Volunteering: a Study of Psychological Attribute Related to Indonesian Emerging Adult Volunteer Motivation

Sugiarti Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia. <u>sugiartipsi@gmail.com</u>

Aviva Lutfian Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia <u>aviva.lutfianaa@gmail.com</u>

Mugi Silih Mulyadi Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia <u>mugisilihmulyadi@gmail.com</u> Adisya Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia adisya 1995@gmail.com

Bianda Retno Widyani Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia biandarwidyani@gmail.com

Rayhanni Rahman Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia rayhannirahman.rahman@gmail.com Adrianisa Kamila Shabrina Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia adrianisa.kamila@gmail.com

Daeng Azizah Rahmatia Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia <u>drahmatia@gmail.com</u>

Mutiara Sintesana Prasetyo Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia mutiara.sintesana@ui.ac.id

Abstract

Numerous problems in Indonesia, ranging from poverty to natural disasters, require that all parties participate in solving the problems. For this reason, volunteering can be the human resource that helps to solve these problems. This idea is also supported by data showing that younger Indonesians also like to volunteer. This study aimed to determine the relationship between volunteer motivation dimensions with psychological attributes, such as personality traits, happiness, interpersonal trust, narcissistic personality, self-efficacy, purpose in life, and psychological distress on volunteers aged 18–29 years old (emerging adults). The motivation to volunteer was the main variable and had six dimensions, namely values, social, career, knowledge, understanding, and enhancement motives. This correlational study had 1712 respondents. All the measuring instruments were already adapted to Bahasa Indonesia. The results showed all the variables of psychological attributes have a significant relationship with one or more motivations to volunteer.

Keywords: Volunteering motivation, happiness, purpose of life, personality, emerging adults.

Received 28 April 2020/Accepted 30 August 2020 ©Author all rights reserved

Introduction

Poverty, inequality, limited access to education, and natural disasters are few among many endless problems in Indonesia. Since 2010, an increasing number of movements, communities, institutions, and social enterprises ranging from social, economic, educational, environmental, to disaster have become an interesting phenomena (Local Assessment Team, 2010).

Volunteerism is defined as a non spontaneous aid activity, in which the individual providing the assistants is active in finding opportunities to help others, committing to sacrifice time, effort and material within a certain timeframe (Clary, et al., 1998). Summarizing the findings of various researchers, Stukas, Snyder and Clary (2012) states that volunteer activities have positive benefits such as improving volunteers' physical and mental health. However, despite its benefit, not everyone has the same motivation when deciding to become a volunteer. Clary et al (1998) categorize individual volunteering motivation into six dimensions, namely value, social, career, enhancement, protective and understanding.

Data obtained from Indorelawan.org shows that current volunteers are dominated by millennials who are in the 18-35 age group (Indorelawan.org, 2016). Millennial Impact Report (2015) adds that the millennial generation is highly interested in social issues. In the millennial generation age range, there are individuals at the emerging adulthood stage, which is the 18-29 age range (Arnett, 2014).

The increased participation of emerging adults in volunteer activities is an interesting phenomenon. In addition, the productive age is predicted to dominate Indonesia in 2030 (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2013). Therefore, it is very important to maintain the quality of individual early adult age so that individuals can optimize their ability in the middle of the development of early adult age is quite heavy.

The importance of volunteer activities for the development of the Indonesian nation, added with the fact that the drivers are mostly 18-29 years old, as well as predictions about the number of people who will be dominated by productive age (including emerging adult), make us interested in examining volunteer motivation and their psychological attributes such as psychological distress, self-efficacy, personality traits, narcissistic personality, happiness, interpersonal trust, and purpose in life. This is confirmed by a statement in the Harvard Medical Report (Watson, 2013) which stated that volunteering may be good for body and mind, which is indirectly related to various psychological attributes.

Psychological distress is defined as unpleasant feelings or conditions (Mirowsky & Ross, 2003, page 23). Research conducted by Jaffe et al. (2012) showed that the motivation possessed by volunteers can cause psychological distress. Furthermore, when volunteers follow activities with a high motivation for development, the level of anxiety is also high.

Other variables, self-efficacy is defined as a person's belief in their ability to show performance levels that affect the events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1994). A study by Weber, Weber, Schneider, and Sleeper (2007) found that student self-efficacy correlated positively with the number of hours spent on voluntary activities, the amount of money spent on donations, and their involvement in community service.

The next variable is the interpersonal trust. In general, Rotter (1980) defines interpersonal trust as an expectation for individuals or groups that words, promises, and oral or written statements disclosed by other individuals or groups are reliable.

The fifth motivation volunteers in addition to social functions also predicted by researchers have a role in building interpersonal trust. First, related to the dimensions of protective motivation volunteerism, research conducted by Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) states that individuals who feel positive emotions such as joy and gratitude, more have high confidence compared with individuals who feel negative emotions such as sadness and anger so that itcan be detached from their negative feelings or emotions. Second, related to the motivation of value, research conducted by De Dreu, Greer, Handgraaf, Shalvi, Van Kleef, Baas, Ten Velden, Van Dijk, and Feith (2010) states that the value of the individual selfaltruism boost confidence among peer groups. Third, career-motivated volunteers believe that their volunteer activities will develop better professional skills while maximizing their chances of getting the job they desire (Clary et al., 1998). The motivation of understanding in line with what is expressed in Williams (2001), the adoption of different perspectives represents an interpersonal strategy of building trust (Williams, 2001). Fifth, the motivation of volunteers to improve themselves in line with Gaucher, Wood, Stinson, Forest, Holmes, and Logel (2012) suggests that high individuals in self-esteem are more able to express and open themselves because they believe others will be caring and will not reject them.

The purpose of life is defined as the achievement of a centralized and self-organizing life that organizes and stimulates goals, manages behaviors and provides a sense of meaning (Kashdan & McKnight, 2009). In relation to the motivation of volunteerism, Frankl (in Schluckebier, 2013) states that one can find the purpose of his life through three ways, namely by giving to the world through creative work or expression, experience or relationships with men, and through hardship and suffering.

Sugiarti et al,.

Personality trait is defined as the dimension of individual differences in the tendency to show consistent and persistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions (McCrae and Costa, 1990, in Talamati, 2012). There are five traits used in this research, that is extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Soto and John (2017) call two last traits as negative emotionality and open-mindedness. Results from a research conducted by Carlo et al (2005) show that personality traits of extraversion and agreeableness have significant correlations with value motivation in volunteering.

The next variable is narcissistic personality. Individuals who have narcissistic personality can be defined as high views of themselves, feel that they have a right over others, and believe that they are better, unique, more special than others (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Brunell, Tumblin, & Buelow, 2014). Research conducted by Brunell, Tumblin, and Bueno (2014) found that in the United States, individuals with narcissistic personality are motivated by career, social, and protective motivation when they volunteer. In Indonesia, Kurniasih (2004) found that the only significant voluntary motivation was career motivation, however, theresearcher did not clearly examine and argue that career motivation can be motivated by personality factors, such as narcissistic personality.

The next variable is happiness. Happiness is defined as a person's subjective experience of pleasure, satisfaction, and positive affection of a whole life that is considered valuable and meaningful (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Previous studies have shown that there is a relationship between volunteerism and happiness. However, the study tends to be conducted in elderly populations (Piliavin, 2010) and does not specifically look at relationships and the motivational dimensions of volunteerism, but rather to volunteerism in general.

Most of the previous studies examine the relationship of volunteerism in general with certain psychological attributes. Thus, in this study, we try to generate the main problem about how are the detailed description of the relationship between several psychological attributes, such as personality traits, narcissism, psychological distress, self-efficacy, happiness, interpersonal trust, and purpose in life with motivation to volunteer in 18-29 years old Indonesian volunteer. The results of this study are expected to provide an overview and reference of interventions on what should be done to improve the quality of

404

the volunteers and can provide an overview of individuals with psychological attributes such as what has low or high volunteer motivation.

Method

Participants

The respondents consisted of 1.117 women and 595 men. All were citizens of Indonesia, aged 18–29 (emerging adulthood) and are participating in or have participated in volunteer activities. Referring to the volunteer categorization according to Stukas et al. (2016), volunteers in the study included volunteers in education, health, disaster, social services, philanthropy, and community empowerment. A total of 79% of the respondents in this study were undergraduate students. Participant data collection was conducted using a convenience sampling method. The procedure of research divided into three steps: preparation, collection of data, and analysis of data. First, in the preparation steps, we begin to determine the suitable instruments, adaptate the instruments through back-to-back translation, and test the reliability and validity of the instruments. In the validity test, we also conduct acontent validity test through expert judgement to make sure the items accurately describe the construct to be measured. Second, the collection of data, we begin to share the information of this research by online and offline channels. After the respondents receive the information, we ask for their willingness to contribute to this research by signing the informed consent. We also give rewards to the random respondents. Third, the data analysis will be explained independently in the section below.

Measurements

Volunteer Motivation. The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) of Clary et al. (1998) was used to measure a person's motivation when they participate in volunteer activities. The VFI consists of 6 dimensions, each with 5 items. Cronbach's alpha for each dimension is: value motivation = 0.80; social motivation = 0.83; career motivation = 0.89; understanding motivation = 0.81; development motivation = 0.84; protective motivation = 0.81.

Psychological distress. The Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) of Turnip and Hauff (2007) was utilized to measure psychological distress (= 0.94). The HSCL-25 consists of 25 items that measure the two dimensions of psychological distress, namely symptoms of

depression (15 items) and anxiety (10 items). This scale looks at how symptoms of depression or anxiety have affected individuals over the past week with choices ranging from 1 "not influencing at all" to 4 "very influencing."

Happiness. The Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) of Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1997) was used to measure happiness. The SHS consists of four items that measure the affective and cognitive components of happiness. Two items to assess peers and two other items asked the respondents to describe happy and unhappy persons. The respondents were asked to rate their response using a 6-point Likert scale (I = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). This research used SHS which had been adapted by Aisyah (2013) with = 0.71.

Self-efficacy. The New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSES) of Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001), adapted by Nugraheni (2012), was employed to measure self-efficacy (= 0.93). The NGSES consists of 12 items. The respondents chose the suitability of items themselves using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, and 5 = strongly agree).

Interpersonal trust. The Propensity to Trust Scale (PTS) developed by Evans and Revelle (2008) was used to measure interpersonal trust. This study used a PTS that had beenadapted to the Indonesian context by Wahyudi, Milla, and Muluk (2017). From the adaptation results, the researchers obtained = 0.84. PTS consisting of 21 items divided into two dimensions, namely trustworthiness (10 items) and trust (11 items). The respondents were asked to measure how appropriate each statement was for them using a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree).

Purpose in Life. Purpose in life was measured using the Brief Purpose Measure by Hill, Edmonds, Peterson, Luyckx, and Andrews (2015), which has been adapted to Bahasa Indonesia (= 0.84). This measurement tool specifically measures the purpose in life of the emerging adulthood population. Purpose in life refers to the definition proposed by Kashdan and McKnight (2009) and has a total of 4 items, using a Likert scale with six options ranging from I = "very inappropriate" to 6 = "very appropriate".

Personality. Measurement was performed using the Big Five Inventory-2 Extra Short Form (BFI-2-XS) by Soto and John (2017) to measure personality traits. The BFI-XS consists of 5 dimensions, each of which has 3 items. The participants were asked to measure whether the characteristics listed on the item fit them or not using a 5-point Likert scale (I = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for each dimension is as follows: extraversion = 0.74; agreeableness = 0.46; conscientiousness = 0.58; negative emotionality = 0.68; open-mindedness = 0.25.

Narcissistic Personality. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-13) of Gentile, Miller, Hoffman, Reidy, Zeichner, and Campbell (2013) was used to measure narcissistic personality. The NPI-13 consists of 3 dimensions that have been adapted to Bahasa Indonesia with internal consistency as follows: leadership/authority = 0.82; grandiose/exhibitionism = 0.66, entitlement/exploitativeness = 0.75. The choice of NPI-13 answers is a forced choice, in which the respondent has to choose one of two choices of statements (A or B).

Data Analysis

After collecting research data, the authors conducted processing on 2001 respondent data to answer the research problems raised. Furthermore, the authors interpret the results of data processing and make conclusions. The data analysis techniques used in this study are: 1) Descriptive Statistical Analysis; 2) Partial Correlation; 3) Independent Sample T-test. First, in the Descriptive Statistical Analysis, we see the description of the respondents as well anoverview of the happiness variable and the voluntary motivation variable. This method functions to find out the frequency, mean (average), percentage, maximum value, and the minimum values used to provide an overview of the data demographics of study respondents. Second, In the Partial Correlation, we measure and describe relationships between each dimension of the voluntary motivation variable and the psychological attribute variables by making constant the influence of other variables. Third, Independent Sample T-test used to see the difference in mean value (mean) in two different population groups (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). The tools for data analysis are using google spreadsheets for descriptive analysis and SPSS 2.0 for partial correlation and independent sample t-test.

Sugiarti et al,.

Results

The respondents consisted of 1.117 women and 595 men. All were citizens of Indonesia, aged 18–29 (emerging adulthood) and are participating in or have participated in volunteer activities. Referring to the volunteer categorization according to Stukas et al. (2016), volunteers in the study included volunteers in education, health, disaster, social services, philanthropy, and community empowerment. A total of 79% of the respondents in this study were undergraduate students. Participant data collection was conducted using a convenience sampling method.

Table IDescriptive Statistic Analysis (Participants)

Category	F	%	Category	F	%
Gender			Occupation		
Woman	11	65,2	Students	10	0,6
Man	17	34,8	University Students	1113	65
	59		Etc.(working/ not working)	589	34,4
	5				
Age (years)			Expenses Per Month		
18-21	92	54, I	< Rp 770.000	333	19,5
22-25	7	38,9	Rp770.000- Rp 1.250.000	608	35,5
26-29	66	7	Rp1.250.000-Rp 2.200.000	498	29, I
	6		Rp2.200.000-Rp6.000.000	253	14.8
	П		> Rp 6.000.000	20	1.2
	9				
Educational level			Province		
SD	4	0,2	Jawa Barat	730	42,6
SMP	5	0,3	, DKI Jakarta	352	20,6
SMA/ SMK	13	7,8	Jawa Timur	199	11,6
Diploma	4	8, I	Banten	159	9,3
SI	13	79	D. I. Yogyakarta	69	4
S2	9	4,5	Jawa Tengah	62	3,6
	13		Etc.(all Province in Indonesia	141	8,3
	53		except Bangka Belitung,		
	77		Kalimantan Utara, and		
			Maluku)		

Based on the results of the descriptive analysis of research variables, it was found that the highest average score for volunteer motivation was for the understanding dimension (M = 26,7), while the lowest motivation was for the social dimension (M = 20,25).

Dimensions	Average	Min	Max	St. Dev	
Values	25,64	6	30	2,97	
Understanding	26,7	6	30	2,93	
Social	20,25	6	30	4,61	
Career	21,81	6	30	4,63	
Protective	22,5	6	30	4,69	
Enhancement	23,77	6	30	4,11	

Table 2Descriptive Statistic Analysis (Volunteer Function Inventory)

In the analysis of the relationship between volunteer motivation and psychological attribute variables, it was found that all the variables had significant correlations with one or morevolunteer motivation(s). The following table provides the results of the analysis of the relationship between volunteer motivations and psychological attribute variables of this research, including personality traits, happiness, interpersonal trust, narcissistic personality, self-efficacy, purpose in life, and psychological distress.

Variable	Min	Max	Avg.	St.Dev
Traits				
Extraversion	3	12	8,72	1,825
Agreeableness	3	12	9,25	1,542
Conscientiousness	3	12	8,43	1,714
Negative Emotionality	3	12	7,04	1,987
Open-Mindedness	3	12	9,28	1,675
Happiness	6	24	17,97	2,910
Interpersonal Trust	46	126	91,56	7,961
Narcissistic Trait				
Leadership/Authority	0	4	1,18	1,137
Grandiose Exhibitionism	0	3	0,86	0,7
Entitlement/Exploitativeness	0	3	0,85	0,789
Self-Efficacy	11	32	25,76	3,53
Purpose of Life	4	24	19,26	3,46
Psychological Distress	I	4	1,98	0,62

Table 3Relationship volunteer motivation and psychological attribute variables

Discussion

Psychological distress

The results show that psychological distress is positively associated with protective motivation. This result relates to the previous research conducted by Jaffe et al (2012) states that participants who possessed protective dimension as their motivation had a positive and significant relationship with symptoms of psychological distress in the form of anxiety and depression.

The result of the happiness variable that was negatively related to protective motivation. This low level of happiness also indicates that an individual is experiencing a high level of psychological distress. The higher the level of psychological distress, the higher the protective motivation to participate in volunteer activities to increase positive emotions and thereby avoid psychological distress.

Meanwhile, the value and understanding of motivations had a negative relationship with psychological distress. The result relates to the previous research conducted by Jaffe et al(2012) indicates that the understanding dimension is not significantly related to psychological distress with depression and anxiety as the symptoms.

Individuals that have value motivation participate in volunteer activities because they want to help others with sincere or humanitarian reasons. The result of this research shows no significant correlation between value motivation and psychological distress. This is in line with the research conducted by Jaffe et al (2012) who found that value motivation has no significant correlation with symptoms of psychological distress.

Happiness

The happiness variable was found to be positively related to value, social, and understanding motivations and negatively related to protective motivation. Omoto and Snyder (1995) divided the dimensions of volunteer motivation into two, namely altruistic motivation (other-oriented) and self-oriented motivation (self-oriented). Based on this, value and social motivation comprise altruistic motivations. Meanwhile, career, understanding, development, and protective motivations comprised egoistic motivations. These results are in line with that of Stukas et al. (2016), who found that other-oriented volunteer motivation was positively related to happiness, while self-oriented volunteer motivation was negatively

related to happiness. Wei et al. (2012) and Stukas et al. (2016) showed that motivation to help other people and the community (other-oriented) produces more pleasure and satisfaction in volunteers compared against other, more individual motivations.

Interpersonal Trust

In the variable of interpersonal trust, value, understanding, enhancement, and protective motivations were positively and significantly correlated with interpersonal trust. In terms of value motivation, individuals become volunteers because they want to channel social values such as altruistic values and attitudes to prioritize the interests and needs of others.

Protective motivation emphasizes volunteering to avoid negative feelings or emotions. Researchers suspect that the higher the motivation of individuals to seek protection from negative emotions, the higher the level of interpersonal trust formed within an individual. This is in line with the research conducted by Dunn and Schweitzer (2005), who found that individuals that felt positive emotions such as pleasure and gratitude have more confidence than individuals that felt negative emotions such as sadness and anger.

The results of this study indicate that there is a positive and significant relationship between understanding motivation and interpersonal trust. This is in line with Williams (2001) who stated that taking different perspectives represents an interpersonal strategy of building trust. This is also in line with the research conducted by Gaucher, Wood, Stinson, Forest, Holmes, and Logel (2012), which suggests that individuals high in self-esteem are more able to express and open themselves because they believe others will be caring and will not reject them.

Self-efficacy

Stukas (2014) did the research about the relationship between motivation to volunteer with generalized self-efficacy in Australian volunteers, aged 18-89 years old. The result shows that there are different relationships between each dimension of volunteer motivations with generalized self-efficacy. Protective motives and career motives correlate negatively with self-efficacy, and the rest has positive correlation with generalized self-efficacy.

The previous research covers a wide range of demography. Since Indonesia has mostly emerging adult volunteers, a research specifically covering the relationship between generalized self-efficacy and volunteer motivation is still needed. Moreover, generalized self-efficacy is a concept closely related to emerging adults. Arnett (2000) stated that an emerging adult is a stage in which most individuals no longer depend on their parents to explore the world of work and romance. To be completely independent and exploring worlds an individual never experienced before can be considered as a big challenge. An individual needs a high level of self efficacy in order to overcome those challenges. Higher level of self efficacy will help in skill acquisition and improving self competence, while lower self efficacy will cause the individual to immerse in a feeling of doubt, thus hinders them to develop their skill and competency (Bandura, 1994).

We developed the hypothesis of this research based on the findings from Stukas (2014) and also based on the emerging adulthood theory from Bandura (1994) and Arnett (2000). From all six dimensions, there are five dimensions that require self-efficacy and personal skills, which are social, career, value, understanding, and enhancement variables. Meanwhile, protective motives involve running away from problems, something that an individual might do for not having enough level of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). From that theory, wehypothesized that protective motives would correlate negatively with generalized self-efficacy.

In this research, it was found that six dimensions of volunteer motivation correlate differently with generalized self-efficacy, with protective motives being the only one dimension which correlates negatively. The dimensions with the strongest correlations are values and understanding. It could be assumed that an individual who volunteers to help and/or sharing knowledge to others has the belief that he is capable of doing so, thus reflects on their generalized self-efficacy level. The negative correlation between protective motives and generalized self-efficacy could imply that the motivation of running away from problems reflects a lower level of generalized self-efficacy. Thus, it could be assumed that someone who volunteers mostly motivated by running away and protecting themselves from life problems has a relatively lower level of generalized self-efficacy.

Between this research and previous findings from Stukas (2014), there was a difference in results, which is related to career motives. The previous research has career motives correlated negatively with generalized self-efficacy, meanwhile in this research, career motives and generalized self-efficacy had positive correlation. This result might be linked with the main demographic of this study. In this study, all the participants are emerging adults, who are currently exploring new worlds they never entered before, including trying out new careers (Arnett, 2000). For emerging adults, doing volunteer activities is usually encouraged to gain experience and skill that would be beneficial to support their careers. The experience and skill gained could help someone start their careers, or if they are already in an advanced career point volunteering can benefit them via social networking (MacNeela, 2008). From this situation, it could be assumed that the positive correlation between career motivation and generalized self-efficacy comes from the belief that the participants could do both volunteering tasks and also could do well in their career.

Purpose in Life

Value, social, and understanding motivations were found to have significant relationships with the purpose in life. Based on Stukas et al. (2016), people motivated by value motivation will see volunteer activity as an opportunity to help others. Volunteers that have an understanding motivation will use volunteer activities as a means to better understand the world, other people, and their own skills. These benefits are used by volunteers to achieve life goals.

In addition to the three volunteer motivations, it was found that the other three motivations are career, enhancement, and protective motivations. These were not found to relate significantly to the determination of the purpose in life in emerging adult volunteers. Researchers assume that career-related outcomes may be influenced by the fact that the majority of the respondents were college students (71%). Students may not realize the need for career benefits; therefore, their motivation to participate in volunteer activities is more influenced by motivations other than career motivation.

The relationship between career dimension and purpose in life may also be influenced by the proportion of the respondents' ages, with 55.5% being 18–21 years old or in early adult emerging age. During this time, the exploration of emerging adults is so vigorous that they may not have set out on one specific point, including career choices. Therefore, when emerging adults participate in volunteer activities, they are likely to do so due to other motivations.

The last dimension, the development dimension, is also known to have no connection with the setting of purpose in life. Purpose in life involves focusing on a world beyond itself (Bronk, 2014), whereas development motivation centers on ego growth and development, as well as positive involvement of the ego (Clary et al., 1998). This suggests that the motivation of understanding or enhancement is a very self-focused motivation and is not related to others, let alone giving to the world. Although the other five motivations other than value motivation are selfish or have self-serving motivations, the benefits can still be channeled or connected with people. This is in contrast to the benefits of the understanding or enhancement motivations that are not related to others at all.

Personality traits

The results showed that extraversion was positively and significantly correlated with all volunteer motivations except protective motivation. It's linear with a study from Carlo et al (2005) that extraversion is positively correlated with values motivation. In its principle, extraverted individuals are people who like to socialize, are active, like to speak, are oriented towards others, optimistic, love fun activities, and are affectionate (Pervin, 1993).

Social motivation fits with the characteristic of an extraverted person who is oriented towards other people. On the other hand, understanding and enhancement motivations are linear with fun-loving characteristics of extraverted individuals who like new experiences and are optimistic about their self-development. Agreeableness and conscientiousness are correlated significantly and positively with values, social, and understanding dimensions of volunteer motivation. This may be because agreeable individuals are gentle, kind, trusting towards others, helpful, forgiving, easily influenced, and straightforward (Pervin, 1993). It's linear with a study from Carlo et al (2005) that agreeableness is positively correlated with values motivation. Their helpful nature is in line with volunteering motivation of values that allows them to express their social principles. They are also easily influenced thus they highly score too in social and understanding motivations. Meanwhile, individuals with high conscientiousness have regular, reliable, hardworking, disciplined, timely, tidy, ambitious, and relentless characteristics (Pervin, 1993). These characteristics are in line with the understanding motivation that can help individuals to gain new knowledge. On value motivation, individuals with high conscientiousness can make themselves stick to the values they have and work hard for the problems they care about. In terms of social motivation, individuals participate in volunteer activities as a way of adapting themselves to the environment.

The open-mindedness trait has a significant and positive relationship with values, understanding, and enhancement motivation. Open-minded individuals have high curiosities (Pervin, 1993). It's linear with the understanding dimension of volunteering motivation that drives individuals to seek for new experiences and upgrade their skills (Clary et al, 1998). They also have different kinds of interests (Pervin, 1993) that's in line with the enhancement motivation that explains that they like developing themselves. Meanwhile, the values motivation fits with open-minded individuals' rich perspectives including humanitarian principles.

Quite different results were found only for the negative emotionality trait. This trait is positively correlated only with protective motivation. Protective motivations explains that individuals volunteer to protect themselves from negative things surrounding them (Clary et al, 1998). Individuals with high negative emotionality are anxious, worried, emotional, and insecure (Pervin, 1993). These individuals get involved in volunteering activities to lessen those negative characteristics in themselves.

14

Narcissistic personality

In the narcissistic personality, value motivation had a negative and significant relationship with the grandiose exhibitionism of the narcissistic personality. Individuals with value motivation want to help others without the desire to gain something for themselves.

In terms of career motivation, these motivations were related significantly positive to the three dimensions of the narcissistic personality, which are leadership/authority, grandiose exhibitionism, and entitlement/exploitativeness. Individuals with narcissistic personality that have career motivation participate in volunteer activities to gain experience that might improve their career prospects, gain a certain career's status, and can pave the way for one's career (Brunell, Tumblin, & Buelow, 2014; Stukas, Hoye, Nicholson, Brown, & Aisbett, 2016).

Social motivation was found to have a significantly negative relationship to the entitlement/exploitativeness of the narcissistic personality. The results from this study align with Brunell, Tumblink, and Buelow (2014). Individuals with a narcissistic personality have social motivation when they participate in volunteer activities because they can improve the social connections that they have.

Understanding motivation was found to correlate significantly negatively to the leadership/authority and entitlement/exploitativeness of narcissistic personality. The results of this study aligned with that of Konrath, Ho, and Zarins (2016), who found that the narcissistic personality has a significant relationship with understanding motivation. Enhancement motivation was found to be positively and significantly correlated with leadership/authority. Individuals with a narcissistic leadership/authority personality participate in volunteer activities because they can fulfill their need for appreciation related to their narcissistic personality (Daly, 2011).

Protective motivation was related significantly to the narcissistic personality of entitlement/exploitativeness. Individuals who with protective motivation participate in volunteer activities to protect their ego from a negative view of themselves (Clary et al, 1998). This finding is in line with the entitlement/exploitative narcissistic personality that an individual participates in volunteer activities to feel better about themselves and to help individuals in the face of conflict and other negative feelings.

Conclusion

New Findings

Many of the results of this study can be treated as a contribution to related psychological variables, especially in the study of volunteerism. This study has updated and applied variables that have been previously studied and produced different findings. Based on the results of the study, the six volunteer motivations can be seen to have significant relationships with other psychological attributes.

Value motivation was found to have a positively significant relationship with the personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and open-mindedness; narcissistic personality of grandiose exhibitionism; happiness; interpersonal trust; life purpose; and psychological distress. It was self-efficacy and personality trait of negative emotionality that lacked a significant relationship with value motivation.

Social motivation was found to have a significant relationship with the personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness; entitlement/exploitativeness; narcissistic personality; happiness; self-efficacy; and purpose in life. Psychological distress and personality trait of open-mindedness had no significant relationship with social motivation; while traits of negative emotionality had negative significant relationships.

In career motivation, no personality traits related to career motivation. Meanwhile, in the narcissistic personality, this motivation was the only motivation associated with the three narcissistic personalities, leadership/authority, grandiose exhibitionism, and entitlement/exploitativeness. For other psychological attributes, no significant relationship was found with career motivation.

The only motivation that was significantly related to all other variables was understanding motivation. It had a positively significant relationship with personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and open-mindedness; and negatively with negative emotionality. In the narcissistic personality, understanding motivation had a specifically significant relationship with the narcissistic personalities of leadership/authority and entitlement/exploitativeness.

In enhancement motivation, extraversion and open-mindedness were associated with this motivation. In the narcissistic personality, this motivation was related only to the narcissistic leadership/authority personality. In addition to the personality aspect, this motivation was related only to the interpersonal trust variable. There was no relationship between development motivation and other psychological attributes.

Protective motivation was related to the personality trait of negative emotionality, entitlement/exploitativeness, narcissistic personality, happiness, interpersonal trust, and psychological distress. Meanwhile, there was no relationship between protective motivation with self-efficacy, purpose in life, and other personality traits.

Study Limitation

The researchers realize that this study requires further research. Therefore, further research is expected to have a longitudinal design to observe other factors that might affect volunteer motivation in emerging adults. Further research should be done with a mixed method, combining quantitative and qualitative methods to gain deeper information about the related variables. Beside that, in terms of analysis, researchers also can examine the relationship of volunteer motivation with duration of volunteer and the type of volunteer with the information provided in the descriptive data.

References

- Ackerman, R. A., Witt, E. A., Donnellan, M. B., Trzesniewski, K. H., Robins, R.W., & Kashy, D. A. (2011). What does the narcissistic personality inventory really measure? Assessment, 18, 67-87. doi: 10.1177/1073191110382845.
- Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of research in personality*, 40(4), 440-450.
- Andrews, F. M., & Withey, S. B. (1976). Social Indicators of well-being: America's perception of life quality. New York: Plenum Press
- Campbell, A., Converse, P. E., & Rodgers, W. L. (1976). The Quality of American life: Perceptions, evaluations, and satisfactions. New York: Sage.
- Ansell, E. B. (2005). The Structure of narcissistic personality: adaptive and maladaptive dimensions as an integrated model of narcissism (Master's thesis, The Pennsylvania State University, 2005). The Pennsylvania State University

- Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: a theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist Associations*, 55(5), 469-480.
- Arnett, J. J. (2014). Emerging adulthood: the winding road from the late teens through the twenties (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Arnett, J. J., Zukauskiene, R., & Sugimura, K. (2014). The New life stage of emerging adulthood at ages 18-29 years: implication for mental health. *Lancet Psychiatry*, *1*, 569-576.
- Aydinli, A., Bender, M., & Chasiotis, A. (2013). Helping and volunteering across cultures: Determinants of prosocial behavior. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 5(3), 6-15.
- Badan Pusat Statistik. (2013). Proyeksi penduduk Indonesia 2010-2035. Jakarta, Indonesia: Badan Pusat Statistik.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), Encyclopedia of human behavior (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], Encyclopedia of mental health. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).
- Benson, P. L., Dehority, J., Garman, L., Hanson, E., Hochschwender, M., Lebold, C., Rohr, R., & Sullivan, J. (1980). Intrapersonal Correlates of Nonspontaneous Helping Behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 110,* 87-95.
- Bojanic, D. (2016). The Role of Youth in the Implementation of SDGs. Dikutip pada 10 Oktober 2017 dari https://www.huffingtonpost.com/the-youth-assembly-at-theunited-nations/the-role-of-youth-in-the_b_9237714.html
- Boling, A. L. (2006). Volunteer motivations across the lifespan (Doctoral dissertation, Claremont Graduate University, 2005) (pp. 1-207). ProQuest Information and Learning Company.
- Bronk, K. C. (2014). Purpose in life: a Critical component of optimal youth development. (Springer eBooks.) Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
- Brunell, A. B., Tumblin, L., & Buelow, M. T. (2014). Narcissism and the motivation to engage in volunteerism. *Current Psychology*, 33(3), 365-376.
- Butt, M. U., Hou, Y., Soomro, K. A., & Acquadro Maran, D. (2017). The ABCE model of volunteer motivation. *Journal of social service research*, 43(5), 593-608.
- Campbell, W. K., Brunell, A. B., & Finkel, E. J. (2006). Narcissism, interpersonal self regulation, and romantic relationships: An agency model approach. In K. D. Vohs & E. J. Finkel (Eds.), Selfand relationships: Connecting intrapersonal and interpersonal processes (pp. 57–83). New York: Guilford Press.
- Campbell, W. K., & Foster, J. D. (2007). The Narcissistic self: Background, an extended agency model, and ongoing controversies. In C. Sedikides & S. J. Spencer (Eds.), *Frontiers of Social Psychology. The Self* (115-138). New York: Psychology Press.

- Carlo, G., Okun, M. A., Knight, G. P., Guzman, M. R. T. (2005). The interplay of traits and motives on volunteering: Agreeableness, extraversion, and prosocial value motivation. *Personality and Individual Differences, 38*, 1293-1305.
- Chacon, F., Gutierrez, G., Sauto, V., Vecina, M. L., & Perez, A. (2017). Volunteer Functions Inventory: A systematic review. *Psicothema*,29, 306-316.
- Cheung, C., Lo, T., & Liu, E. (2015). Sustaining social trust and volunteer role identity reciprocally over time in pre-adult, adult, and older volunteers. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 42(1), 70-83. Doi: 10.1080/01488376.2015.1078267
- Clary, E. G., & Snyder, M. (1991). A functional analysis of altruism and prosocial behavior: The case of volunteerism. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), Review of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 12,119–148. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: a Functional approach. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 74(6), 1516-1531.
- Cnaan, R. A., & Goldberg-Glen, R. S. (1991). Measuring motivation to volunteer in human services. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 27(3), 269-284.
- Cornelis, I., Van Hiel, A., & De Cremer, D. (2013). Volunteer work in youth organizations: predicting distinct aspects of volunteering behavior from self- and other-oriented motives. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43, 456–466.
- Cotton, K. (2014). Agents of Change: Recognizing the role of volunteer action in sustainable development. Dikutip pada 7 Oktober 2017, dari https://www.devex.com/news/agents-of-change-recognizing-the-role-of-volunteer-action-in-sustainable-development-84039.
- Daly, E. J. (2011). The Dimensionality and structure of trait narcissism (Doctoral dissertation, University of Notre Dame, 2011). ProQuest Information and Learning Company.
- Davila, M. C., & Diaz-Morales, J. F. (2009). Age and motives for volunteering: further evidence. *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, 2, 82-95.
- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: the science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 34-43. doi: 10.1037//0003-066X.1.34
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. Psychological Bulletin, 95, 542-575.
- Emmons, R. A. (1984). Factor analysis and construct validity of the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 48*(3), 291-300.
- Evans, A. M., & Revelle, W. (2008). Survey and behavioral measurements of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 42(6), 1585-1593.
- Feist, J. & Feist, G. J. (2006). Theories of personality. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Flanagan, C., & Levine, P. (2010). Civic engagement and the transition to adulthood. Spring. 20(1), 159-179.
- Frisch, M. B., & Gerrard, M. (1981). Natural helping systems: a survey of red cross volunteers. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9(5), 567-579.
- Gaucher, D., Wood, J. V., Stinson, D. A., Forest, A. L., Holmes, J. G., & Logel, C. (2012). Perceived regard explains self-esteem differences in expressivity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 38(9), 1144-1156.
- Gravetter, F. J., & Forzano, L. B. (2012). Research methods for the behavioral sciences (4th Ed.). Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2013). Statistics for Behavioral Sciences (9th Ed.). Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Hernowo, F. A. (2017). Hubungan antara tingkat narsisme dan perilaku pengunggahan swafoto di Instagram pada generasi millennial. Depok: Universitas Indonesia.
- Holtzman, N. S., Vazire, S., & Mehl, M. R. (2010). Sounds like a narcissist: Behavioral manifestation of narcissism in everyday life. J Res Pers, 44(4), 478-484.

Indorelawan.org. (2016). Survey aksi baik.

- Jackson, A. (2017). The 10 most serious problems in the world, according to millennials. Dikutip pada 7 Oktober 2017, http://www.businessinsider.sg/world-problems.
- Jaffe, E., Sasson, U., Knobler, H., Aviel, E., & Goldberg, A. (2012). Volunteers and the risk of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Nonprofit Management andLeadership*, 22(3), 367-377.
- Jansen, K. L. (2010). Coping, stress, and burnout factors in long-term volunteering. The University of Toledo.
- Kaplan, R. M., & Saccuzzo, D. P. (2009). Psychological testing: Principles, applications, and issues, seventh edition. Cengage Learning: Belmont.

Katz, D. (1960). The functional approach to the study of attitudes. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 24(2), 163-204.

- King, L. A. (2008). The Science of psychology: an appreciative view. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Keyes, C. (2006). Subjective well-being in mental health and human Development research worldwide. Social Research Indicators, 77, 1-10.
- Konrath, S., Ho, M., & Zarins, S. (2016). The Strategic helper: narcissism and prosocial motives and behaviors. *Current Psychology*, 35, 182-194.
- Kumar, R. (2011). Research Methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners, Third Edition. Sage Publications.

- Kurniasih, Y. D. (2004). Peranan komitmen organisasi, kepribadian prososial, dan motivasi kerelawanan terhadap keterlibatan relawan (Master's thesis, Universitas Indonesia, 2004)(hal. 1-107). Depok: Universitas Indonesia.
- LAT. (2010). Local Assessment Team (LAT): NPO Domestic Review (Non-Profit Organization) Indonesia's Report. 1-154.
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. S. (1997). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary reliability and construct validation. Social Indicators. Research, 46, 137-155.
- Lyubomirsky, S. (2008). The How of happiness: a Scientific approach to getting the life you want. New York : The Penguin Press.
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Dickerhoof, R. (2010). A construal approach to increasing happiness. Dalam Maddux, J. E., & Tangney, J.P., *Social Psychologycal Foundation of Clinical Psyschology*. (hal. 229-244). Hew York: The Guilford Press.
- Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affects: Does happiness lead to success? Psychological Bulletin, 131, 803-85
- MacNeela, P. (2008). The give and take of volunteering: Motives, benefits, and personal connections among Irish volunteers. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 19(2), 125-139.
- Mattis, J. S., Hammond, W. P., Grayman, N., Bonacci, M., Brennan, W., Cowie, S., Ladyzhenskaya, L., & So, S. (2009). The Social Production of Altruism: Motivations for Caring Action in a Low-Income Urban Community. Am J Community Psychology, 43, 71-84.
- McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1953). The achievement motive.
- McDonald, J. D. (2008). Measuring personality constructs: the advantages and disadvantages of self reports, informant reports and behavioural assessments. *Enquire I*(1), 75-94.
- McKnight, P. E., & Kashdan, T. B. (2009). Purpose in life as a system that creates and sustains health and well-being: an integrative, testable theory. *Review of General Psychology*, 13(3), 242-252.
- Miller, P. H. (2011). Theories of developmental psychology (5th Ed.). New York, NY: Worth Publishers.
- Millon, T. (2011). Disorders of personality: Introducing a DSM / ICD spectrum from normal to abnormal (3rd Ed). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Musick, M., & Wilson, J. (2008). Volunteers: A Social profile. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

- Ng, E. S., Schweitzer, L., & Lyons, S. T. (2010). New generation, great expectations: A field study of the millennial generation. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(2), 281-292.
- Omoto, M. A., Snyder, M., & Martino, S. C. (2000). Volunteerism and the life course: Investigating age-related agendas for action. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 22(3), 181-197.
- Papadakis, K. (2004). Understanding volunteer's motivations. Recreation and Leisure Studies Master's Theses, State University of New York, 2004) (pp.1-80). New York: State University of New York.
- Papadakis, K., Griffin, T., & Frater, J. (2005). Understanding volunteer" s motivations. In Proceedings of the 2004 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium (pp. 321-326)
- Paramboukis, O., Skues, J., & Wise, L. (2016). An exploratory study of the relationships between narcissism, self-esteem and instagram use. *Social Networking, 5,* 82-92.

Penner, L. A. (2002). Dispositional and organizational influences on sustained volunteerism: an interactionist perspective. *Journal of Social Issues, 58*(3), 447-467.

- Pincus, A. L., & Lukowitsky, M. R. (2010). Pathological narcissism and narcissistic personality disorder. Annual Review of Clinical Psychology, 6, 421-446.
- Pervin, L. A. (1993). Personality: Theory and research (6th ed.). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Pramesona, B. A., & Taneepanichskul, S. (2018) Factors influencing the quality of life Among Indonesian elderly: A nursing home-based cross-sectional survey. *Journal* of Health Research, Vol. 32 Issue: 5, pp.326-333,<u>https://doi.org/10.1108/JHR-08.</u>
- Raskin, R., & Terry, H. (1988). A Principal-components analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personalityand Social Psychology*,54(5),890-902.
- Reifman, A., Arnett, J. J., & Colwell, M. J. (2007). Emerging adulthood: Theory, assessment and application. *Journal of Youth Development*, 2(1), 37-48
- Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. Journal of Personality, 35(4), 651-665.
- Rotter, J. B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American Psychologist*, 35(1), 1-15.
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: Across-discipline view of trust. Academy of management review, 23(3), 393-404.
- Schluckebier, M. E. (2013). Dream worth pursuing: how college students developand articulate their purpose in life. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuestDissertations and Theses database. (3566703)
- SDGsIndonesia. (n.d.a). Apa itu SDGs? Dikutip tanggal 6 Oktober 2017 dari <u>http://sdgsindonesia.or.id/index.php/apa-itu-sdgs</u>

- Sheany. (2017). Indonesia commits to sustainable development through new presidential regulation. Dikutip tanggal 6 Oktober 2017, dari<u>http://jakartaglobe.id/news/indonesia-commits-sustainable-development-new-presidential-regulation/</u>
- Snyder, M., & Omoto, A. M. (2009). Youth empowerment and volunteerism: Principles, policies, and practices. University of Hong Kong.
- Soto, C. J., & John, O. P. (2017). Short and extra-short forms of the Big Five Inventory-2: The BFI-2-S and BFI-2-XS. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 68, 69-81.
- Stein, J. (2013, May 20). Millennials: The me me me generation. Retrieved from http://time.com/247/millennials-the-me-me-generation/
- Steinberg, K. S., Rooney, P. M., & Chin, W. (2002). Measurement of volunteering: A methodological study using Indiana as a test case. Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 31(4), 484-501.
- Strack, S. (2006). Differentiating normal and abnormal personality (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc.
- Stukas, A. A., Snyder, M., & Clary, E. G. (2016). Understanding and encouraging volunteerism and community involvement. *The Journal of social psychology*, 156(3), 243– 255. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2016.1153328
- Stukas, A. A., Hoye, R., Nicholson, M., Brown, K. M., & Aisbett, L. (2014). Motivations to volunteer and their associations with volunteers' well-being. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 45(1), 112-132.
- Talamati, B. P. (2012). Hubungan antara trait kepribadian neuroticism dan psychological wellbeing pada mahasiswa tingkat akhir universitas Indonesia. Depok: Skripsi.
- Tumblin, L. (2012). Narcissism and the motivation to engage in volunteerism (Master's thesis, The Ohio State University, 2012) (pp.1-33). The Ohio State University.

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2009). The Narcissism epidemic: Living in the age of entitlement (1st ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

- Twenge, J. M., Konrath, S., Foster, J. D., Campbell, W. K., & Bushman, B. J. (2008). Egos inflating over time: a Cross-temporal meta-analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality*, 76(4), 875-901.
- UNV. (n.d.). Sustainable development goals: Information and guidance for volunteer organization. UN Volunteers.
- UNV. (2013). Youth volunteers, agents of change. UN Volunteers. Dikutip tanggal 10 Oktober 2017 dari https://www.unv.org/news/youth-volunteers-agents-change
- UNV. (2017, 22 Agustus). Youth for peacebuilding and conflict resolution in Sudan. UNVolunteers. Dikutip tanggal 10 Oktober 2017 dari https://www.unv.org/news/youth-peacebuilding-and-conflict-resolution-sudan

- UNV. (2017, 25 Agustus). Youth for sustainable development and energy-efficient lifestyle. UN Volunteers. Dikutip tanggal 10 Oktober 2017 dari https://www.unv.org/news/youthsustainable-development-and-energy-efficient-lifestyles
- UN Youth. (n.d.). Youth and volunteerism. United Nations Youth.
- Verified Volunteers. (2017). Volunteer Screening Trends & Best Practices Report: 2017. Retrieved from <u>https://www.verifiedvolunteers.com/resources/screeningtrends-and-best-practices-report/</u>
- Watson, S. (2013). Volunteering may be good for body and mind. Retrieved from https://www.health.harvard.edu/blog/volunteering-may-be-good-for-body-andmind-201306266428
- Wilson, J. (2012). Volunteerism research: A review esay. Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 41, 176-212.
- Veenhoven, R. (2009). How do we assess how happy we are? Tenets, implications and tenability of three theories. *Happiness, Economics And Politics, 5*,45-69.
- Wetzel, E., Roberts, B. W., Fraley, R. C., & Brown, A. (2016). Equivalence of Narcissistic Personality Inventory constructs and correlates across scoring approaches and response formats. *Journal of Research in Personality, 61, 87-98.*
- Widjaja, E. (2010). *Motivation behind volunteerism*. (Master's thesis, Claremont McKenna College). Claremont McKenna College.
- Willigen, M. V. (2000). Differential benefits of volunteering across the life course. The Journals of Gerontology, 55(5), B, 308-318.
- Wu, H. (2011). Social impact of volunteerism. Points of Light Institute.
- Yadessa, T. (2015). Motivational factors among volunteers: The Case of rotaract clubs in AddisAbaba (Master's thesis, Addis Ababa University College of Education and BehavioralStudies, 2015). Addis Ababa University College of Education and Behavioral Studies.
- Yeung, B. A. (2004). The Octagon model of volunteer motivation: Results of phenomenological analysis. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 15(1), 21-46.