

FROM THE EDITOR

In This Issue ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

FEATURE ARTICLES

Voluntourism in Cross-Cultural Contexts: Critical Issues and the Case for International Volunteer Development and Management

J.M. LaChenaye, Ph.D.

Voluntourism, the combination of volunteering efforts with tourism, has emerged as a popular option for individuals to combine volunteering with an international experience. With growth stemming largely from endorsements in the tourism industry, the phenomenon of voluntourism presents a number of complications in the areas of cultural competency and developmental aid in international communities. These issues are further complicated by the intersection of volunteerism's focus on aid and tourism's focus on entertainment. The goal of this discussion is to engage the field in a critical examination of the implications of voluntourism on the communities in which it operates, issues in management and development of voluntourists, and ways in which the volunteer development community can contribute to this growing area. ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

Key Words: cross-cultural, cultural competency, volunteer tourism, international, voluntourism

IDEAS AT WORK

Online “Jams” as a Tool for Professional Development and Community Engagement

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Ph.D.

This paper describes a teaching project to involve graduate students in nonprofit studies at the LBJ School of Public Affairs in a community engagement “crowdsourcing” effort focused on the topic of short-term volunteering. Students were responsible for organizing a one-day online brainstorming session, called a “jam,” in which geographically dispersed participants contributed to a 12-hour online discussion related to the topic with input from experts in the field. Based on a model developed by IBM, jams are sponsored by a variety of organizations around the world to engage virtual communities in online conversations on topics as diverse as global security and video game design. Major goals of the project were to have students explore this topic in volunteerism in depth and to provide experience for future nonprofit professionals in the design and management of community engagement events. Potential applications for similar events are discussed in the context of extending professional development and networking options for nonprofit capacity building and collaboration. ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

Key Words: community engagement, jam, short-term volunteering

Corporate Volunteer Programs

Shaan Shahabuddin, Zubaida Qamar & Noor Mobeen, Ph.D.

Massive corporations in the United States are well-known for their focus of acquiring wealth and spending millions of dollars on factors that benefit the company. Many organizations are now beginning to incorporate volunteer programs where employees engage in community service activities by assisting individuals in disadvantaged circumstances. Corporate volunteer programs have shown to benefit the organization directly and indirectly, as well benefit non-profit organization partners, employees, and future clients/customers. Social Identity Theory is used to explain how employees commit themselves in volunteer acts to support an organization that they see fit to their identity. ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

Key Words: volunteers, corporate volunteer program, corporate volunteerism

Adapting Communication Methods within the 4-H Program Based on Participant Preference

Dan Teuteberg

Through the use of a survey, volunteer communication preferences were gathered and the preferred method of communication was implemented. Having a strong understanding of the communication methods 4-H volunteers prefer is essential to their engagement in the 4-H Youth Development program. Volunteers who are informed about activities, events, and program needs are more likely to be engaged in those positive youth development opportunities about which they are most passionate. ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

Key Words: assessment, electronic communication, volunteer preferences

TOOLS OF THE TRADE

Motivation in Volunteers: What Drives People to Provide Free Labor?

Shaan Shahabuddin & Zubaida Qamar

In his book “Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us”, Daniel Pink describes that motivation at work is achieved through three processes: Autonomy (power to control one’s work), Mastery (productivity and improvement in one’s task), and Purpose (sense of belonging to a system greater than one’s self). Pink states that if these three processes are achieved, then individuals will dedicate more time to their jobs, will work more diligently on their assigned duties, and companies will benefit from the efficiency of its employees. The current paper applies the concepts from Pink’s book to volunteer programs by outlining how volunteer resource managers can improve morale and character of its volunteers. ...[LINK TO PDF](#)

Key Words: volunteers, leadership, motivation, drive

In This Issue:

The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA) seeks to provide for an exchange of ideas and sharing of knowledge and insights about volunteerism, and volunteer management and administration, both in North America and internationally. The current issue offers a diverse mix of articles exploring key aspects of volunteer resource management. While the number of articles is not as large as we would like, it is important to acknowledge the contributions of those published in this issue.

As you read the articles, I would encourage you to take one or two key messages from those you read to further explore for implementation in your organization. We would love to hear from you about how you have incorporated ideas you read about from IJOVA and the successes and/or challenges you encountered. This is your opportunity to be published! More importantly, this is another opportunity that you may contribute to the profession.

As always, we welcome your contributions to IJOVA by authoring articles, subscribing to the journal, sharing ideas with your colleagues and encouraging others to read and engage in the conversation!

Ryan Schmiesing, Ph.D.
Editor, The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA)

**Voluntourism in Cross-Cultural Contexts:
Critical Issues and the Case for International Volunteer Development and Management**

J.M. LaChenaye, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor, Department of Human Studies, School of Education,
The University of Alabama at Birmingham
1720 2nd Ave S, EB 259, Birmingham, AL 35294-1250
Tel. 205.934.2357 * Email: jmlach@uab.edu

Abstract

Voluntourism, the combination of volunteering efforts with tourism, has emerged as a popular option for individuals to combine volunteering with an international experience. With growth stemming largely from endorsements in the tourism industry, the phenomenon of voluntourism presents a number of complications in the areas of cultural competency and developmental aid in international communities. These issues are further complicated by the intersection of volunteerism's focus on aid and tourism's focus on entertainment. The goal of this discussion is to engage the field in a critical examination of the implications of voluntourism on the communities in which it operates, issues in management and development of voluntourists, and ways in which the volunteer development community can contribute to this growing area.

Key Words: cross-cultural, cultural competency, volunteer tourism, international, voluntourism.

Volunteering is a social process, requiring various levels of intercultural communication and cross-cultural interaction. In the field of sociocultural and international educational development, this combination of the volunteer/volunteering program and the context of the international environment is a common issue in generating programs and projects abroad. These programs have often relied on the use of international experts as well as influence from volunteers through programs such as the Peace Corps and international bodies such as UNESCO and affiliated non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The allure and practice of venturing beyond one's societal and national border has increased in recent years as growing numbers of potential volunteers travel abroad through a host of new and emerging programs (with a generous push from the tourism industry). With this transnational phenomenon, however, comes a host of

issues from the fields of international development and volunteering – issues that seem to be exacerbated in programs that lend themselves to the specific genre of voluntourism.

What is Voluntourism?

The international and cross-cultural experiences described above are part of a growing phenomenon referred to as volunteer tourism. “Voluntourism” (as it is known in the organizations that support it) combines tourism with volunteer work at the location of choice (Barbieri, Santos, & Katsube 2012; Kumaran & Pappas, 2012). “Voluntourists” may complete a project as the main goal of their trip or the project may play a secondary role to the leisure experience. In the case of professional organization volunteers (i.e., Peace Corps and mission trips), the service aspect is the larger component of their time abroad, whereas programs that offer a small segment

of time working within a community project for a non-committed traveler as part of a greater tourist leisure package would be classified on the more touristic end of the continuum. It is this latter half of the continuum that forms the growing trends in voluntourism.

Voluntourism is often addressed in conjunction with the concept of sustainable tourism – a growing trend in tourism in which would-be tourists select a destination and activities in a way that limits or reduces the negative impacts of tourism on local environments or seeks to negate these impacts through activities that provide positive inputs for the community (Brown & Hall, 2008; Palacios, 2010). These events range from sports event volunteering to welfare programs such as school construction and environmental conservation. Most voluntourists are drawn to the process for the opportunity to participate in alternatives to mainstream tourism as well as to achieve personal development through experiences with new and differing cultures, especially within locations in the third world (Brown & Hall, 2008; Kumaran & Pappas, 2012). Voluntourism projects generally consist of the voluntourist, who has traveled to the host location, and the local host, who serves as the guide and point of contact and lead of the project. Hosts may or may not be employed by an external agency and often have responsibilities specific to the experience of the voluntourist group. The process, however, is unbalanced, with a majority of the success providing better experiences and results for the voluntourist rather than the host (Sherraden, Lough, & McBride, 2008).

Voluntourists are typically younger individuals, usually seeking international opportunities in “gap years” or after significant life changes (Brown & Hall, 2008). The phenomenon is international,

with a large number of voluntourists stemming from Europe, North America, and Australia. These individuals seek out voluntourism as an opportunity to voyage to exotic or rarely traveled locations and make connections with local groups and communities. Programs and activities are provided through a variety of organizations, including specific non-profit groups and travel agencies. Travel-based industries such as airlines and tourist resorts provide a significant source of encouragement for voluntourists to seek volunteer opportunities abroad (such as the voluntourism-focused site www.voluntourism.org) (Kumaran & Pappas, 2012).

Critical Issues for Volunteer and Program Development

Although there are positive aspects to the volunteer tourism phenomenon, the process is flawed in terms of volunteer and program development. First and foremost, its credibility as a positive volunteer force is debated (Palacios, 2010). Voluntourism seems to be the product of the tourism industry rather than having origins in volunteer and nonprofit arenas. Voluntourism “packages” are typically organized by tourist agencies and focus on providing the ultimate product package for the adventurous tourist. The process of travel and volunteer enjoyment are the predominant concern – not the completion of the volunteer task or project. As a result of this emphasis, sites lack the preparation and structure of a developed volunteer management program which often results in deficient volunteer organization and evaluation (Barbieri et al., 2012).

As a result of these roots, voluntourism research typically arises from the field of tourism and hospitality management. There is little overall research in the realm of voluntourism, with a gross majority of the limited writings being overly

optimistic and focusing on the marketing side of what appears to be a largely tourism-driven phenomenon (Raymond & Hall, 2008). Research focuses on the voluntourist as a point of marketing and business, with most research seeking to ascertain volunteer motivations and investigate experiences in an effort to encourage the phenomenon in a business generating motive (Sin, 2010). Guttentag (2009) supports this conclusion, stating that this interest “seems to derive from a marketing-type goal of better understanding volunteer tourists so that their needs can be better met” (p. 540), with a majority of studies being largely descriptive of voluntourists and their tastes.

This focus on the enjoyment of the voluntourist in the tourism promotion sense leaves little room for discussions of volunteer development. Due to the nature of the process taking place in a foreign country, volunteer tourism is highly episodic (Barbieri et al., 2012). Volunteers may spend a large amount of time in a specific area working on a specific project, but rarely do they return for future work. Entertainment seems to be a goal placed higher in this model than in typical volunteer development and management models. Volunteers enter the worksite as a component event tied to the expectation of a leisure/travel experience and then return home. There is no volunteer base or steady replenishment of volunteers. Participation is based on trends in travel and tourism and not on the typical elements of volunteer retention strategies and maintenance.

Volunteer tourism is also saturated with concerns in local relationships. Guttentag (2009) discusses a number of these negative impacts as they relate to the host country and community. Volunteer tourists are often untrained in the work they are sent to complete and may limit or increase the amount of productive work completed by host individuals participating

in the project. Some (although little) research does focus on the experiences and motivation of the local communities, but this research seems inconclusive and rare at best. Discussions of context and social issues in the community are limited if present at all and are often discussed in terms of relating to local engagement with voluntourists and voluntourist engagement with the experience (Dykhuis, 2010; Sherraden et al., 2008). In addition, local communities and stakeholders may be offered little say in the process or components of the projects.

Guttentag also brings into question the developmental factor. Voluntourists have the potential to decrease employment and resources in host communities by providing services for free. This work furthers the concept of developmental aid – providing services to others in terms of development but not necessarily providing the tools and capacities to succeed – and could potentially increase dependency. Local hosts are further objectified as the “other” in a process that makes the voluntourist a type of explorer moving freely within the native communities’ boundaries. Palacios’ (2010) work further supports this observation, discussing the language of voluntourism as closer to developmental aid versus intercultural understanding. The object appears to be helping the perceived “less fortunate” and less about understanding cultural and political influences and struggles. Tourism, although highly beneficial for bringing funding into an area, has the capacity to bring with it a host of negative influences and therefore is inadequate and inappropriate for the task of development (Brown & Hall, 2008).

Finally (and perhaps of most debate in the discussion of negative effects of voluntourism), there is a neocolonial complication inherent in the process of volunteering in welfare-based programs

internationally (Raymond & Hall, 2008; Sherraden et al., 2008). Foreign voluntourists, typically coming from backgrounds of privilege more often than not, inhabit the host community for the duration of the project as an act of leisure and often not at the bequest of the host community. Most voluntourists pay for the opportunity to participate, the travel costs, and oftentimes the project itself (Kumaran & Pappas, 2012). In a Central American example, Mahrouse (2011) describes the experience of a priest working with voluntourism in his community. The priest, who had been made responsible for the voluntourists' endeavors, was less than willing to work with the group. In his opinion, a donation of the high cost used on transportation to and from the destination as well as housing costs would do more good for the community than the volunteer work completed by the tourists. In this sense, the volunteer tourist's leisure/work experience is imposing upon the host community – a community that is often less privileged than the volunteer's own (Sin, 2010).

These patterns replicate the use of underdeveloped areas as a means of leisure. The background of voluntourists and/or the programs set up in foreign communities creates a problematic power dynamic between the voluntourist and the voluntoured. The process creates an exaggerated dichotomy between the voluntourist and the cultural "other" and may increase levels of cultural/social stereotyping on the part of the voluntourist in relation to the native group culture (Mahrouse, 2011; Raymond & Hall, 2008).

Furthermore, there is a gross imbalance between voluntourist traffic from developed areas such as Europe, Australia, and North America to the third world "south" locations such as Africa and South America (Brown & Hall, 2008). These border crossings and events bring negative

effects to the developing nations they serve and a number of social justice transgressions, largely due to the volunteer-centered leisure and tourism goal of the programs (Mahrouse, 2011), a combination that does not marry seamlessly and without debate. Volunteer tourists working in areas or communities that are perceived as developmentally inferior to the volunteer's native country may view the community in a sympathetic rather than empathetic light and begin to see themselves in a missionary-type role (Guttentag, 2009).

Brown and Hall (2008) and Sin's (2010) findings support the issues and complications of this form of "pro-poor" tourism, where the industry seeks to utilize tourism as a force to alleviate poverty and other social welfare issues. Through this motivation as a form of sustainable tourism, voluntourism programs seek to provide events that serve the voluntourist's sense of welfare action. Mahrouse (2011), however, refers to this process of volunteering as a "feel good opportunity" designed by nonmembers and not work done with or for the community in which it is situated. The voluntourist is presented as the provider and "do-gooder" in a "voyeuristic tour of poverty" (Dykhuis, 2010, p. 21). Voluntourists motivations in these nations are often "driven by a desire for moral comfort and reinforce positions of innocence" (Mahrouse, 2011, p. 386).

Implications for Volunteer Development and Future Work

The dispute about the expenditure of resources involved in travel versus the value of the work completed in combination with the focus on leisure over work brings into question the value of the volunteer experience. The voluntourism process, with its roots in tourism management, offers little in the way of true volunteer programming. Volunteer management reflects the

processes of tourism incentives and not the development of trained and responsible volunteers. To increase effectiveness, programming should include a push for greater and more structured management and the incorporation of more genuine and authentic interactions with locals (Raymond & Hall, 2008). These interactions allow the two parties to make connections, alleviate misconceptions through facts and experience, and generate a sense of mutual purpose and value. Project selection and planning should be local-focused, with culturally relevant individuals serving as equal-partner stakeholders in the process and not merely as part of the tourism experience. Closing the dichotomy between the voluntourist and the voluntoured not only increases the benefit for the community, but also promotes an understanding of local issues on the part of the voluntourist rather than a simple focus on entertainment.

Remedying the process begins with promoting research in the volunteer studies field and development in an attempt of creating truly volunteer-based management in host organizations (Sherraden et al., 2008). Foreign volunteers working in new locations require training not only in the specific type of work that will be required in their positions, but also in sociocultural training and international relationships. The rhetoric of the program as an opportunity to “change the world” (while successfully tapping into the volunteer’s desire to contribute something) should also be investigated and negotiated, as it may further drive the neocolonial issues of the process by encouraging a sense of giver in a lacking environment (Mahrouse, 2011) and overshadow the depth and complexity of world issues. Benefit should be mutual to both the local and the voluntourist, fostering intercultural relationships and promoting reflection on the part of the voluntourist so

that both communities begin to work collaboratively rather than working upon and within.

Some promise for more meaningful and mindful voluntourism experiences has come from the application of service-learning models to the voluntourism experience. In these models, voluntourists provide reflections and engage in discussion and analysis that seeks to highlight the role of the volunteer in the host society and the interpersonal relationships that may arise (Bailey & Fernando, 2011). Dykhuis (2010) further supports the role of reflection and intercultural consciousness but highlights the issue of motive. Voluntourists should first be acquainted with volunteering and welfare-based contexts at home and understand the implications beyond the tourism experience of novelty, because “if students are incapable of recognizing or addressing injustice and inequality at home, there is little value in having them travel internationally to do so, especially if they could potentially cause more harm than good” (p. 22). Promoting the reflection component of the service-learning model in these activities (especially in cases where the host community can participate) has the potential to decrease the gaps present between these groups and ensure an intercultural learning experience on the part of the voluntourist. At this point, the volunteer development practice of evaluation is of increased importance, having the opportunity to measure impact on both sides of the project and increasingly building a bank of best practice for an area of the field with little to no guides or research developed from a volunteer development perspective. This practice not only encourages accountability and research in this area but also promotes actions to close the gap between the fields of volunteer development and tourism management as it applies to this instance of overlapping

interests. Due to the current lack of research in the area from the standpoint of volunteer development, exploratory studies focused on evaluation of such projects can provide insight into areas of further interest and begin building a direction and platform for voluntourism research in the field.

In addition to building these understandings of the human condition at home, Dykhuis also stresses the importance of developing a sense of context. Voluntourists should receive training for cultural consciousness and a deeper than superficial understanding of culture, politics, and history before voyaging abroad, especially in consideration of the exaggerated situations found in nations of the developing world. Kumaran and Pappas' (2012) critical research of voluntourists and voluntourism programming also emphasizes cultural trainings, largely in their call for stronger orientation and training in a volunteer management model rather than in the tourism approach. The voluntourism experience is often lax and typically provides no debriefing once the volunteer returns home. Programming that is rich in opportunities for reflection, true volunteer development and management models, and structured programs both in the host country and home have the capacity to make voluntourism a rewarding experience that increases civic knowledge and engagement and the voluntourist's own personal growth as a member of the world community (Bailey & Fernando, 2011; Bailey & Russell, 2010).

Conclusions

Although the overall humanitarian impact of volunteerism is questionable (Sin, 2010), there are lessons from former successful program practices that can bring this genre of volunteer work more into the realm of volunteer management rather than tourism. Models such as the Peace Corps

program, complete with strong volunteer programming and training components and decreased cost relative to the length of stay and quality of work, may provide insights for better practice and program modeling. Increasing local stakeholder voice in programming may give more voice to the voluntoured and lessen the influence of neocolonialist issues.

The greatest possible influence on changing the tides of voluntourism is to promote research of the topic within the field of volunteer studies, including a focus on volunteer management and the study of interactions cross-culturally. Very little research is currently available regarding the process of voluntourism in the volunteer administration sphere, highlighting a need for study and application from the field of volunteer development. The majority of existing research details the work of individuals seeking volunteer experiences abroad, with few mentions of those completing the project domestically. Some mention is made of corporations and individuals exploring options within national borders, such as the influx of American volunteers to New Orleans post-Katrina (Kaneman & Pappas, 2012), but in-depth studies remain sparse. Exploring the possibility of opportunities within the volunteers' native country may lessen some of the critical issues presented here as well as provide assistance, resources, and valuable cross-cultural understandings of volunteers' own societies and environments before extending this new phenomenon beyond the borders of home. Research focusing on the intercultural elements of volunteering in our own communities may help establish a jumping off point for further research and a development of best practices for the new but quickly expanding field of voluntourism.

References

- Bailey, A.W., & Fernando, I. K. (2011). Decoding the voluntourism process: A case study of the Pay it Forward tour. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 33, 406-410.
- Bailey, A. W. & Russell, K. C. (2010). Predictors of interpersonal growth in volunteer tourism: A latent curve approach. *Leisure Sciences*, 32, 352-368.
- Barbieri, C., Santos, C. A., & Katsube, Y. (2012). Volunteer tourism: On-the-ground observations from Rwanda. *Tourism Management*, 33, 509-516.
- Brown, F., & Hall, D. (2008). Tourism and development in the global south. *Third World Quarterly*, 29, 839-849.
- Dykhuis, C. (2010). Youth as voluntourists: A case study of youth volunteering in Guatemala. *Undercurrent Journal*, 7(3), 15-24.
- Guttentag, D. A. (2009). The possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11, 537-551.
- Kumaran, M., & Pappas, J. (2012). Managing Voluntourism. In T. D. Connors (Ed.), *The Volunteer Management Handbook*. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons. Retrieved from <http://www.wiley.com/go/volhandbook>.
- Mahrouse, G. (2011). Feel-good tourism: An ethical option for socially conscious Westerners? *ACME International E-Journal for Critical Geographies*, 10, 372-391. Retrieved from <http://www.acme-journal.org/vol10/Mahrouse2011.pdf>.
- Palacios, C. M. (2010). Volunteer tourism development and education in a postcolonial world: Conceiving global connections beyond aid. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18, 861-878.
- Raymond, E. M., & Hall, C. M. (2008). The development of cross-cultural (mis)understanding through volunteer tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16, 530-543.
- Sherraden, M. S., Lough, B., & McBride, A. M. (2008) Effects of international volunteering and service: Individual and institutional predictors. *Voluntas*, 19, 395-421.
- Sin, H. L. (2010). Who are we responsible to? Locals' tales of volunteer tourism. *Geoforum*, 41, 983-992.
-

About the Author

J. M. LaChenaye is Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology and Research at the University of Alabama at Birmingham, specializing in cultural competency in research and evaluation. Her work focuses on the intersections of culture and research in development, management, and evaluation.

Acknowledgements

The author was introduced to the concept of voluntourism by Janet Fox, Ph.D. of Louisiana State University during a discussion of cultural competency. This manuscript would not have been possible without her support and introduction to the field of volunteer administration.

Online “Jams” as a Tool for Professional Development and Community Engagement

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Ph.D.

Lecturer, RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service
Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs, The University of Texas at Austin
PO Box Y, Austin, TX 78713
Tel: 512.475.7616 * FAX: 512.232.7063 * Email: rehnborg@austin.utexas.edu

Abstract

This paper describes a teaching project to involve graduate students in nonprofit studies at the LBJ School of Public Affairs in a community engagement “crowdsourcing” effort focused on the topic of short-term volunteering. Students were responsible for organizing a one-day online brainstorming session, called a “jam,” in which geographically dispersed participants contributed to a 12-hour online discussion related to the topic with input from experts in the field. Based on a model developed by IBM, jams are sponsored by a variety of organizations around the world to engage virtual communities in online conversations on topics as diverse as global security and video game design. Major goals of the project were to have students explore this topic in volunteerism in depth and to provide experience for future nonprofit professionals in the design and management of community engagement events. Potential applications for similar events are discussed in the context of extending professional development and networking options for nonprofit capacity building and collaboration.

Key Words: community engagement, jam, short-term volunteering

Background

Volunteerism and community engagement are integral to the [Portfolio Program in Nonprofit Studies](#) curriculum offered through the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin’s LBJ School of Public Affairs. In Fall 2013, students in our graduate *Mobilizing Communities and Engaging Volunteers* course were responsible for designing and implementing an online community brainstorming session called a “jam” on the theme of short-term volunteering. The goal of the project was for students to examine this facet of volunteerism in depth, to explore online conferencing as a learning modality, and to work collaboratively to develop a project that would engage the broader community in meaningful, goal-directed work.

The idea for the research project originated with the OneStar Foundation, one the RGK Center’s primary partners in local and state nonprofit capacity building work. Based on an IBM model called “[Service Jam](#),” OneStar asked the Center to design a project to explore this online option for providing continuing education for our geographically large state.

According to Bjelland and Wood (p. 33, 2008), the “jam” concept originated at IBM in 2001 as a series of online “bulletin boards” to provide a central communication and collaboration site for its many employees who worked from home or client offices. Within the company, this effort evolved into IBM’s first online “massively parallel conference” called “Innovation Jam” in 2006, which was designed to gather ideas for taking new products to market. Over the course of this three-day event,

more than 150,000 IBM employees, family members, and other stakeholders from 104 countries logged on to the jam site to post ideas and respond to comments in one or more online discussions. Innovation Jam eventually resulted in over \$10 million of investment in new business concepts. A subsequent 2010 IBM “Service Jam,” involving approximately 15,000 individuals from 119 countries, was designed as a forum for discussion on a range of social challenges to help develop responsive company service projects. “Systems of Service,” a white paper summarizing findings from that event, is available [here](#).

Today, jams are organized around the world by diverse groups, including foundations, international organizations, and businesses, on topics that range from [global security](#), to habitat and urban sustainability and other social issues, to design challenges in the [services industry](#) and video game development. IBM’s [Collaboration Jam web page](#) provides information about some of the larger events held worldwide. The company also now offers Internet-based social collaboration technology platforms for conducting large-scale jams.

Description of the Project

To prepare for this teaching project, we first contacted IBM for technology advice and were directed to a company that has developed an online jam platform suitable for smaller scale projects. Student teams then tackled a range of functional and conceptual tasks to design and implement the event. Major activities included technology training, event planning, marketing, moderating jam discussions during the event, conducting a follow-up evaluation, and reporting results to the project funder.

To identify jam themes for exploration of the topic of short-term volunteering, students first participated in a

“day of service” followed by class reflection activities. The students’ experiences highlighted the importance of thoughtful logistical planning and communication in designing short-term volunteering opportunities. The students also identified group dynamics, volunteer anxiety, and network-building as key issues for consideration.

Based on these experiences and a subsequent literature review, students defined four key discussion themes for the jam:

- *Best Practices in Short-Term Volunteer Engagement:* Because short-term events serve as an introduction to volunteering for many people, what are “best practices” for this type of service opportunity?
- *The Impact of Service:* Volunteers turn out by the hundreds to participate in days of service, but do they make a difference?
- *Growing Through Serving:* Does participation in a short-term service event lead to greater, long-term involvement, and should extended involvement even be a goal of short-term service?
- *Innovations in Short-Term Service:* Are service days losing their edge, and are there trendier ways to engage the community in critical service needs?

The event was publicized and jam participants were recruited for pre-registration using department and program e-mail mailing lists, information posted on

the sponsoring organizations’¹ websites, word of mouth, and an event Facebook page.² A number of experts in the field of volunteerism were also invited to participate in the jam, in part to attract attention to the event and also to ensure a high level of dialogue.

After almost two months of research and planning, the jam, called “Change in a Day: An Online Dialogue About Short-Term Volunteering” took place on November 13, 2013, from 9 am to 9 pm, CST. Participants logged into the online system to contribute to the conversation, and students moderated the online discussions in pre-determined shifts either remotely or in the classroom jam “headquarters” using their own laptops. Students, participants, and experts posted idea threads under the four themes with a defined question or personal example to invite responses and comments. Experts contributed to conversations throughout the day. In addition to posting comments, participants could attach links, graphics, and papers to share with the discussion group.

Over the course of the 12-hour jam, more than 100 of the 200 pre-registered participants contributed to the conversation, introducing 49 idea threads under the jam’s four themes and posting over 500 comments. The majority of the participants were staff of nonprofit organizations. Other participants included volunteers as well as staff at for-profit companies. Almost all participants were located in the state of Texas and in urban areas, but there was also some participation from individuals in New

York, Maryland, Virginia, Washington, Ohio, California, and Australia.

After the event, students wrote thank you notes, summarized evaluation data, and reviewed the log of participant comments to identify major themes from each discussion topic and prepare a summary report for class credit and for the event funder. (Access the report [here](#) on the RGK Center website.)

Outcomes and Feedback

To gather feedback on the event, jam participants were asked to complete a survey and provide insights and suggestions. Approximately half of participants completed the survey, 61% of whom were staff at non-profit agencies or organizations.

The survey asked about the relevance of the discussion to participants’ work or volunteer experiences. More than 80 percent of respondents agreed that the jam themes and idea threads were relevant. Participants were also asked to identify an idea discussed during the jam that they were likely to incorporate into their work or volunteer involvement. Nearly all respondents identified an idea or technique they were planning to use. Examples included: more extensive volunteer evaluations, better data gathering or tracking of volunteers, strategies for retention, increasing volunteer engagement, micro-volunteering, better job descriptions, and more effective communication about expectations.

While the survey indicated that the participants had a positive experience overall, respondents also provided excellent comments and suggestions for future events. For example, many participants indicated the need for more detailed technical instructions and more focused topic discussions that were kept on track through rigorous moderation.

Participating experts were also asked for feedback. Reported benefits included

¹ The event was sponsored by the [OneStar Foundation](#) and the [RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service](#) in partnership with the [Texas Association of Volunteer Centers](#) and [United Way for Greater Austin](#).

² See https://www.facebook.com/events/644672448900946/?ref_dashboard_filter=past

“surfacing ideas from many different points of view” and “generating buzz” about critical topics. One expert characterized the event as “the wave of the future in sharing best practices,” stating that such online events provide alternative professional development opportunities that address the challenge of prohibitive travel costs associated with conference attendance. Another expert speculated that the fact that the event was “time-limited” might have generated a higher level of interest and participation than traditional e-mail mailing lists or other forums for sharing ideas.

Experts also identified the need for moderators to keep discussions on topic. As one expert observed: “to be meaningful, it can’t be a free for all.” Suggestions for engaging participants in more focused conversations included:

- providing a background paper or research brief for participants to respond to;
- defining an agenda and scheduling expert “appearances”;
- integrating polling throughout the day related to event topics; and
- identifying a target purpose for participation at the outset—a broader, open event seeking a higher number of participants or a smaller focused event with targeted participation from identified stakeholders;

Students reported that as an academic assignment, the project was a challenge—while it was extremely exciting to take part in an innovative online event, the lack of models for this type of community engagement activity caused some students anxiety, especially within the timeframe of a one-semester graduate

course. Students and faculty agreed that one semester was too constrained a time period for designing and staging the event, and two semesters would provide a more feasible timeline for both organizing the jam and supporting meaningful follow-up activities. Despite time constraints, however, students acknowledged that organizing the jam afforded them a much deeper understanding of the real-world responsibilities of nonprofit leaders and volunteer resource managers. In addition, the time spent on student preparation through the pre-jam volunteer experiences was critical for elevating the level of discussion.

Overall, all participant groups observed that technology shortcomings hindered the jam’s effectiveness. Specifically, the online platform made conversations “clunky” and hard to follow. Many participants mentioned the need to be able to generate a quick summary of discussions in real time in order to stay on top of the conversation as it was happening. In future, additional research into jam software options was recommended.

Lessons Learned and Potential Applications

As a class project for prospective nonprofit professionals, the experience provided not only valuable management experience but also heightened student awareness of the value of broader community participation in the work of nonprofits. Both within the nonprofit sector and across sectors, events designed to initiate, capture, and influence community conversations can ultimately impact our ability to effectively address social challenges.

For community participants, this type of professional development approach provides a forum for discussion and exposure to new ideas. Jams can also promote networking within and outside

existing communities, establishing new relationships and extending connections to include a potentially much broader range of stakeholders. More cost-effective and time-saving than a face-to-face event, online conferences can bring more or new players to the table and possibly provide a starting place for a variety of ongoing collaborative efforts.

Researchers who have studied the IBM jam initiatives caution that the real value (and real work) of such events is “making something come of it.” As articulated by Bjelland and Wood in their review, “An Inside View of IBM’s ‘Innovation Jam’” (2008), what happens after the jam is as important as the event itself, involving a significant commitment to “harvest ideas” and follow through. “Where online conversations and live brainstorming sessions can be exhilarating, a Jam is fundamentally a piling up of ideas that will later be evaluated slowly. People enjoy it, but it rarely generates the rapid answers and thrill that some online experiences can

produce,” (p. 38). These types of projects need to “do justice” to the collection of ideas. As a teaching project, extending the timeline from one to two semesters would allow for substantive follow-up to disseminate and address key findings.

Our students came away from this class project with an appreciation for the many facets of collaboration and the ways in which citizen involvement, broadly defined, builds social capital and the fiber of the community. For other applications, and as a tool for community engagement or professional development, having a tangible product in mind, such as a research agenda or an action plan, as well as resources to support follow up are additional critical components for making a jam event meaningful in both the short and long term.

References

- Bjelland, O.M., & Wood, R.C. (2008). [An Inside View of IBM's 'Innovation Jam'](#). *MIT Sloan Management Review* 50(1), pp. 32–40.

Questions about resources that are linked to external organizations or papers should be directed to the author.

About the Author

Dr. Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Lecturer, LBJ School of Public Affairs, University of Texas at Austin, has just finished serving as Interim Director of the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service. An expert in volunteerism, Dr. Rehnborg has served as a consultant and trainer to numerous organizations, including the Points of Light Foundation, AARP, the Corporation for National and Community Service, the Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service (now the OneStar Foundation), the Texas Department of Mental Health/Mental Retardation, the Comptroller's Office of the State of Texas, and many local groups. She served as President of the Association for Volunteer Administration from 1979 to 1981. Dr. Rehnborg teaches courses in nonprofit board governance and community engagement in the Nonprofit Studies Portfolio Program at the LBJ School.

Corporate Volunteer Programs

Shaan Shahabuddin

Doctoral Student, Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications
Texas A&M University
Agriculture and Life Sciences Building, 600 John Kimbrough Blvd, College Station, TX, USA
77843-2116
Tel. 832.875.0701 * FAX 979.845.6296 * Email: sss10819@gmail.com

Zubaida Qamar

Doctoral Student, Department of Nutrition and Food Sciences
Texas A&M University
Cater Mattil Hall, 373 Olsen Blvd., College Station, TX, USA 77843-2116
Tel. 607.434.5060 * FAX 979.862.6842 * Email: qamaz25@tamu.edu

Noor Mobeen, Ph.D.

Advisor for Global Strategies and Studies, Office of Learning Abroad
University of Houston
Ezekiel Wimberly Cullen, 4800 Calhoun Rd., Houston, TX, USA 77204-501
Tel. 979.574.8774 * FAX 713.743.9117 * Email: nmobeen12@gmail.com

Abstract

Massive corporations in the United States are well-known for their focus of acquiring wealth and spending millions of dollars on factors that benefit the company. Many organizations are now beginning to incorporate volunteer programs where employees engage in community service activities by assisting individuals in disadvantaged circumstances. Corporate volunteer programs have shown to benefit the organization directly and indirectly, as well benefit non-profit organization partners, employees, and future clients/customers. Social Identity Theory is used to explain how employees commit themselves in volunteer acts to support an organization that they see fit to their identity.

Key Words: volunteers, corporate volunteer program, corporate volunteerism

The United States economy gained income due to the vast increase in small business shops throughout its fifty states. As of 2009, it is reported that an estimated 70% of these small businesses close their stores before they hit the ten-year mark (Peterson, 2004). From the few business that last more than ten years, some keep the tradition of keeping their shops local and family owned, while others generate enough income to become billion dollar industries that hire employees from around the world. With the

money that is earned from these companies, it makes sense to give back to the community in terms of donating to a charitable cause. Corporate volunteerism programs have been shown to benefit employers, benefit employees, and result in a positive consumer perception.

In the past 20 years, the fastest growing means of volunteering has been through an individual's workplace. Major corporations have created extensive programs to encourage and enable their

employees to volunteer (McCurley, 2009). Citizens believe that it is the moral obligation of million dollar corporations to assist victims of natural disasters, improve education skills in surrounding communities, and support charity projects (Crittenden, Crittenden, Pinney, & Pitt 2011). "Corporate social responsibility" is a term used to refer to the assumption that corporations are expected to venture beyond their goal of generating profit and serve social good in the community (Runte, Basil, & Runte, 2010). Companies practice corporate social responsibility in a variety of ways that may include charitable donations, sponsorships, as well as employee volunteering (Runte et al., 2010). When employees work on projects that are directed towards improving the community, consumer perceptions of corporate sponsors become positive. Companies can gain its consumer base from a "cause-related marketing" viewpoint, where portions of consumer purchases are donated for a specific cause that the consumer is in favor of advocating (e.g., breast cancer), or from a "social identity" viewpoint, where people who identify with an organization become vested in the success and failures of the organization (Cornwell & Coote, 2005). According to "social identity" theory, individuals who identify themselves with an organization commit themselves to support the organization under any circumstance, because the organization is a "part of the individual" (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991). The majority of employees who volunteer with their companies report a more positive perception of their employer and colleagues, increased job satisfaction, and increased loyalty (Jarvis, 2012).

Professionals with work skills and expertise have dedicated their services for free of charge in *pro bono* cases. Lawyers at one of the world's largest law firms, *Linklaters*, have offered free legal advice for

community organizations as part of their *pro bono* services (Wickens, 2014). Similarly, an accounting and consulting company by the name of PricewaterhouseCoppers started a program in 2001 named "Ulysses" that recruits their employees for volunteer reasons (Hirsch & Horowitz, 2006). Since its founding, "Ulysses" has had 58 partners from 29 countries participate in 18 local development initiatives that have taught its employees the importance of gaining a broad perspective on world issues as well as learning about the culture and mission statement of PricewaterhouseCoppers. Every "Ulysses" team member is provided with a sponsor who helps them develop as a leader and then the teams travel to a six-day program that provides an in-depth opportunity to explore leadership, cultural diversity, and sustainability.

Many well-known companies have benefitted from corporate volunteer programs. In 2012, Hilton employees participated in 100,000 hours of hand-on volunteer time in over 50 countries. PepsiCo improved rainwater harvesting in India and built community gardens in New Mexico to encourage healthy eating. More than 111,000 Citibank employees volunteered for community projects in 93 different countries during Global Community Day. Walmart employees generated \$18 million in local grants through the Volunteer Always Pays (VAP) program (Wickens, 2014).

Corporate volunteer programs also provides a set of positive features for all personnel in the company. In turn, the company benefits from these programs because they recruit and engage employees (Haberman, 2012). Current employees who are entering the workforce arrive with an expectation that volunteering will be a part of their professional careers, with 88% of Millennials being attracted to organizations that have a Corporate Social Responsibility program and 61% claiming that a volunteer

program would be a factor when choosing between two potential jobs (Haberman, 2012). Unlike organizations that are engaged in volunteer initiatives for philanthropic reasons, corporate volunteerism has been shown to improve brand recognition, add media exposure, and increase customer loyalty (Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007). Indirect community benefits include strengthening the stability of the local community, creating a healthier environment where companies operate, and developing a favorable corporate image (Peterson, 2004).

The benefit that employees receive by volunteering in these corporate programs is a greater awareness of their emotions, increased happiness and life satisfaction, improved development as professionals, and a more balanced work-life relationship (Longenecker, Beard, & Scazzero, 2013). By volunteering in different activities, employees are granted the opportunity to experience sentimental emotions that are not common in the workplace, such as compassion, humility, sympathy, and joy. Employee happiness increase when they are assisting others in less fortunate circumstances and are able to appreciate a greater satisfaction in life. Although employees who volunteer and work full-time carry more work and have time for leisure, the positive benefits of volunteering relieve stress (Longenecker, Beard, & Scazzero, 2013). Volunteering can result in the development of strategic skills through the participation of volunteer boards, emotional intelligence skills by working in community outreach, and gaining a sense of humility by working in homeless shelters (Longenecker, Beard, & Scazzero, 2013). Job satisfaction has also been shown to be positively related to volunteerism, and organization commitment is higher for volunteers from companies with a corporate volunteer program than for non-volunteers

from companies without a corporate volunteer program (Peterson, 2003).

In order for corporations to recruit volunteers for their program, companies must know the motivations of the employees. For employees who wish to volunteer for altruistic reasons, recruitment strategies would include publicizing information concerning the needs of the community (Peterson, 2004). For employees who wish to volunteer due to social relations, such as the desire to interact with others and make new friends, recruitment strategies include organizing employees in teams to work on group projects. For those individuals who are volunteering for reward (e.g., certificates, plaques, or trophies) or status (e.g., publicity), then a recruitment strategy would include recognizing employees for their volunteer contributions through awards and commendations.

If a corporation is in favor of a volunteering program but there is not one that currently exists, there are steps required for establishment. First, company leaders must find out if any formal program already exists, or if there has ever been a program in the company's history (Zimmerman, 2010). Even if the company has had a very old volunteering program, the pre-existing framework can be used to construct a new program. Next, the company must decide on the type of philanthropic programs that they will want their employees to commit. Would employees be willing to work in a homeless shelter, tutor children after school, serve at a food bank, or speak with patients at a hospital? The philanthropic program should be one that is related to the job that the employee is already involved in. Finally, the companies must ask themselves whether there are any risks involved for the name of the corporation. If the volunteering program results in a negative effect, this negativity must not reflect on the company because the company has an important reputation to

hold. Jarvis (2012) states that if a volunteer organization does not exist for a company, then a “Stage 1” approach is to find an open space to serve as the first community service event. The “Stage 1” event should be a low-commitment activity that ranges from one to three hours, there must not be any obligation for volunteers to return, the activity must be open to groups of friends and family, and there should be space for critical reflection after the activity has been completed.

Corporate volunteer programs have been shown to benefit the company, benefit the employees, and also benefit the community. College graduates already have experience in volunteer work from their involvement in student organizations on campus, therefore it is assumed that young employees entering the workforce will seek volunteer activities that benefit a community. Hence every large corporation should have the best intention to offer volunteer programs to its employees in order for new workers to fulfill their needs of identification with the company they work for and respect.

References

- Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to organizational commitment. *Internal Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18, 1701-1719.
- Cornwell, T. B., & Coote, L. V. (2005). Corporate sponsorship of a cause: The role of identification in purchase intent. *Journal of Business Research*, 58, 268-276.
- Crittenden, V. L., Crittenden, W. F., Pinney, C. C., & Pitt, L. F. (2011). Implementing global corporate citizenship: An integrated business framework. *Business Horizons*, 54, 447-455.
- Dutton, J. E., & Dukerich, J. M. (1991). Keeping an eye on the mirror: Image and identity in organizational adaptation. *Academic Management Journal*, 34, 517-554.
- McCurley, S. (2009). Volunteering through the workplace. *E-Volunteerism*, 9, 1-5.
- Haberman, M. (2012). Why volunteering is good for your business. *Huffington Post*. Retrieved from http://www.huffingtonpost.com/Michael-Haberman/corporate-volunteering_b_1856314.html.
- Hirsch, P., & Horowitz, P. (2006). The global employee volunteer: A corporate program for giving back. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 27, 50-55.
- Jarvis, C. (2012). Employee volunteering – What companies want and how nonprofits can give it to them. *e-Volunteerism*, 12, 1-4.
- Longenecker, C. O., Beard, S., & Scazzero, J. A. (2013). What about the workers? The workforce benefits of corporate volunteer programs. *Development and Learning in Organizations*, 27, 9-12.
- Peterson, D. K. (2003). Benefits of participation in corporate volunteer programs: Employees’ perceptions. *Personnel Review*, 33, 615-627.
- Peterson, D. K. (2004). Recruitment strategies for encouraging participation in corporate volunteer programs. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 49, 371-386.
- Runte, M., Basil, D.Z., & Runte, R. (2010). Corporate support for employee volunteerism within Canada: A cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 22, 247 – 263. Doi: 10.1080/10495141003601229.

Wickens, A. (2014). A world of
volunteering by global corporations.
e-Volunteerism, 15, 1-4.

Times. Retrieved from
[http://www.nytimes.com/2010/08/29
/business/29career.html?_r=2&](http://www.nytimes.com/2010/08/29/business/29career.html?_r=2&).

Zimmerman, E. (2010). How to match
companies and causes. *The New York*

About the Authors

Shaan Shahabuddin has a B.S. in Psychology from Texas A&M University and a M.A. in Psychology from Stephen F. Austin State University. He is currently pursuing his PhD in Leadership from Texas A&M University with a concentration in Social Psychology and Management. His research focuses on leadership, risk-taking, emotions, anticipation, persuasion, and memory. Shaan works part-time as an Adjunct Professor at Blinn College where he teaches an Introductory Psychology course. After graduation, Shaan hopes to obtain a career in academia where he can continue teaching and conducting research.

Zubaida Qamar has a B.S. in Dietetics with a pre-medicine concentration from State University of New York, College at Oneonta and a M.S. in Nutrition Sciences from Texas A&M University. She is currently pursuing her PhD in Human Nutrition from Texas A&M University. Her research focuses on nutrition education in diverse populations and psychosocial factors, particularly motivators and barriers, affecting people in making choices regarding nutrition. She is a recipient of multiple awards and honors including several teaching awards. After graduation, Zubaida hopes to obtain a career in academia to continue teaching and research.

Noor Mobeen obtained his Ph.D. in Leadership from Texas A&M University in 2012 and currently works as an Assistant Professor at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudia Arabia. Noor's research focuses on anti-terrorism, leadership factors among first-generation Middle Eastern Americans, and discrimination amongst South Asians.

Adapting Communication Methods within the 4-H Program Based on Participant Preference

Dan Teuteberg

4-H Youth Development Regional Specialist, Extension & Assistant Professor, College of
Agriculture, Human, and Natural Resource Sciences
Washington State University
Elma, Washington 98541-3018

Tel. 360.482.2934 * FAX 360-482-2662 * Email: dan.teuteberg@wsu.edu

Abstract

Through the use of a survey, volunteer communication preferences were gathered and the preferred method of communication was implemented. Having a strong understanding of the communication methods 4-H volunteers prefer is essential to their engagement in the 4-H Youth Development program. Volunteers who are informed about activities, events, and program needs are more likely to be engaged in those positive youth development opportunities about which they are most passionate.

Key Words: assessment, electronic communication, volunteer preferences

Need

The ability of an organization to engage volunteers to accomplish its goals and objectives depends upon the effectiveness of an organization to coordinate, manage, and lead volunteers (Boyce, 1971; Culp, Deppe, Castillo & Wells, 1998; McClury & Lynch, 2006; Penrod, 1991). In order to meet the mission and vision of the organization (Brandt & Teuteberg, 2014), volunteers need to be connected to current information.

The 4-H Youth Development program in two rural counties historically used a mailed monthly newsletter as the primary communication method with 4-H volunteers. This monthly newsletter covered a wide variety of topics from event and meeting announcements to youth and 4-H volunteer recognition.

This monthly newsletter took a considerable amount of the 4-H staff's time, approximately 10 hours a month per county, to compile data, format articles, proof, print, label envelopes, and mail. Often, important

information was not included in the newsletter due to timing challenges or size limitation of the newsletter. General operating budget reductions over the past few years further restricted the process of a monthly newsletter. The costs of paper, envelopes, printing and postage have increased over time.

Advances in technology have changed the way young people and adults interact with school, social programs, family, and friends. Today's youth cannot remember a time without a computer in their home (Draves, 2007). Families are communicating in new ways.

Having a well-founded understanding of the communication methods 4-H volunteers prefer is essential to their engagement in the 4-H Youth Development program. Wanting to use current technology to engage a wide age range of 4-H volunteers, 4-H Youth Development staff and dedicated volunteers brainstormed better ways to communicate this important information.

Action

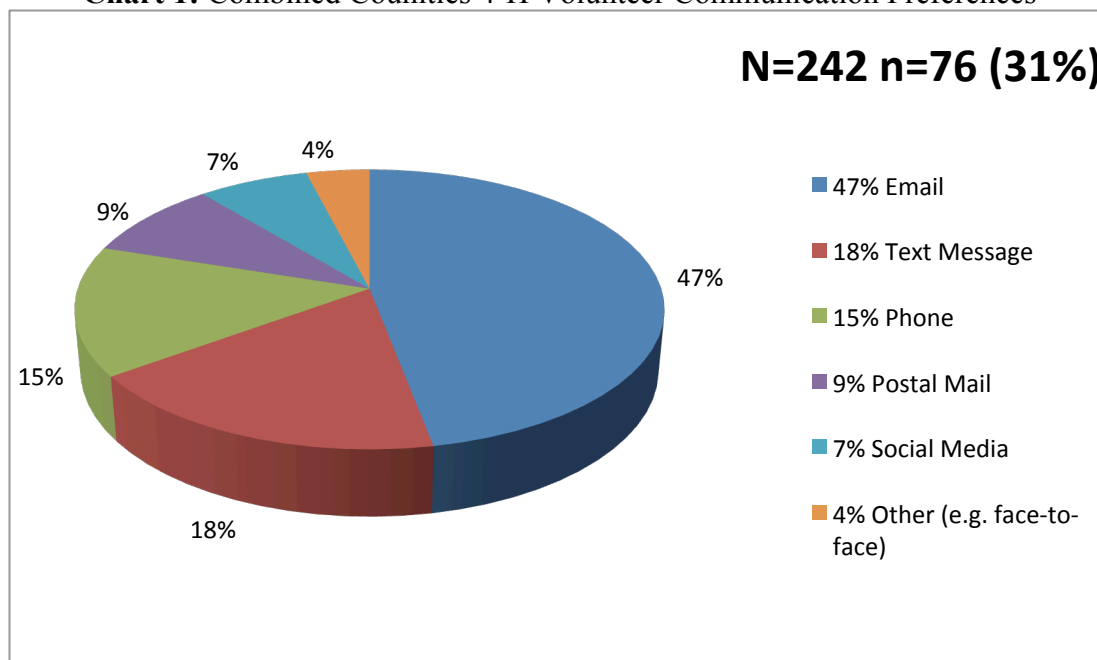
A survey was conducted in Mason County (N=122/n=35 29% response rate percent) and Grays Harbor County (N=120/n=41 34% response rate percent) to gain a better understanding of the preferred communication methods of 4-H volunteers. The survey was administered by calling each enrolled 4-H volunteer from the previous 4-H year, using the same predetermined questions. Multiple attempts were made to connect with the individual over the span of four weeks using various

methods such as phone, email, and face-to-face interaction.

Survey Results

Chart 1 shows the communication preferences of all survey volunteers from both Mason County and Grays Harbor County. Email (47%) was found to be the most preferred communication method for volunteers in both counties. Notably, text message and phone both ranked similarly at 18% and 15% respectively.

Chart 1: Combined Counties 4-H Volunteer Communication Preferences



The individual county communication preferences are shown in chart 2 and chart 3. Preferences between Mason County and Grays Harbor County were very similar. The majority of surveyed individuals indicated that they prefer to use email and text messaging as their method of communication. Surprisingly, both counties indicated that 18% of responding individuals prefer text messaging. This communication method will be integrated into the communication system as well.

Chart 2: Grays Harbor County 4-H Volunteer Communication Preferences

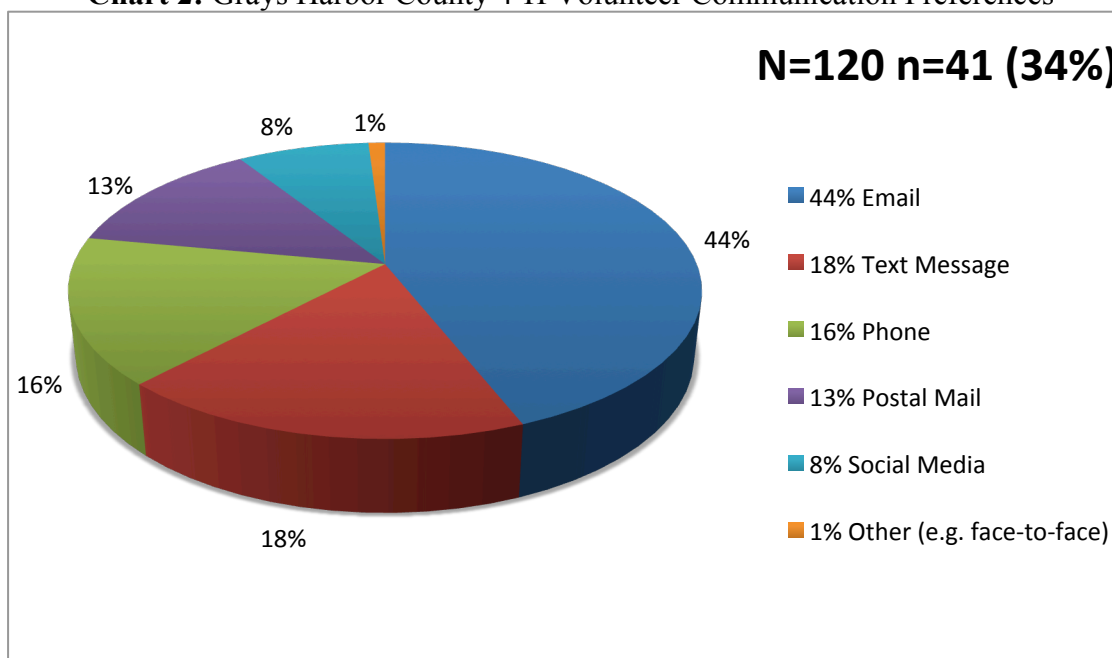
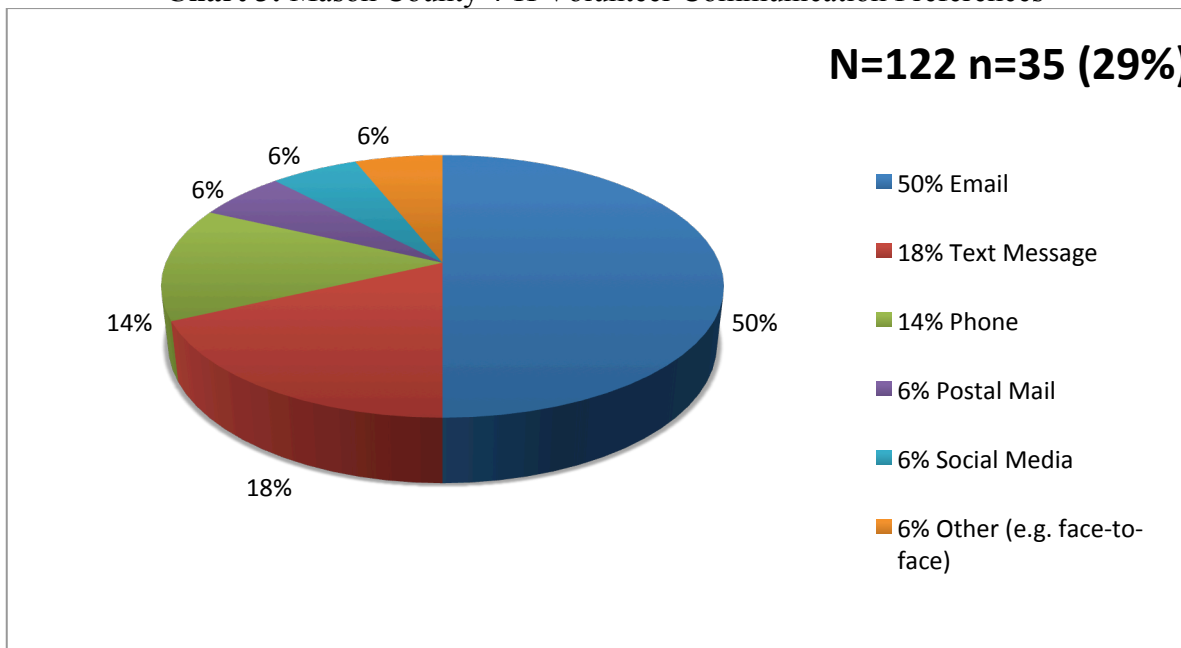


Chart 3: Mason County 4-H Volunteer Communication Preferences



Grounded in an understanding of the survey data and the use of a new 4-H enrollment/management software program called *4-H Access*, the 4-H Youth Development program in both counties transitioned from a monthly mailed paper

newsletter to a weekly electronic newsletter. This transition addressed the need for a more efficient communication system, as well as reduced operating budgets. Staff time spent on the newsletter went from approximately 10 hours a month to 1 hour a

week (4 or 5 hours per month). This reduction is approximately half of the initial time allocated to the monthly paper newsletter

The increased frequency of this newsletter dramatically improves the volunteer connectivity with the 4-H Youth Development program.

Initial Response to Changing Methods of Communication with 4-H Volunteers

The 4-H volunteer response to the weekly electronic newsletter has been positive. One volunteer stated, "I appreciate the weekly newsletter. It is a nice reminder of all the activities happening in 4-H." Another volunteer expressed, "Thanks for putting together this e-newsletter. It is full of great ideas and tips to help with my 4-H club. Thanks!"

The 4-H staff developed a simple format to share the information each week. They are more efficient and no longer spend hours designing the layout for a more complex newsletter each month. Again, staff spend half of the amount of time on this new communication format.

The frequency of the weekly electronic newsletter also allows the 4-H staff to be more responsive when sharing time-sensitive information. Relevant information submitted by local, state, and federal entities are also included within five business days versus twenty business days.

Since text messaging ranked second on the list, both county 4-H staff are now sending text message meeting reminders through the new enrollment system *4-H Access*. For volunteers who still prefer a paper newsletter, staff print off copies of the electronic newsletter and have them available at the office and at 4-H meetings throughout the county.

Next Steps

Volunteers who are informed about activities, events, and program needs are more likely to be engaged in those positive youth development opportunities about which they are most passionate. Over the next few months, volunteer engagement will be assessed to see if there is a correlation between more effective communication and 4-H volunteer engagement.

The overall communication strategies used within the 4-H Youth Development program in Mason County and Grays Harbor County likewise will continually be assessed. This assessment will take place at the beginning of the 4-H year with the annual volunteer survey. Information gathered from the assessment will be used to improve communication strategies with 4-H volunteers.

The use of text messaging as a communication tool within the 4-H Youth Development program has yet to be evaluated. While the use of this communication tool is at the beginning stages of implementation, an evaluation of its effectiveness will be done once this tool has been used for six months within the program.

References

- Boyce, M. (1971). *A systematic approach to leadership development*. Washington, D.C.: USDA, Extension Service.
- Brandt B., & Teuteberg, D. (2014). Mission and vision: a yearly mission checkup is a dose of prevention. *WSU Extension Publication C1129E*. Washington State University. Available at: <https://pubs.wsu.edu/ItemDetail.aspx?ProductID=15667&SeriesCode=&CategoryID=&Keyword=c1129E>
- Draves, W. A. (2007). *Advanced Teaching online, third edition*. LERN Books.

Culp, K., III, Deppe, C. A., Castillo, J. X., & Wells, B. J. (1998). The GEMS model of volunteer leadership administration. *Journal of Volunteer Administration*, 16(4).

McCurley, S., & Lynch, R. (2006). *Volunteer management: Mobilizing all the resources of the community* (2nd ed.). Kemptville, ON:

Johnstone Training and Consultation, Inc.

Penrod, K. M. (1991). Leadership involving volunteers. *Journal of Extension [On-line]*. 29(4) Article 4FEA2.

Available at:

<http://www.joe.org/joe/1991winter/a2.php>

About the Author

Dan Teuteberg is an assistant professor of Youth Development in the College of Agriculture, Human, and Natural Resource Sciences at Washington State University. His research includes experiential education, volunteer development, and early childhood/family support. He is former teacher and adventure education camp director.

Motivation in Volunteers: What Drives People to Provide Free Labor?

Shaan Shahabuddin

Ph.D. Student, Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications
Texas A&M University
Agriculture and Life Sciences Building, 600 John Kimbrough Blvd, College Station, TX, USA
77843-2116
Tel. 832.875.0701 * FAX 979.845.6296 * Email: sss10819@gmail.com

Zubaida Qamar

Ph.D. Student, Department of Nutrition and Food Sciences
Texas A&M University
Cater Mattil Hall, 373 Olsen Blvd., College Station, TX, USA 77843-2116
Tel. 607.434.5060 * FAX 979.862.6842 * Email: qamaz25@tamu.edu

Abstract

In his book “Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us”, Daniel Pink describes that motivation at work is achieved through three processes: Autonomy (power to control one’s work), Mastery (productivity and improvement in one’s task), and Purpose (sense of belonging to a system greater than one’s self). Pink states that if these three processes are achieved, then individuals will dedicate more time to their jobs, will work more diligently on their assigned duties, and companies will benefit from the efficiency of its employees. The current paper applies the concepts from Pink’s book to volunteer programs by outlining how volunteer resource managers can improve morale and character of its volunteers.

Key Words: volunteers, leadership, motivation, drive

Donald Trump, the billion-dollar businessman, entrepreneur, and investor has quoted that money was never his motivation when he began working; the real passion and excitement he received was from playing the game (Trump & Schwartz, 2004). Some people might disagree with Donald Trump and view the game of life having the sole purpose of achieving money despite its hurdles of achieving a college degree and obtaining a successful career. Human beings are unique in their prospects of the future and they value different motivations for success.

Ryan and Deci (2000b) define motivation as being moved to do something; someone who is “energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated” (p.

54). Motivation can be categorized as either intrinsic, the act of doing an act because it is inherently enjoyable, or extrinsic, the act of doing an act because it leads to a desirable outcome. Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, it was found that Americans are more motivated by extrinsic sources, such as money, promotions, or pay increases (Pink, 2009). Even in today’s society, college students believe that if they are paid more for a job then their job performance will increase in both quantity and quality. Pink (2009) states that “carrot and stick” methods of motivation (i.e., extrinsic motivation) are outdated and that society should rather focus on having employees to find motivation in their jobs. Pink (2009) references a laboratory

experiment where college students were forced to complete a boring and mundane task of clicking on icons on a computer screen and dragging the icons to a box. The students were divided into three groups: no reward, reward per hour, and reward per icon. The results of the study found that the group that was paid by the hour performed the worst and the group that was not given a reward performed the best. The reason for this outcome shows that people not awarded for completing a task begin believing that they are doing the task because it is fun and enjoyable. In comparison, the other groups reason that they are completing the task due to the reward.

In his book *Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us*, Pink (2009) proposes a new theory of motivation that is based on self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Pink also suggests that this theory should be adopted by organizations in modern jobs. The new theory of motivation has three main components that need to be implemented in order to have employee's complete tasks at an optimum performance: autonomy, mastery, and purpose. "Autonomy" provides employees with freedom to choose what time they begin their task, how they complete their assignments, whom they can collaborate with, and what tasks they are able to perform. "Mastery" occurs when employees are able to improve on a meaningful task that is assigned in an environment where the tasks are neither overly difficult nor simple. Employee "purpose" is filled when they understand how their individual role assists with the organizations goal, and when the employee feels that their task duties are for a greater cause to benefit others.

In associating Pink's (2009) new theory of motivation to volunteers, it is imperative that a few guidelines must be met, depending upon the situation. First, it is

ideal if volunteers have a degree of autonomy in their tasks. Even though individuals are volunteering, it is suggested that volunteers should be able to choose the appropriate times to come in and the amount of hours that they will volunteer each week, considering the organization's goals in mind. If volunteers have more flexibility with their schedules, then they will be able to handle their duties for their careers and personal relationships as well as their duties for the volunteer organization. It is recommended that volunteers should also be able to choose the specific tasks that they would like to perform, keeping the needs of the company in consideration, by working closest with the volunteer resource manager. It is understandable that during some situations the organization might have a surplus of volunteers who would prefer to work on a similar task because it provides the most nourishment (e.g., working with children), but have to end up working on a task that they dislike (e.g., cleaning up after events). However if time and resources permit, it is suggested that volunteers should be assigned to a duty that they enjoy. For "mastery", volunteers should be able to set and meet challenges. When volunteering at the food bank, it is good for a group of graduate students to try and outperform a group of undergraduate students, and vice versa. This friendly competition will also create an exciting atmosphere allowing the groups to behave more like a team by helping each other out. Volunteers can achieve "purpose" if they are informed about how their participation and help is making a difference to the organization. If a person is told that volunteering for only three hours a week at a food bank can help provide enough food to feed 300 families, the volunteer will understand that their assistance is making a difference to others.

Aside from Pink's (2009) theory of motivation, extrinsic sources of motivation

may also be helpful if they are received at the correct time and show appreciation. Volunteer research managers should make volunteers feel that their effort and dedication are being recognized if the volunteers are provided with certificates of appreciation, plaques, trophies, "thank you" cards, and gift cards. These extrinsic sources of motivation are unique because volunteers are assumed to not strive for these rewards but rather as a means for recognition. Volunteer resource managers can also depict their appreciation for the volunteers by posting pictures on the organization website and social network group (i.e., Facebook). When people see that there is a picture of them, or a group picture of the volunteers, or a picture of the volunteers while they are performing their duties, then they will feel that they are having a purposeful experience as it ties in with recognition.

It is a difficult task to inspire people because everyone has their own set of motivations. There are different motivators and barriers that people consider when deciding on a task. It is even more difficult to motivate volunteers because they are not

provided with extrinsic motivation and are performing tasks due to passion for the field. Hence, it is suggested that volunteer resource managers use Pink's (2009) theory of motivation as well as some extrinsic rewards to show appreciation to the volunteer.

References

- Pink, D. (2009). *Drive: The surprising truth about what motivates us*. New York, NY: Riverheads Books.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000a). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000b). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Trump, D., & Schwartz, T. (2004). *The art of the deal*. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.

About the Authors

Shaan Shahabuddin has a Bachelors and Masters degree in Psychology and is currently pursuing his PhD in Leadership from Texas A&M University. His research focuses on leadership, risk-taking, emotions, anticipation, persuasion, and memory. Shaan works as an Adjunct Psychology Professor at Blinn College in Bryan, Texas and has presented numerous lectures on decision-making, diversity, and psychology. After graduation, Shaan hopes to obtain a career in academia where he can continue teaching and conducting research.

Zubaida Qamar has a B.S. in Dietetics with a pre-medicine concentration from State University of New York, College at Oneonta and a M.S. in Nutrition Sciences from Texas A&M University. She is currently pursuing her PhD in Human Nutrition from Texas A&M University. Her research focuses on nutrition education in diverse populations and psychosocial factors, particularly motivators and barriers, affecting people in making choices regarding nutrition. She is also a recipient of multiple awards and honors including teaching awards. After graduation, Zubaida hopes to obtain a career in academia to continue teaching and research.