und dem Auftrag der Gemeinde gerecht werden.*

Satisfaction
Demands of my volunteer activity are so great that they take away from my other activities (i.e. family, work, outside interests). *Die Anforderungen meiner ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde sind so hoch, dass ich anderen Aktivitäten (z.B. Family, Beruf, Hobbys) nicht in gewünschtem Maß nachgehen kann.* When I volunteer I have so much to do that it takes away from my personal interests. *Meine ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde fordert mich so sehr, dass ich meinen persönlichen Interessen nicht mehr in vollem Maß nachgehen kann.* My volunteer activities take up time that I'd rather spend with family or friends. *Meine ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde nimmt Zeit in Anspruch, die ich lieber mit meiner Familie oder Freunden verbringen würde.* The hours that I volunteer fit my schedule just fine. *Aus zeitlicher Sicht passt meine ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde sehr gut in meine Terminplanung.* Short term volunteer opportunities are available in the church, I belong to. *In meiner Gemeinde gibt es die Möglichkeit auf einen kurzen Zeitraum befristete bzw. projektähnliche ehrenamtliche Tätigkeiten zu übernehmen.*
Volunteers receive training prior to beginning work in the church, I belong to. *In meiner Gemeinde werden ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende geschult, bevor sie eine Aufgabe in der Gemeinde übernehmen.* Training is part of this church's volunteer management program. *Schulungen und Fortbildungen sind feste Bestandteile für ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende in meiner Gemeinde.* The church has an orientation program for all new volunteers. *Die Gemeinde bietet für alle, die neu eine ehrenamtliche Aufgabe übernehmen wollen, Unterstützung, um den richtigen Platz zu finden.* The church provides orientation materials to volunteers. *Die Gemeinde bietet Informationsmaterial zur ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde an.* Volunteers are regularly trained during their time with the church, I belong to. The church provides minimal training to new volunteers. *Die Gemeinde bietet nur wenig Schulung und Fortbildung für ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende an.*

Face-to- face contact between volunteers and other people (i.e. other church members, guests) during volunteering activities is high. *Der direkte Kontakt zwischen ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und anderen Leuten in der Gemeinde (z.B. Gottesdienstbesucher, Teilnehmende in Gruppen und Kreisen) ist hoch.*

Volunteers are actively involved in planning and development of activities and programs of the church. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende sind aktiv in die Entwicklung und Planung von Aktivitäten und Angeboten der Gemeinde eingebunden.*

The church provides leadership opportunities for volunteers. *Die Gemeinde bietet ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden die Möglichkeit Verantwortung (z.B. in der Leitung oder in eigenständigen Projekten) zu übernehmen.*

The church modifies its processes and structures in response to volunteer feedback and needs. *In meiner Gemeinde werden Abläufe und Strukturen auf die Anforderungen und Bedürfnisse ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitender angepasst.*

Volunteers do not have contact with other people outside their volunteering opportunity. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende in meiner Gemeinde haben keinen Kontakt zu anderen Leuten außerhalb ihres Arbeitsbereichs.*

Volunteers have direct contact with the people at the church. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende in meiner Gemeinde haben direkten Kontakt mit anderen Leuten in der Gemeinde.*

Volunteers have the opportunity to interact with each other. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende haben die Möglichkeit miteinander zu interagieren und zusammenzuarbeiten.*

Volunteers interact with our paid employees on a regular basis. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende arbeiten regelmäßig mit bezahlten Angestellten zusammen.*

Other volunteers and staff in my church are friendly. *Die andere ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten in meiner Gemeinde sind freundlich.*

Responsible people in my church make sure that I get along well with my fellow volunteers and staff. *Verantwortliche in meiner Gemeinde tragen dafür Sorge, dass zwischen mir und den ehrenamtliche Mitarbeitenden und Angestellten, mit denen ich zusammenarbeite, ein guter Umgang herrscht.*

Responsible people in my church facilitate social interactions between volunteers. *Die Verantwortlichen meiner Gemeinde fördern den Umgang ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitender untereinander.*

Staff members of this church are very pleasant to deal with. *Der Umgang mit (bezahlten) Angestellten der Gemeinde ist sehr angenehm.*

The church provides information to volunteers about the mission of the church. *Ehrenamtliche Mitarbeitende erhalten Informationen über den Auftrag und die Aufgaben der Gemeinde.*

The church provides information to volunteers about policy issues related to the mission of the church. *Ehrenamtliche Mitarbeitende erhalten Informationen über Aktivitäten, Ausrichtung und Grundsatzfragen bezüglich des Auftrags der Gemeinde.*

The church provides opportunities for volunteers to think of and reflect on their experiences with other people. *In meiner Gemeinde gibt es Möglichkeiten für ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende sich Gedanken zu machen und sich mit anderen Mitarbeitenden über die eigene Tätigkeit auszutauschen.*

The church frequently reminds volunteers about the impact that they have on the people that they serve. *In meiner Gemeinde werden ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende regelmäßig daran erinnert, welche Bedeutung sie für die Menschen, denen sie dienen, haben.*
The church makes sure that all new volunteers understand the positive impact they are having on the people it serves. *In meiner Gemeinde wird sichergestellt, dass neue Mitarbeitende verstehen, welchen Einfluss sie auf die Menschen haben, denen sie dienen.*
Volunteers receive feedback on the impact of their work. *In meiner Gemeinde erhalten ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende Rückmeldung darüber, welchen Wert ihre Tätigkeit hat.*
Volunteers understand how much they matter in fulfilling the church's mission. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende in meiner Gemeinde sind sich bewusst, wie wichtig sie dafür sind, dass die Gemeinde ihren Auftrag und die damit verbundenen Aufgaben erfüllen kann.*
The church arranges parties or luncheons to thank volunteers. *In meiner Gemeinde werden Feste und gemeinsame Essen veranstaltet, um ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden zu danken.*
Volunteers receive thank you letters or certificates of appreciation from our church. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende erhalten seitens der Gemeinde Dankesbriefe oder schriftliche Auszeichnungen, die ihre ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit würdigen.*
The church has a volunteer reward program to thank volunteers. *Meine Gemeinde hat ein spezielles einheitliches Konzept, um ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitenden für ihre Tätigkeit zu danken.*
People constantly express their appreciation for our volunteers' efforts. *Mitarbeitenden wird regelmäßig Wertschätzung für ihre ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit entgegen gebracht.*
The church recognizes outstanding volunteers. *In meiner Gemeinde wird außerordentliche ehrenamtliche Leistung wahrgenommen.*
Volunteers receive no special recognition in our church. *Ehrenamtlich Mitarbeitende erhalten keine besondere Anerkennung in meiner Gemeinde.*
Overall, I am satisfied with my volunteer experience at my church. *Insgesamt bin ich mit meiner ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit in der Gemeinde zufrieden.*
I am satisfied with the people who lead the church. *Ich bin mit den verantwortlichen Personen in meiner Gemeinde zufrieden.*
I am satisfied with the church's policies. *Ich bin mit der inhaltlichen Ausrichtung, den Aktivitäten und Grundsätzen meiner Gemeinde zufrieden.*
I am satisfied with the support provided by the church in helping me to do volunteer work. *Ich bin zufrieden damit, wie mich meine Gemeinde unterstützt und mir hilft, dass ich meine ehrenamtliche Tätigkeit ausüben kann.*
I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement in the church. *Ich bin mit den vorhandenen Möglichkeiten, mich weiterzuentwickeln, zufrieden.*

Reputation
I can identify better with the church, I belong to, than with other churches. *Mit der Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, kann ich mich besser identifizieren als mit anderen Gemeinden.*
If my church no longer existed I would miss it more than I would miss other churches. *Ich würde die Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, mehr vermissen als andere Gemeinden, wenn es sie nicht mehr gäbe.*
I regard the church, I belong to, as a likeable church. *Ich betrachte die Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, als eine Gemeinde, in der man sich wohlfühlt.*
The church, I belong to, is a top church among existing churches. *Die Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, ist eine herausragende Gemeinde im Vergleich zu anderen Gemeinden, die ich kenne.*
As far as I know my church is recognized in our area and beyond. *Soweit ich weiß, ist die Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, in ihrem Einzugsbereich und darüber hinaus bekannt.*
I believe that the church, I belong to, performs its mission and tasks at a premium level. *Ich glaube, dass die Gemeinde, zu der ich gehöre, ihre Aufgaben und ihren Auftrag sehr gut erfüllt.*

Altruistic motivation
I want to help others. *Ich möchte anderen helfen.*
I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself. *Ich sorge mich um die, die weniger haben als ich.*
I feel compassion toward people in need. *Ich habe Mitgefühl gegenüber Leuten, die bedürftig sind.*
I feel it is important to help others. *Ich habe das Gefühl, dass es wichtig ist, anderen zu helfen.*
I want to do something for a cause that it important to me. *Ich möchte mich in einer Sache engagieren, die mir etwas bedeutet.*
I want to give back to the community. *Ich möchte der Gesellschaft/Allgemeinheit etwas zurück geben.*
I want to do something worthwhile. *Ich möchte etwas Sinnvolles und Wertvolles tun.*
By volunteering I help to create a better society. *Mit meinem ehrenamtlichen Engagement trage ich dazu bei, eine bessere Gesellschaft zu schaffen.*
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving. *Ich sorge mich um die Menschen, um die ich mich kümmere.*

Appendix 5: Original items for the volunteer satisfaction-construct

Source: Wisner et al. (2005)

Time Flexibility

- The organisation's demands are so great that they take away from my other activities (e.g., family, work, outside interests) (reverse-coded).
- In my volunteer activities I have so much to do that it takes away from my personal interests (reverse-coded).
- My volunteer activities take up time that I'd rather spend with family/friends (reverse-coded).
- The hours that I volunteer fit my schedule just fine.
- Short term assignments are available in this organisation.

Orientation and Training

- Volunteers receive training prior to beginning work in this organisation.
- Training is part of this organisation's volunteer management program.
- The organisation has an orientation program for all new volunteers.
- The organisation provides an orientation packet to volunteers.
- Volunteers are regularly trained during their time with this organisation.
- The organisation provides minimal training to new volunteers (reverse-scored).

Empowerment

- Volunteers are actively involved in planning and development of activities.
- The organisation provides leadership opportunities for volunteers.
- The organisation modifies its processes in response to volunteer feedback.
- Volunteers do not have contact with our organisation's clients (reverse-scored).
- Volunteers have direct contact with the people the organisation serves.

Social Interaction

- Volunteers have the opportunity to interact with each other.
- Volunteers interact with our paid employees on a regular basis.
- People in this organisation are friendly.
- The organisation makes sure that I get along well with my fellow volunteers.
- The organisation facilitates social interactions between volunteers.
- Staff members of this organisation are very pleasant to deal with.

Reflection

- The organisation provides information to volunteers about the mission of the organisation.
- The organisation provides information to volunteers about policy issues related to the mission of the organisation.
- The organisation provides opportunities for volunteers to reflect on their experiences.
- The organisation frequently reminds volunteers about the impact that they have on the people that we serve.
- The organisation makes sure that all new volunteers understand the positive impact they are having on the people it serves.
- Volunteers receive feedback on the impact of their work.
- Volunteers understand how much they matter in fulfilling the organisation's mission.

Rewards

- The organisation arranges parties or luncheons to thank volunteers.
- Volunteers receive thank you letters or certificates of appreciation from our organisation.
- The organisation has a volunteer reward program.
- Staff members constantly express their appreciation for our volunteer efforts.
- The organisation recognizes outstanding volunteers.
- Volunteers receive no special recognition in our organisation.

Altruistic Motivation

- I want to help others.
- I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
- I feel compassion toward people in need.
- I feel it is important to help others.
- I want to do something for a cause that it important to me.
- I want to give back to the community.
- I want to do something worthwhile.
- By volunteering I help to create a better society.
- I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.

Satisfaction

- Overall, I am satisfied with my volunteer experience.

- I am satisfied with the people who manage the organisation.
- I am satisfied with the organisation's policies.
- I am satisfied with the support provided by the organisation.
- I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement in the organisation.

Intent to remain

- I intend to continue volunteering for this organisation.
- I would like to remain a volunteer here.
- I do not intend to remain a long-term volunteer for this organisation.
- I plan to quit volunteering here soon.

Appendix 6: Original items for the Retention likelihood-construct

Source: Nguyen & Leblanc (2001a)

- If I had needed __ service now, ABC would be my first choice.
- I will continue to do business with ABC.
- I would recommend ABC as the best ___service company in the area.
- I would encourage friends and relatives to do business with ABC.

Appendix 7: Original items for the Perceived Service Quality-construct

Source: Brady & Cronin (2001)

Interaction Quality (IQ)

- Overall, I'd say the quality of my interaction with this firm's employees is excellent.
- I would say that the quality of my interaction with XYZ's employees is high.

Attitude (AT)

- You can count on the employees at XYZ being friendly (R).
- The attitude of XYZ's employees demonstrates their willingness to help me (S).
- The attitude of XYZ's employees shows me that they understand my needs (E).

Behavior (BE)

- I can count on XYZ's employees taking actions to address my needs (R).

- XYZ's employees respond quickly to my needs (S).
- The behavior of XYZ's employees indicates to me that they understand my needs (E).

Expertise (EX)

- You can count on XYZ's employees knowing their jobs (R).
- XYZ employees are able to answer my questions quickly (S).
- The employees understand that I rely on their knowledge to meet my needs (E).

Physical Environment Quality (PQ)

- I would say that XYZ's physical environment is one of the best in its industry.
- I would rate XYZ's physical environment highly.

Ambient Conditions (AC)

- At XYZ, you can rely on there being a good atmosphere (R).
- XYZ's ambiance is what I'm looking for in at service provider of that category (S).
- XYZ understands that its atmosphere is important to me (E).

Design (DE)

- This service provider's layout never fails to impress me (R).
- XYZ's layout serves my purposes (S).
- XYZ understands that the design of its facility is important to me (E).

Social Factors (SF)

- I find that XYZ's other customers consistently leave me with a good impression of its service (R).
- XYZ's other customers do not affect its ability to provide me with good service (S).
- XYZ understands that other patrons affect my perception of its service (E).

Outcome Quality (OQ)

- I always have an excellent experience when I visit XYZ.
- I feel good about what XYZ provides to its customers.

Waiting Time (WT)

- Waiting time at XYZ is predictable (R).
- XYZ tries to keep my waiting time to a minimum (S).

- This service provider understands that waiting time is important to me (E).

Tangibles (TA)

- I am consistently pleased with the __ at XYZ (R).
- I like XYZ because it has the __ that I want (S).
- XYZ knows the kind of its customers are looking for (E).

Valence (VA)

Directions: These questions refer to whether you think the outcome of your experience was good or bad. Please choose the number which best reflects your perception of whether your experience was good or bad.

- When I leave XYZ, I usually feel that I had a good experience (R).
- I believe XYZ tries to give me a good experience (S).
- I believe XYZ knows the type of experience its customers want (E).

Perceived Service Quality (PSQ)

- I would say that XYZ provides superior service.
- I believe XYZ offers excellent service.

Appendix 8: Original items for the Reputation-construct

Source: Sarstedt & Schloderer (2010)

- . . . is an organisation I can identify with better than with other organisations
- . . . is an organisation I would miss more ifit no longer existed than I would other organisations
- I regard . . . as a likeable organisation
- . . . is a top NPO in its market
- As far as I know . . . is recognized world-wide
- I believe that . . . performs at a premium level

Appendix 9: Factor loadings (λ) for all reflective constructs (initial model)

Source: Author's own illustration

Perceived Service Quality (PSQ)			***Satisfaction (SAT)***			***Retention (RET)***		
	(threshold)	λ (≥ .707)		*(threshold)*	λ (≥ .707)		*(threshold)*	λ (≥ .707)
AT			TF			RET		
	AT1	.866		TF1	.773		RETC	.156
	AT2	.918		TF2	.766		RET1	.734
	AT3	.848		TF3	.748		RET2	.518
BE				TF4	.688		RET3	.642
	BE1	.934		TF5	.558		RET4	.820
	BE2	.929	OT				RET5	.753
	BE3	.942		OT1	.883			
EX				OT2	.855			
	EX1	.882		OT3	.823			
	EX2	.908		OT4	.732			
	EX3	.863		OT5	.833			
AC				OT6	.714			
	AC1	.811	CC					
	AC2	.849		CC1	1.0			
	AC3	.713	EM					
DE				EM1	.839			
	DE1	.884		EM2	.725			
	DE2	.779		EM3	.794			
	DE3	.727		EM4	.528			
SF				EM5	.571			
	SF1	.838	SI					
	SF2	.168		SI1	.623			
	SF3	.814		SI2	.305			
WT				SI3	.743			
	WT1	-.027		SI4	.825			
	WT2	.808		SI5	.866			
	WT3	.925		SI6	.658			
TA			RF					
	TA1	.852		RF1	.830			
	TA2	.905		RF2	.881			
	TA3	.665		RF3	.807			
VA				RF4	.825			
	VA1	.846		RF5	.839			
	VA2	.872		RF6	.849			
	VA3	.812		RF7	.749			
IQ			RW					
	IQ1	.960		RW1	.775			
	IQ2	.960		RW2	.665			
PQ				RW3	.663			
	PQ1	.933		RW4	.780			
	PQ2	.548		RW5	.842			
OQ				RW6	.682			
	OQ1	.785	SAT					
	OQ2	.886		SAT1	.797			
PSQ				SAT2	.833			
	PSQ1	.927		SAT3	.829			
	PSQ2	.937		SAT4	.868			
				SAT5	.785			

Appendix 10: Reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Validity Coefficients (initial model)

Source: Author's own illustration

	AT	BE	EX	AC	DE	SF	WT	TA	VA	IQ	PQ	OQ	PSQ	TF	OT	CC	EM	SI	RF	RW	SAT	RET
AT	**0.878**																					
BE	0.697	**0.935**																				
EX	0.797	0.641	**0.884**																			
AC	0.507	0.576	0.491	**0.793**																		
DE	0.350	0.430	0.350	0.605	**0.799**																	
SF	0.647	0.688	0.645	0.610	0.571	**0.681**																
WT	0.466	0.534	0.492	0.512	0.409	0.553	**0.709**															
TA	0.447	0.481	0.555	0.628	0.553	0.583	0.538	**0.814**														
VA	0.598	0.657	0.600	0.451	0.381	0.628	0.489	0.410	**0.844**													
IQ	0.728	0.706	0.735	0.504	0.432	0.669	0.502	0.491	0.641	**0.960**												
PQ	0.310	0.317	0.350	0.541	0.678	0.504	0.324	0.630	0.325	0.385	**0.765**											
OQ	0.570	0.544	0.673	0.473	0.334	0.553	0.452	0.492	0.690	0.601	0.302	**0.837**										
PSQ	0.509	0.438	0.560	0.538	0.411	0.517	0.430	0.483	0.462	0.448	0.338	0.650	**0.932**									
TF	0.243	0.340	0.254	0.229	0.133	0.236	0.217	0.255	0.340	0.329	0.212	0.314	0.162	**0.711**								
OT	0.246	0.385	0.350	0.353	0.320	0.333	0.415	0.319	0.371	0.371	0.189	0.412	0.349	0.204	**0.809**							
CC	0.197	0.215	0.258	0.159	0.209	0.161	0.238	0.187	0.225	0.291	0.159	0.183	0.199	0.130	0.255	**0.000**						
EM	0.266	0.375	0.262	0.304	0.262	0.269	0.273	0.185	0.342	0.321	0.117	0.324	0.419	0.105	0.575	0.574	**0.702**					
SI	0.542	0.542	0.558	0.343	0.302	0.440	0.427	0.360	0.462	0.516	0.196	0.466	0.406	0.234	0.554	0.455	0.638	**0.695**				
RF	0.493	0.594	0.537	0.470	0.409	0.514	0.504	0.432	0.573	0.594	0.344	0.509	0.479	0.224	0.646	0.477	0.642	0.741	**0.827**			
RW	0.447	0.398	0.480	0.318	0.221	0.375	0.367	0.368	0.482	0.434	0.250	0.440	0.396	0.260	0.466	0.196	0.388	0.569	0.630	**0.738**		
SAT	0.613	0.594	0.637	0.512	0.397	0.553	0.489	0.498	0.582	0.675	0.335	0.635	0.520	0.319	0.555	0.398	0.534	0.704	0.777	0.605	**0.823**	
RET	0.428	0.414	0.409	0.342	0.336	0.358	0.358	0.339	0.472	0.443	0.152	0.440	0.401	0.348	0.356	0.271	0.407	0.568	0.496	0.393	0.609	**0.643**
Alpha	0.850	0.928	0.861	0.704	0.720	0.212	0.429	0.737	0.810	0.915	0.346	0.580	0.849	0.758	0.895	1.000	0.742	0.771	0.923	0.840	0.881	0.674
CR	0.910	0.954	0.915	0.835	0.840	0.673	0.661	0.853	0.881	0.959	0.726	0.824	0.930	0.835	0.919	1.000	0.825	0.839	0.938	0.877	0.913	0.789
AVE	0.771	0.874	0.782	0.629	0.639	0.464	0.503	0.662	0.712	0.921	0.585	0.701	0.869	0.506	0.655	1.000	0.493	0.483	0.684	0.544	0.677	0.414
FLC	0.878	0.935	0.884	0.793	0.799	0.681	0.709	0.814	0.844	0.960	0.765	0.837	0.932	0.711	0.809	0.574	0.702	0.741	0.827	0.738	0.823	0.643
R^2	0.530	0.499	0.540	0.293	0.459	0.254	0.204	0.242	0.476	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.457	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.670	0.542

Threshold values: Alpha ≥ .7; CR ≥ .7; FLC: $\sqrt{AVE}$ ≥ |Corr|: R^2 ≥ .4

Appendix 11: Factor loadings (λ) for all reflective constructs (calibrated model)

Source: Author's own illustration

Perceived Service Quality (PSQ)			*Satisfaction (SAT)*			*Retention (RET)*		
	(threshold)	λ *(≥ .707)*		*(threshold)*	λ *(≥ .707)*		*(threshold)*	λ *(≥ .707)*
AT			TF			RET		
	AT1	.866		TF1	.773		RET1	.734
	AT2	.918		TF2	.766		RET4	.820
	AT3	.848		TF3	.748		RET5	.753
BE			OT					
	BE1	.934		OT1	.883			
	BE2	.929		OT2	.855			
	BE3	.942		OT3	.823			
EX				OT4	.732			
	EX1	.882		OT5	.833			
	EX2	.908		OT6	.714			
	EX3	.863	CC					
AC				CC1	1.0			
	AC1	.811	EM					
	AC2	.849		EM1	.839			
	AC3	.713		EM2	.725			
DE				EM3	.794			
	DE1	.884	SI					
	DE2	.779		SI3	.743			
	DE3	.727		SI4	.825			
SF				SI5	.866			
	SF1	.838	RF					
	SF3	.814		RF1	.830			
WT				RF2	.881			
	WT2	.808		RF3	.807			
	WT3	.925		RF4	.825			
TA				RF5	.839			
	TA1	.852		RF6	.849			
	TA2	.905		RF7	.749			
VA			RW					
	VA1	.846		RW1	.775			
	VA2	.872		RW4	.780			
	VA3	.812		RW5	.842			
IQ			SAT					
	IQ1	.960		SAT1	.797			
	IQ2	.960		SAT2	.833			
PQ				SAT3	.829			
	PQ1	.933		SAT4	.868			
OQ				SAT5	.785			
	OQ1	.785						
	OQ2	.886						
PSQ								
	PSQ1	.927						
	PSQ2	.937						

Appendix 12: Reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Validity Coefficients (calibrated model)

Source: Author's own illustration

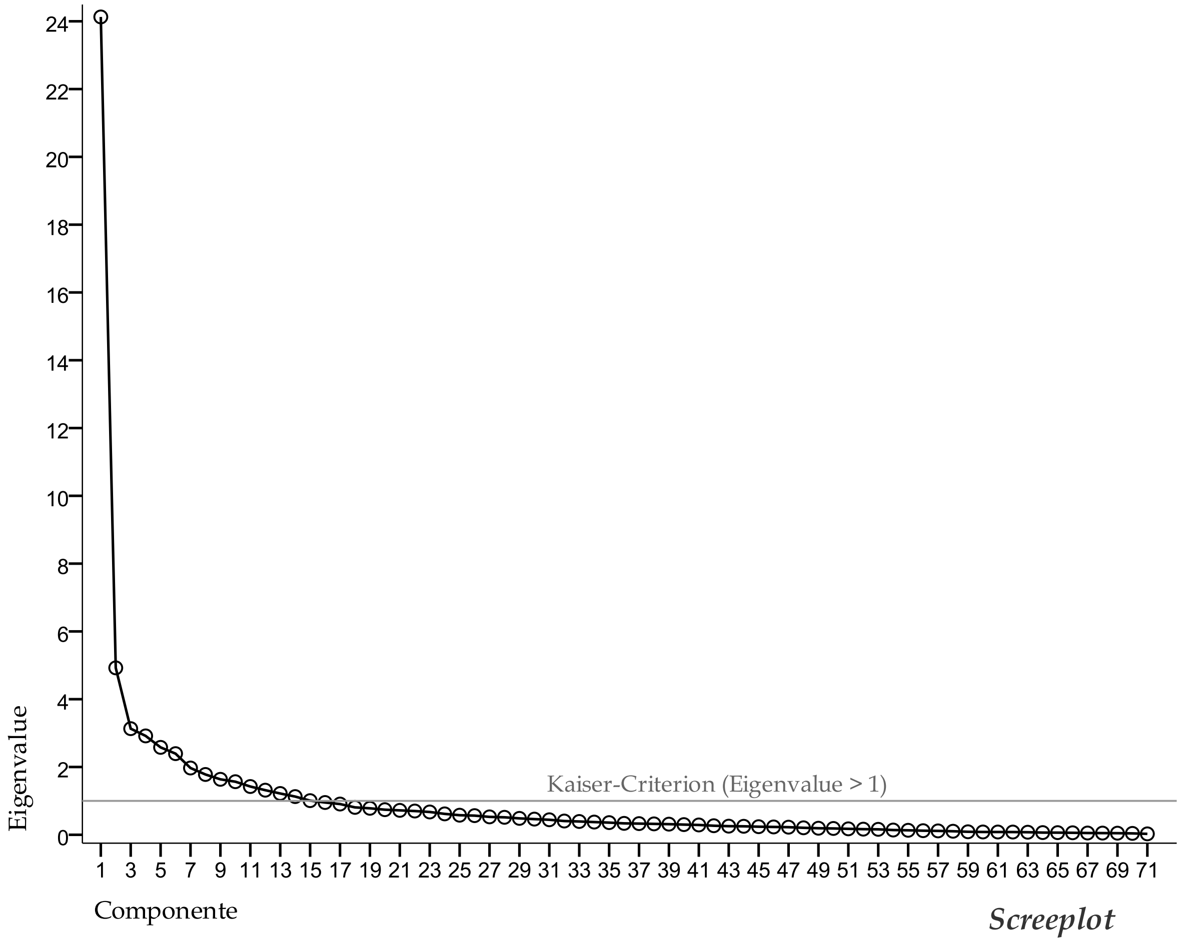
	AT	BE	EX	AC	DE	SF	WT	TA	VA	IQ	PQ	OQ	PSQ	TF	OT	CC	EM	SI	RF	RW	SAT	RET
AT	**0.954**																					
BE	0.697	**0.977**																				
EX	0.797	0.641	**0.957**																			
AC	0.495	0.568	0.486	**0.912**																		
DE	0.346	0.416	0.355	0.605	**0.917**																	
SF	0.626	0.680	0.607	0.483	0.486	**0.929**																
WT	0.463	0.534	0.487	0.500	0.394	0.549	**0.928**															
TA	0.388	0.459	0.525	0.603	0.491	0.432	0.472	**0.960**														
VA	0.598	0.657	0.600	0.443	0.370	0.657	0.490	0.351	**0.939**													
IQ	0.728	0.706	0.735	0.505	0.427	0.652	0.498	0.479	0.641	**0.979**												
PQ	0.227	0.248	0.265	0.533	0.701	0.395	0.300	0.556	0.236	0.340	**0.000**											
OQ	0.571	0.544	0.675	0.472	0.337	0.517	0.451	0.465	0.689	0.601	0.205	**0.907**										
PSQ	0.508	0.438	0.559	0.529	0.423	0.487	0.427	0.426	0.461	0.447	0.345	0.651	**0.964**									
TF	0.195	0.192	0.207	0.097	0.047	0.133	0.070	0.149	0.237	0.228	0.134	0.227	0.111	**0.971**								
OT	0.246	0.385	0.350	0.344	0.320	0.311	0.413	0.317	0.371	0.371	0.182	0.413	0.350	0.022	**0.959**							
CC	0.197	0.215	0.258	0.165	0.208	0.137	0.237	0.180	0.225	0.291	0.174	0.184	0.198	-0.032	0.255	**0.000**						
EM	0.290	0.387	0.276	0.290	0.255	0.280	0.288	0.173	0.360	0.330	0.121	0.358	0.429	-0.092	0.602	0.485	**0.931**					
SI	0.571	0.521	0.568	0.327	0.276	0.449	0.403	0.340	0.454	0.513	0.148	0.457	0.409	0.073	0.543	0.433	0.561	**0.936**				
RF	0.493	0.594	0.537	0.468	0.408	0.510	0.502	0.423	0.573	0.594	0.357	0.510	0.478	0.064	0.646	0.477	0.623	0.737	**0.969**			
RW	0.467	0.384	0.505	0.325	0.231	0.366	0.362	0.354	0.471	0.455	0.231	0.468	0.423	0.147	0.478	0.241	0.442	0.622	0.669	**0.928**		
SAT	0.612	0.594	0.636	0.510	0.401	0.501	0.484	0.503	0.582	0.674	0.318	0.636	0.519	0.199	0.556	0.398	0.515	0.720	0.777	0.654	**0.956**	
RET	0.418	0.431	0.399	0.321	0.341	0.369	0.380	0.319	0.472	0.407	0.149	0.413	0.399	0.258	0.390	0.258	0.352	0.542	0.473	0.394	0.593	**0.921**
Alpha	0.850	0.928	0.861	0.704	0.720	0.684	0.691	0.829	0.810	0.915	1.000	0.580	0.849	0.908	0.895	1.000	0.775	0.787	0.923	0.767	0.881	0.734
CR	0.910	0.954	0.915	0.831	0.840	0.863	0.861	0.921	0.881	0.959	1.000	0.823	0.930	0.943	0.919	1.000	0.867	0.877	0.938	0.862	0.913	0.849
AVE	0.771	0.874	0.782	0.624	0.639	0.760	0.757	0.854	0.712	0.921	1.000	0.700	0.869	0.846	0.655	1.000	0.686	0.704	0.684	0.678	0.677	0.654
FLC	0.954	0.977	0.957	0.912	0.917	0.929	0.928	0.960	0.939	0.979	0.357	0.907	0.964	0.971	0.959	0.485	0.931	0.936	0.969	0.928	0.956	0.921
R^2	0.530	0.499	0.540	0.284	0.491	0.156	0.203	0.216	0.474	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.478	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.688	0.507

Threshold values: Alpha ≥ .7; CR ≥ .7; FLC: $\sqrt{AVE}$ ≥ |Corr|: R^2 ≥ .4

Appendix 13: PCA – Suitability check for Factor Analysis

Source: Author's own illustration

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion		**.888**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	14846.410
	df	2485
	sig.	**.000**



Screeplot

Appendix 14: PCA – Total Variance Explained & Parallel Analysis

Source: Author's own illustration

Extraction method: PCA
71 variables

Component	*Random Eigen values**	*Initial Eigenvalues*			*Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings*			*Rotation*		
		Total	% of V	Cum. %	Total	% of V	Cum. %	Total	% of V	Cum. %
1	23.174	24.128	33.983	33.983	10.315	14.529	14.529	10.315	14.529	14.529
2	2.202	4.924	6.935	40.919	9.067	12.770	27.298	9.067	12.770	27.298
3	2.114	3.131	4.410	45.329	5.867	8.263	35.561	5.867	8.263	35.561
4	2.043	2.917	4.108	49.437	5.616	7.910	43.471	5.616	7.910	43.471
5	1.976	2.579	3.632	53.069	5.217	7.347	50.819	5.217	7.347	50.819
6	1.923	2.394	3.372	56.441	2.988	4.208	55.027	2.988	4.208	55.027
7	1.862	1.970	2.775	59.215	2.974	4.188	59.215	2.974	4.188	59.215
8	1.811	1.779								
9	1.764	1.636								
10	1.716	1.566								
11	1.673	1.424								
12	1.631	1.316								
13	1.591	1.218								
14	1.549	1.127								
15	1.511	1.007								
…										
71	0.21	.027	.039	100.000						

* Calculated with Watkins, M. W (2000) MonteCarlo PCA for parallel analysis [computer software] on 2011-07-30.

Appendix 15: PCA – Rotated Pattern Matrix (Varimax Rotation) & Communalities

Source: Author's own illustration

Component	*SI*	*AT*	*VA*	*OT*	*DE*	*AM*	*TF*	**Communalities**
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
SI5	.719							.682
RW5	.709							.614
RF6	.702							.683
SAT4	.701							.713
RF4	.673							.683
RF7	.659							.631
SI4	.656							.544
RF2	.656							.717
RF5	.654							.697
RF1	.632							.652
SAT2	.611							.656
RF3	.575							.656
CC1	.561							.462
SAT3	.536							.580
RC3								.478
SI3								.486
SAT5								.564
RW4								.482
RL3								.507
EM1								.531
RL1								.318
AT2		.731						.701
EX2		.730						.719
OQ2		.682						.684
EX1		.681						.659
AT1		.676						.634
EX3		.667						.590
VA1		.659						.617
PSQ2		.644						.627
AT3		.626						.630
IQ1		.564						.686
IQ2		.559						.673
SF1		.546						.681
PSQ1		.519						.519
OQ1								.376
SAT1								.543
VA3			.709					.659
BE1			.635					.739
BE3			.615					.697
BE2			.613					.662
SF3			.602					.492
DE3			.595					.481
VA2			.562					.588
AC3								.505
WT2								.354
WT3								.471

Component	*SI*	*AT*	*VA*	*OT*	*DE*	*AM*	*TF*	**Communalities**
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
OT2				.846				.796
OT5				.814				.721
OT1				.724				.718
OT6				.714				.562
OT3				.556				.618
EM2				.539				.479
EM3				.529				.604
OT4								.521
DE1					.793			.720
PQ1					.790			.706
TA1					.676			.604
TA2					.636			.588
AC1					.612			.512
DE2					.549			.417
RC2					.519			.379
AC2								.538
AM1						.742		.604
AM2						.742		.607
AM8						.659		.536
AM6						.610		.473
AM7						.566		.434
TF1							.839	.753
TF2							.832	.765
TF3							.787	.700
RW1								.370

Note: loadings of < .5 are suppressed

Appendix 16: ANOVA for two-cluster solution

Source: Author's own illustration

ANOVA Descriptives

		N	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*
SI	1	85	-.2029620	1.15124332	.12486987	-2.80830	1.60601
	2	147	.1173590	.88419748	.07292738	-3.47487	1.97011
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.47487	1.97011
AT	1	85	.0028355	1.17140423	.12705663	-3.12525	2.22891
	2	147	-.0016396	.89034063	.07343406	-3.04710	1.97687
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.12525	2.22891
VA	1	85	-.3045353	1.12523517	.12204889	-2.91383	2.51284
	2	147	.1760918	.87664434	.07230441	-3.42651	2.65955
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.42651	2.65955
OT	1	85	.1406779	.97116817	.10533798	-1.41528	2.43866
	2	147	-.0813443	1.01062528	.08335497	-2.34597	2.31330
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-2.34597	2.43866
DE	1	85	-.9486321	.86423844	.09373982	-3.14241	.60760
	2	147	.5485287	.57061650	.04706366	-1.56215	1.80872
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.14241	1.80872
AM	1	85	.1490372	.87886268	.09532604	-1.65016	1.86543
	2	147	-.0861780	1.05706588	.08718532	-2.85076	2.02807
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-2.85076	2.02807
TF	1	85	.2061669	1.01713745	.11032405	-2.54196	1.97912
	2	147	-.1192122	.97360449	.08030155	-3.59039	1.56768
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.59039	1.97912

oneway ANOVA

		Sum of squares	*df*	*Mean square*	*F*	*sig.*
SI	Between Groups	5.526	1	5.526	5.637	.018
	Within Groups	225.474	230	.980		
	Total	231.000	231			
AT	Between Groups	.001	1	.001	.001	.974
	Within Groups	230.999	230	1.004		
	Total	231.000	231			
VA	Between Groups	12.441	1	12.441	13.093	.000
	Within Groups	218.559	230	.950		
	Total	231.000	231			
OT	Between Groups	2.655	1	2.655	2.674	.103
	Within Groups	228.345	230	.993		
	Total	231.000	231			
DE	Between Groups	120.722	1	120.722	251.781	.000
	Within Groups	110.278	230	.479		
	Total	231.000	231			
AM	Between Groups	2.980	1	2.980	3.006	.084
	Within Groups	228.020	230	.991		
	Total	231.000	231			
TF	Between Groups	5.702	1	5.702	5.821	.017
	Within Groups	225.298	230	.980		
	Total	231.000	231			

Appendix 17: ANOVA for three-cluster solution

Source: Author's own illustration

ANOVA Descriptives

		N	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*
SI	1	85	-.2029620	1.15124332	.12486987	-2.80830	1.60601
	2	48	.2338775	.91849534	.13257338	-1.67607	1.97011
	3	99	.0608651	.86617346	.08705371	-3.47487	1.60654
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.47487	1.97011
AT	1	85	.0028355	1.17140423	.12705663	-3.12525	2.22891
	2	48	-.6699748	.95917557	.13844507	-3.04710	1.54264
	3	99	.3224017	.64411603	.06473610	-1.85035	1.97687
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.12525	2.22891
VA	1	85	-.3045353	1.12523517	.12204889	-2.91383	2.51284
	2	48	-.3607834	1.06579160	.15383377	-3.42651	1.18758
	3	99	.4363950	.62491329	.06280615	-1.13350	2.65955
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.42651	2.65955
OT	1	85	.1406779	.97116817	.10533798	-1.41528	2.43866
	2	48	.0759259	.95943648	.13848273	-1.58363	2.31330
	3	99	-.1575966	1.03061229	.10358043	-2.34597	1.96256
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-2.34597	2.43866
DE	1	85	-.9486321	.86423844	.09373982	-3.14241	.60760
	2	48	.4258420	.67030503	.09675020	-1.56215	1.80872
	3	99	.6080132	.50857696	.05111391	-.78567	1.59774
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.14241	1.80872
AM	1	85	.1490372	.87886268	.09532604	-1.65016	1.86543
	2	48	-.9066562	1.17951333	.17024808	-2.85076	1.94844
	3	99	.3116297	.71264212	.07162323	-1.32771	2.02807
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-2.85076	2.02807
TF	1	85	.2061669	1.01713745	.11032405	-2.54196	1.97912
	2	48	-.4456785	1.11113855	.16037904	-3.59039	1.56768
	3	99	.0390745	.86171643	.08660576	-2.49267	1.53045
	Total	232	.0000000	1.00000000	.06565322	-3.59039	1.97912

oneway ANOVA

		Sum of squares	*df*	*Mean square*	*F*	*sig.*
SI	Between Groups	6.494	2	3.247	3.312	.038
	Within Groups	224.506	229	.980		
	Total	231.000	231			
AT	Between Groups	31.837	2	15.918	18.303	.000
	Within Groups	199.163	229	.870		
	Total	231.000	231			
VA	Between Groups	32.985	2	16.492	19.073	.000
	Within Groups	198.015	229	.865		
	Total	231.000	231			
OT	Between Groups	4.418	2	2.209	2.232	.110
	Within Groups	226.582	229	.989		
	Total	231.000	231			
DE	Between Groups	121.794	2	60.897	127.699	.000
	Within Groups	109.206	229	.477		
	Total	231.000	231			
AM	Between Groups	50.959	2	25.480	32.409	.000
	Within Groups	180.041	229	.786		
	Total	231.000	231			
TF	Between Groups	13.298	2	6.649	6.994	.001
	Within Groups	217.702	229	.951		
	Total	231.000	231			

Appendix 18: Multiple cluster comparisons for ANOVA (Test: Tukey-HSD)

Source: Author's own illustration

Dependent variable	*(I) Ward Method*	*(J) Ward Method*	*Mean difference (I-J)*	*SE*	*Sig.*	*95%-Confidence Interval*	
						Lower bound	*Upper bound*
SI	1	2	-.43683954	.17876900	.040	-.8585655	-.0151136
		3	-.26382713	.14641256	.171	-.6092224	.0815682
	2	1	.43683954	.17876900	.040	.0151136	.8585655
		3	.17301242	.17414738	.582	-.2378108	.5838357
	3	1	.26382713	.14641256	.171	-.0815682	.6092224
		2	-.17301242	.17414738	.582	-.5838357	.2378108
AT	1	2	.67281034	.16837700	.000	.2755997	1.0700210
		3	-.31956619	.13790146	.055	-.6448833	.0057510
	2	1	-.67281034	.16837700	.000	-1.0700210	-.2755997
		3	-.99237653	.16402403	.000	-1.3793183	-.6054348
	3	1	.31956619	.13790146	.055	-.0057510	.6448833
		2	.99237653	.16402403	.000	.6054348	1.3793183
VA	1	2	.05624805	.16789104	.940	-.3398162	.4523123
		3	-.74093028	.13750346	.000	-1.0653085	-.4165520
	2	1	-.05624805	.16789104	.940	-.4523123	.3398162
		3	-.79717833	.16355063	.000	-1.1830033	-.4113534
	3	1	.74093028	.13750346	.000	.4165520	1.0653085
		2	.79717833	.16355063	.000	.4113534	1.1830033
OT	1	2	.06475195	.17959365	.931	-.3589194	.4884233
		3	.29827444	.14708795	.108	-.0487141	.6452630
	2	1	-.06475195	.17959365	.931	-.4884233	.3589194
		3	.23352249	.17495070	.377	-.1791959	.6462408
	3	1	-.29827444	.14708795	.108	-.6452630	.0487141
		2	-.23352249	.17495070	.377	-.6462408	.1791959
DE	1	2	-1.37447408	.12468102	.000	-1.6686035	-1.0803447
		3	-1.55664530	.10211427	.000	-1.7975385	-1.3157521
	2	1	1.37447408	.12468102	.000	1.0803447	1.6686035
		3	-.18217122	.12145770	.293	-.4686966	.1043542
	3	1	1.55664530	.10211427	.000	1.3157521	1.7975385
		2	.18217122	.12145770	.293	-.1043542	.4686966
AM	1	2	1.05569340	.16008962	.000	.6780332	1.4333536
		3	-.16259247	.13111407	.431	-.4718978	.1467128
	2	1	-1.05569340	.16008962	.000	-1.4333536	-.6780332
		3	-1.21828586	.15595090	.000	-1.5861826	-.8503891
	3	1	.16259247	.13111407	.431	-.1467128	.4718978
		2	1.21828586	.15595090	.000	.8503891	1.5861826
TF	1	2	.65184544	.17603902	.001	.2365597	1.0671312
		3	.16709242	.14417669	.479	-.1730283	.5072132
	2	1	-.65184544	.17603902	.001	-1.0671312	-.2365597
		3	-.48475302	.17148797	.014	-.8893026	-.0802035
	3	1	-.16709242	.14417669	.479	-.5072132	.1730283
		2	.48475302	.17148797	.014	.0802035	.8893026

Grey-shaded cells indicate significantly (≤ .05) mean difference

Appendix 19: Crosstabs for socio-demographic data with clusters (relative frequencies)

Source: Author's own illustration

		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	*Total*
Gender	male	.133	.115	.159	*.407*
	female	.243	.093	.257	*.593*
	Total	*.376*	*.208*	*.416*	*1.0*
Age Group	<19	.022	.017	.009	*.048*
	19–25	.117	.043	.091	*.251*
	26–35	.087	.043	.091	*.221*
	36-49	.087	.056	.087	*.229*
	50–65	.048	.035	.091	*.173*
	>65	.009	.013	.056	*.078*
	Total	*.368*	*.208*	*.424*	*1.0*
Marital status	Single	.134	.060	.125	*.319*
	Relationship	.052	.026	.013	*.091*
	Married	.177	.112	.254	*.543*
	Divorced	.004	.009	.017	*.030*
	Widowed	.000	.000	.017	*.017*
	Total	*.366*	*.207*	*.427*	*1.0*
Education	Not graduated from school	.009	.000	.004	*.013*
	Lower secondary school	.004	.004	.009	*.017*
	Intermediate secondary school	.039	.052	.074	*.165*
	Advanced technical certificate	.074	.013	.048	*.135*
	Grammar school	.070	.048	.109	*.226*
	Apprenticeship	.052	.013	.052	*.117*
	College or university degree	.122	.074	.130	*.326*
	Total	*.370*	*.204*	*.426*	*1.0*
Occupation	Unemployed	.009	.004	.026	*.040*
	Part-time employment	.079	.040	.075	*.194*
	Full-time employment	.141	.101	.145	*.388*
	Student/Apprentice	.123	.035	.101	*.260*
	Pensioner/Retirement	.009	.013	.062	*.084*
	Housewife/house-husband, parental leave	.013	.013	.009	*.035*
	Total	*.374*	*.207*	*.419*	*1.0*
Church Attendance	Several times a week	.267	.108	.254	*.629*
	Weekly	.056	.047	.103	*.207*
	Several times a month (but not weekly)	.034	.034	.069	*.138*
	Once a month	.000	.004	.000	*.004*
	Irregularly	.009	.013	.000	*.022*
	Total	*.366*	*.207*	*.427*	*1.0*

Appendix 20: Bar chart for socio-demographic data with clusters (absolute frequencies)

Source: Author's own illustration