FEATURE ARTICLES

The author used motivational analysis to examine the role of satisfaction with volunteerism in a sample of older volunteers. The motivational approach proposes that volunteering serves specific needs or motives. The more the experience fulfills them, the more satisfied the individual and the greater the commitment to continue volunteering. The aim of the study was to clarify the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and motive strength, motive fulfillment, time spent volunteering, and length of service, respectively. The results supported the motivational perspective. Motive strength and fulfillment correlated with satisfaction which, in turn, predicted time spent volunteering. Less satisfied volunteers devoted fewer hours but nonetheless often remained long-term volunteers. The findings suggest that to best utilize and maintain volunteers, motivations for helping should be determined early in the process and periodically re-assessed.
Key words: volunteers, satisfaction, motivation

This study investigates the motivations and voluntary activities of exemplary volunteers. The researchers surveyed winners of the Daily Point of Light Awards and the President's Community Volunteer Awards and conducted in-depth telephone interviews with a sample of the mail survey respondents. Researchers then compared the survey data with information about typical volunteers. The findings indicated that although award-winners are more likely to be religious than the general population, most religious award-winning volunteers contribute their efforts to religious and nonreligious organizations. Also, many award-winning volunteers not religiously active have a spiritual motivation. Some began volunteer work after experiencing "life-changing" events. Award winners generally respond favorably to public recognition in the local media, or at their school, worksite, or place of volunteering.
Key Words: volunteer, motivation, religion, faith

Becky J. Starnes, Ph.D.
Studies indicate that psychological contracts can develop between volunteers and the nonprofit organizations they serve and that this relationship plays a role in volunteer performance and retention. This study explored the relationships between volunteers' levels of trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and their perceptions of organizational breaches of the contract. The data indicated decreases in job satisfaction may influence volunteers' perceptions of contract breach but trust and organizational commitment did not.
Keywords: volunteers, satisfaction, commitment, trust, psychological contracts

Carlton F. Yoshioka, Ph.D., William A. Brown, Ph.D., & Robert F. Ashcraft, Ph.D.
Understanding volunteer motivation has been widely recognized by both researchers and administrators as a valuable component of management of volunteers. This paper utilized the multifactor functional approach derived from theories on attitudes to examine the motivations of active seniors that volunteer and those that did not volunteer. In general, the results supported the use of the multifactor functional approach (using the Volunteer Function Inventory scale) with seniors involved in human service organizations. Findings suggested several considerations for volunteer administrators to promote volunteerism among current volunteers and those with a desire to volunteer.
Key Words: volunteers, motivations, seniors, non-volunteers

BOOK REVIEW

Peggy M. Jackson. (2006). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. (193 pp.; Hardback, ISBN-13: 978-0-471-71749-2). Reviewed by Mary Kay Hood.

FROM THE JOVA ANNALS

David J. Burns, Ph.D., Mark Toncar, Ph.D., Jane Reid, Ph.D., Cynthia Anderson, Ph.D., Cassandra Wells, Ph.D., Jeffrey Fawcett, Ph.D., & Kathleen Gruben, Ph.D.
College-aged young adults spend significant amounts of time in voluntary activities and may represent an important pool of future volunteers. Consequently, understanding the motivations for volunteering, of students attending different types of colleges and universities, appears to be worthwhile. Do individuals attending different types of universities possess differing motivations to volunteer? The results suggest that students attending different types of universities differ in their motivations to volunteer. The primary differences involved students attending a public commuter university and an African-American liberal arts university. The results are discusses.
Key Words: volunteer, motivations, college, university, students

Madhura Nagchoudhuri, Amanda Moore McBride, Ph.D., Prema Thirupathy, Nancy Morrow-Howell, & Fengyan Tang

With an increase in the number of adults who are living longer healthier lives, volunteer administrators having a growing pool of potential volunteers. What strategies effectively recruit and retain older volunteers? In focus groups with 43 older volunteers, their perceptions of institutional access, information, incentives, and facilitation are assessed. Findings suggest that older adults may access volunteer opportunities through direct agency contact or social networks, more so than formal ads. They report that interest in the organization's cause and meaningful task assignments serve as incentives for volunteering. Flexibility in task assignment, verbal appreciation, and transportation facilitate role performance. These findings suggest that informal strategies and respect for older adults' expertise and current capabilities are important in recruitment and retention of older volunteers.
Key Words: older, seniors, volunteers, recruitment, retention, incentives

H. Wayne Nelson, Jr., Ph.D., F. Ellen Netting, Ph.D., Kevin W. Borders, Ph.D., & Ruth Huiber, Ph.D.

A telephone survey of 136 active and 170 former volunteer ombudsmen asked the two open ended questions reported here. Both groups were asked to identify "the most discouraging aspect of the ombudsman's job," and former ombudsmen were also asked why they had left the program. Responses fell into four general groups (each with numerous sub-categories): (a) Program Factors (supervision, training, policies), (b) Personal Factors (health, family, time), (c) Power Factors (volunteer status, legal authority), and (d) System Adversity (troubled facilities, resident impairment, poor enforcement and so forth). Although the Personal Factors group emerged as the number one ranked reason for quitting, program factors (led by the sub-category of poor supervisory support) emerged as the most discouraging aspect of service, and was the second ranked reason for quitting. Implications are discussed with recommendations for reducing volunteer dissatisfaction and turnover.
Keywords: ombudsmen, attrition, volunteers, dissatisfaction, turnover

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D., Rosemary R. Gliem, Ph.D., & Joseph A. Gliem, Ph.D.

The authors analyzed existing data investigating volunteerism and service among Ohio youth. Principle components analysis resulted in four factors explaining respondents' reasons for providing volunteerism/service for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Adult and Peer Pressure; 2) Adult Encouragement; 3) Altruistic Reasons; and 4) Spiritual Reasons; Grades 9-12: 1) Personal and Altruistic Importance; 2) Education and Career Advancement; 3) Parent, Teacher, and/or Mentor Encouragement; and 4) Social and Peer Influences. Data analysis resulted in three factors explaining barriers to volunteerism/service, again for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Personal Challenges; and 3) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; Grades 9-12: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; and 3) Time Constraints. Volunteer administrators from Ohio and states with

similar school demographics should consider these reasons and barriers when designing or restructuring youth volunteerism and service programs.

Key Words: youth, volunteerism, community service, reasons, barriers, Ohio

In This Issue:
"When Ability and Will Combine: Volunteer Motivations and Incentives"

One of the first things we must be aware of is the necessity to
distinguish between a person's <u>ability</u> to do something and his <u>will</u>
to do it. A volunteer might be perfectly able to perform a task, . . .
but they simply do not want to do it.

(Marlene Wilson, 1976, p. 42)

These few simple, straightforward words from *The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs* (Boulder, CO: Volunteer Management Associates) summarize so well the ongoing challenge faced daily by managers of volunteers: how to effectively match a volunteer's interests, needs and wants with those of the holistic volunteer program and sponsoring organization. Indeed, the ability to create a climate wherein individuals consciously seek to contribute time, energies and talents to an individual, cause or group (for which they will not be paid) is a requisite skill, talent and capacity for any successful manager of volunteers. Notice that I did not say "the ability to motivate individuals". Although numerous volunteer management models focus extensively on "motivating volunteers" as a core component, I am definitely from the school of thought that purports that one may not motivate anyone to do something they do not wish to do. Rather, one may excite an interest, establish a need, or create conditions wherein individuals motivate themselves. I argue that it is only through such self-motivation by volunteers that sustained personal and organizational leadership, programmatic success, and volunteer retention are achieved.

This issue of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* focuses upon volunteer motivations and incentives. Four excellent *Feature Articles* highlight the focus topic from four diverse perspectives. Marcia A. Finkelstein explored possible relationships between the satisfaction expressed by older volunteers, and the volunteers' motive strength, motive fulfillment, time spent volunteering, and length of volunteer service. She concludes that, "The more the [volunteer] experience fulfills them, the more satisfied the individual and the greater the commitment to continue volunteering." Laura Littlepage, James Perry, Jeffrey Brudney and Phillip Goff investigated the motivations and voluntary activities of exemplary volunteers through a lens of religiosity. Their work emphasizes the affects of faith, spirituality, and life-altering events upon individuals' decisions whether, when, and how to volunteer. Becky Starnes continues her investigations into the concept of "psychological contracts" between individual volunteers and nonprofit organizations, especially as focused upon trust and job satisfaction. And finally, Carlton Yoshioka, William Brown, and Robert Ashcraft examined motivations of active senior adults who volunteer and those who did not volunteer. They conclude that ". . . managers of volunteers who understand the social psychological motives sought by seniors will be better equipped to provide experiences that satisfy the altruistic and egotistical functions of current volunteers and those that have the potential to volunteer. This will result in recruitment and retention strategies that are effective in meeting the needs of the organization and the seniors who are willing to volunteer to support and benefit future generations."

Mary Kay Hood contributes a *Book Review* of Peggy M. Jackson's 2006 text, *Nonprofit Risk Management & Contingency Planning - Done In A Day Strategies* (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.).

From The JOVA Annals features four articles focused upon volunteer motivations and incentives, yet published previously in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*: "Volunteering: A Comparison of the Motivations of Collegiate Students Attending Different Types of Institutions," by David J. Burns, Ph.D., Mark Toncar, Ph.D., Jane Reid, Ph.D., Cynthia Anderson, Ph.D., Cassandra Wells, Ph.D., Jeffrey Fawcett, Ph.D., and Kathleen Gruben, Ph.D. (originally published in 2005); *"*Maximizing Elder Volunteerism and Service: Access, Incentives, and Facilitation," by Madhura Nagchoudhuri, Amanda Moore McBride, Ph.D., Prema Thirupathy, Nancy Morrow-Howell, and Fengyan Tang (first published in 2005); "Volunteer Attrition: Lessons Learned From Oregon's Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program," by H. Wayne Nelson, Jr., Ph.D., F. Ellen Netting, Ph.D., Kevin W. Borders, Ph.D., and Ruth Huiber, Ph.D. (first published in 2004); and, "Reasons for and Barriers to Participating in Volunteerism and Service: A Comparison of Ohio Youth in Grades 5-8 and 9-12," by R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D., Rosemary R. Gliem, Ph.D., and Joseph A. Gliem, Ph.D. (published originally in 2004).

We hope this issue of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* will provide the reader with insights, ideas, and opportunities so as to better foster organizational and programmatic climates that help individuals become motivated to serve through volunteerism.

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D.
Editor-In-Chief

Dedication of Volume XXIV
to

Mary V. Merrill, LSW

If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants.

(Sir Isaac Newton, 1675)

Volume XXIV of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* is lovingly dedicated to the memory of Mary V. Merrill, LSW, a dear friend to any volunteer, a colleague to all managers of volunteers, a mentor to me personally, and the former editor of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*. Mary left this world suddenly and unexpectedly on February 19, 2006, yet her legacy will remain with us forever.

Mary Merrill dedicated her career and her life as an international speaker and author to providing consultation and training in volunteer administration, board development, and strategic planning to strengthen the leadership and structures that support volunteerism. She was adjunct faculty at The Ohio State University and Editor of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* from 2002 until her death. Mary taught and consulted internationally in 15 countries, and nationally in 37 of the 50 United States. Working with the Points of Light Foundation she helped establish the first volunteer center in Russia and worked for two years with developing Non Government Organizations (NGOs) in Armenia.

More recently, Mary worked with the Volunteer Development Committee of the United Nations, and presented at the European Volunteerism Conference in Croatia. Mary was an invited speaker for the Asian Pacific Conferences for Volunteer Administration in Korea (2002) and Hong Kong

(2005), the IAVE Latin American Conference on Volunteerism (Venezuela, 1998), and the 1st International Conference of Museum Volunteers (Mexico City, 2002). She was an annual star trainer for the Points of Light National Community Service Conference and recipient of a 2004 Distinguished Service Award from AVA.

Mary's innovative ideas and models have been published in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*; *Voluntary Action: The International Journal of the Institute for Volunteering Research;* and the *Not-For-Profit CEO Monthly Letter.* She authored a book for the Paradigm Project, Points of Light Foundation, wrote the Volunteer Literacy Manual for Reading Recovery International, and co-authored and produced teleconferences/training videos on risk management, ethical decision making, and, non-profit board development.

Mary was an invited speaker at the 1998, 2001, 2002 and 2004 Biennial World Volunteerism Conferences in Canada, The Netherlands, Korea, and Barcelona (resp.), and presented joint and individual volunteer-related research at the 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001 annual conferences of the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA). She was past-president of Volunteer Ohio, and a past recipient of the Award for Excellence presented by the Volunteer Administrators' Network of Central Ohio. She helped create and co-taught the Institute for Community Leadership through the Leadership Center of The Ohio State University, and developed pioneering work in the area of impact evaluation for volunteer programs.

So, Mary, if we have been able to see further into the future of volunteerism and volunteer administration, it is because we as your peers benefited from your individual dedication to humanity, your professional passion for volunteerism, and your personal unconditional love for your family, friends and colleagues. You were a giant in our profession, and we miss you dearly.

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D.
Editor-In-Chief

Correlates of Satisfaction in Older Volunteers:
A Motivational Perspective

Marcia A. Finkelstein, Ph.D.
University of South Florida
Department of Psychology, PCD 4118G
4202 E. Fowler Avenue
Tampa, FL 33620-7200
phone: (813) 974-0377
fax: (813) 974-4617
marcie@cas.usf.edu

Abstract

The author used motivational analysis to examine the role of satisfaction with volunteerism in a sample of older volunteers. The motivational approach proposes that volunteering serves specific needs or motives. The more the experience fulfills them, the more satisfied the individual and the greater the commitment to continue volunteering. The aim of the study was to clarify the relationship between volunteer satisfaction and motive strength, motive fulfillment, time spent volunteering, and length of service, respectively. The results supported the motivational perspective. Motive strength and fulfillment correlated with satisfaction which, in turn, predicted time spent volunteering. Less satisfied volunteers devoted fewer hours but nonetheless often remained long-term volunteers. The findings suggest that to best utilize and maintain volunteers, motivations for helping should be determined early in the process and periodically re-assessed.

Key Words:
volunteers, satisfaction, motivation

Volunteers represent an integral part of this country's workforce. In the United States, 44% of adults volunteer, providing the equivalent of more than 9 million full-time employees at a value of $239 billion (Independent Sector, 2001). Many organizations, particularly in the nonprofit sector, could not operate effectively without this assistance.

The present study offered a theoretical approach known as motivational analysis to understanding factors that initiate and maintain volunteerism (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Brannick, in press). For this purpose, we defined volunteerism as unpaid, long-term, planned, and discretionary prosocial behavior that benefits strangers and occurs within an organizational context (Penner, 2002). The deliberate and sustained nature of volunteering distinguishes it from the spontaneous acts of helping (e.g., bystander intervention) that were the object of early research into prosocial actions.

Motivational analysis derives from the principle that human behavior is motivated by certain goals and needs. Understanding why individuals volunteer requires identifying the functions that volunteering serves (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 2002). Different people may provide the same services for very different

reasons, and one's motivations may change over time.

Clary et al. (1998) identified six potential motives for volunteering: Values (expressing altruistic and humanitarian values); Understanding (acquiring learning experiences and/or exercising unused skills); Social (strengthening social relationships); Career (gaining career-related benefits); Protective (reducing negative feelings about oneself or addressing personal problems); and Enhancement (growing psychologically).

According to the motivational approach, whether volunteering persists depends on the extent to which the experience fulfills relevant motives (e.g., Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994; Clary et al., 1998; Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003; Van Dyne & Farmer, 2004). The theory's logical assumption is that those whose motives are met will be more satisfied, and therefore more active, volunteers. Indeed, many organizations regularly assess volunteer satisfaction with the idea that more satisfied individuals will be more involved.

However, prior examinations of the role of satisfaction in volunteerism have produced mixed results. Clary et al. (1998) found that when the volunteer experience matched their motives for helping, individuals reported greater satisfaction and stronger intentions to continue than when their motives remained unmet or when unimportant motivations were fulfilled. Monitoring volunteers throughout their first year of service, Davis et al. (2003), too, found that motive fulfillment predicted satisfaction. Surprisingly, satisfaction was only modestly related to time spent volunteering and was uncorrelated with longevity of service. Working with hospice volunteers, Finkelstein and McIntyre (2005) showed that satisfaction correlated positively with time spent volunteering but was unrelated to length of service.

Our aim was to clarify, by examining in a single study, the relationship between satisfaction and antecedents of volunteering (motives), aspects of the volunteer experience (motive fulfillment), and outcomes (time spent volunteering, length of service), respectively. The study is thus limited to examining properties of the individual rather than the organization. Of course, a complete understanding of volunteering also requires understanding the organization's attributes and practices (Penner, 2002) and the interaction between the individual and the organization.

We also focused on participants age 45 and older. Middle-aged and older volunteers show greater organizational commitment than younger volunteers, donating more hours and serving for longer periods (e.g., Nelson, Hooker, DeHart, Edwards, & Lanning, 2004). A recent AARP study (2003) found that volunteers 45 and older average fifteen hours of service per month. Those who are not employed devote somewhat more time than those with jobs (nineteen hours vs. twelve hours per month, respectively). However, neither group is more likely to volunteer or to have regular volunteer commitments.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006), 32.7% of adults between 45 to 54 volunteer, making them second only to those ages 35 to 44. Volunteering does decline (to 24.8%) in those 65 and older even though those of retirement age often have more available time. Given the increasing needs of many organizations for unpaid help, learning what motivates and sustains somewhat older volunteers may provide insights into strategies for recruiting and retaining them.

The participants in this study volunteered at a nonprofit hospice that provides palliative care to individuals in the last 12 months of a life-limiting illness. The hospice relies heavily on its volunteers who

contributed an aggregated 66,000 hours to the organization in 2004.

Hypotheses Tested in the Study

Hypothesis 1a. Volunteer satisfaction will be positively associated with motive strength for all but Career motives. Career-related rewards were previously found to be unimportant in motivating a sample of predominantly older hospice volunteers (e.g., Finkelstein et al., 2005).

Hypothesis 1b. Satisfaction and Career motives will be uncorrelated.

Hypothesis 2a. Satisfaction with volunteer work will correlate positively with the fulfillment of all motives except Career.

Hypothesis 2b. Satisfaction will be unrelated to fulfillment of Career motives.

Hypothesis 3. Satisfaction will be positively related to time spent volunteering. Because of conflicting results (cf. Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Davis et al., 2003), no predictions about the association between satisfaction and length of service are offered.

Methodology

Participants

The data collection instrument was distributed to the hospice's 466 active volunteers, those with assignments at the time of the study. The survey was mailed to volunteers who worked with patients and their families and hand-delivered to thrift store, grief center, and office volunteers. Completed surveys were returned by 194 recipients (42%), and analyses were carried out for respondents age 45 and older ($n = 159$). Because the hospice does not ordinarily ask volunteers their age, we do not know what percentage of older volunteers this number represents. Nonetheless, within this subset, the mean age of participants was 70 years. Average length of service was four years, and most ($n = 86$ or 54%) volunteered about one day per week.

Measures

Participants indicated their age, gender, length of service, and current activity level and completed the Volunteer Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998). The inventory measures the importance of the six motives for volunteering (30 items), the extent to which volunteering has fulfilled those motives (twelve items), and satisfaction with the volunteer experience (five items).

Examples for each motive subscale include: "I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself" (Values); "I can learn more about the cause for which I am working" (Understanding); "My friends volunteer" (Social); "Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I'd like to work" (Career); "No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it" (Protective); and "Volunteering makes me feel important" (Enhancement). Items assessing satisfaction included, "My volunteer experience has been personally fulfilling" and "This experience of volunteering with this organization has been a worthwhile one."

A Likert-type response format was used. For the motives subscale, the alternatives ranged from 1 or *Not at all accurate/ important for you* to 5 or *Extremely important/accurate for you*. In the fulfillment subscale, the range was 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*).

Findings

Table 1 shows the correlations between volunteer satisfaction and both the strength and extent of fulfillment of the six motives for volunteering. Also included is the relationship between satisfaction and the two measures of volunteer activity: time spent volunteering, length of service.

Partially supporting hypotheses 1 and 2, satisfaction was positively associated with all motives except Career and Protective and with the fulfillment of all motives (except

Career and Protective). Significant satisfaction-motive correlations: Values, $r = .41$; Understanding, $r = .20$; Social, $r = .17$; Enhancement, $r = .21$. Significant satisfaction-motive fulfillment correlations: Values, $r = .35$; Understanding, $r = .26$; Social, $r = .21$; Enhancement, $r = .30$.

Table 1
Correlates of Volunteer Satisfaction

Variables	Satisfaction
Values (V)	.41***
Understanding (U)	.20*
Social (S)	.17*
Career (C)	.04
Protective (P)	.16
Enhancement (E)	.21**
V Fulfillment	.35***
U Fulfillment	.26***
S Fulfillment	.21**
C Fulfillment	.01
P Fulfillment	.12
E Fulfillment	.30***
Time	.17*
Length of service	.05

Note $n = 148\text{-}156$
*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$
***$p < .00$

Satisfaction correlated positively with amount of time devoted to volunteering ($r = .17$) but was unrelated to longevity as a hospice volunteer ($r = .05$).

The strength of each statistically signify-cant motive and the degree to which it was fulfilled were highly intercorrelated. Partial correlations were calculated to determine the unique contribution to satisfaction of each motive and its fulfillment. With motive strength partialled out, motive fulfillment remained positively correlated with satisfaction. The partial correlations were: Values fulfillment, $r = .25$, $p < .01$; Social fulfillment, $r = .20$, $p < .05$; Understanding

fulfillment, $r = .17$, $p < .05$; and Enhancement fulfillment, $r = .21$, $p < .01$. In contrast, controlling for motive fulfillment markedly reduced the relationship between satisfaction and motive strength. Only the Values motive showed a significant correlation ($r = .27$, $p < .01$).

Discussion

The findings suggest that more satisfied volunteers were motivated by altruistic values and the desire to put their skills to use in the service of others. The two motives that did not contribute to satisfaction, Career and Protective, embody self-focused tangi-ble and psychological goals, respectively. These did not contribute measurably to satisfaction with the volunteer experience. This other-oriented perspective has been found to apply predominantly to older volunteers. Omoto, Snyder, and Martino (2000) found that hospice volunteers age 55 and above were motivated chiefly by the desire to be of service, while interpersonal relationships were more important to younger volunteers.

We hypothesized that career-enhancing objectives would be immaterial because of the age of the sample and previous findings (e.g., Nelson et al., 2004). If not yet retired, participants likely were well established in their jobs. That Protective motivations, too, were unimportant indicates that resolving personal issues also was largely irrelevant in determining satisfaction. One cannot determine from the present data whether this latter finding is attributable to the nature of the individual or the volunteer work.

The importance of altruistic reasons for helping is not limited to hospice workers. Davis et al. (2003) found a strong relation-ship between altruistic motivations and persistence in a study of first-year volunteers from an array of organizations. In its study of volunteers 45 and older, AARP (2003) found that those surveyed were motivated

primarily by a sense of personal responsibility to help others. While volunteering took many forms for these individuals, a common thread was the desire to help the communities in which they live. Many felt drawn to volunteerism since the events of September 11, 2001.

Whatever the motivations for helping, satisfaction depended on the volunteer experience fulfilling those goals. Furthermore, with satisfaction came a greater time investment in the organization. Interestingly, those who were less satisfied with the experience tended to devote fewer hours to hospice but remained volunteers in good standing for years.

The present cross-sectional data leave unanswered questions about causal connections among variables. For example, do satisfied volunteers spend more time helping, or does investing more time in the organization lead to satisfaction? Both, of course, could be true. We are in the midst of a longitudinal investigation that follows volunteers throughout their first year of service to the hospice. The study will allow conclusions about causal relationships among the variables that underlie sustained volunteering.

Implications for the Profession

To best ensure active, satisfied volunteers, prospective volunteers' motivations for helping should be determined early in the orientation and training process. Individuals can then be matched with tasks they likely will find the most rewarding. Personal interests do play a substantial role in older volunteers' decisions to serve and their choice of volunteer outlets (AARP 2003). Note that one's reasons for helping may change over time as, for example, volunteers approach retirement. Therefore, the organization should periodically reassess volunteers' motives and, if they are not being fulfilled, offer new opportunities

for helping. Hospice provides myriad volunteer options ranging from those requiring extensive patient contact (e.g., nursing home visitation) to those involving very little (e.g., office support).

Taking an interest in volunteers' reasons for helping may also increase retention by fostering a volunteer role identity (e.g., Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin, & Call, 1999. According to role identity theory, the more others identify one with a particular role, the more the individual internalizes the role and incorporates it into the self-concept. Carrying out the role of volunteer drives future behavior as the individual strives to behave consistently with his or her volunteer role identity. The strength of a person's role identity correlates with amount of time devoted to service in many different types of service organizations (see also Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Finkelstein et al., 2005). Revisiting motivations for helping may be particularly important during the first year of service before a strong identity specific to the organization has been formed. Meeting motives in the early stages will help in the establishment of a volunteer role identity. This in turn can sustain the volunteer during periods when the experience is not meting an individual's specific goals.

The present findings indicate that while somewhat less motivated or satisfied individuals may offer less time to the hospice, they nonetheless tend to remain volunteers in good standing. Such volunteers could be tapped to help with special projects and annual events that require only periodic assistance (e.g., golf tournament). Thus a theoretical perspective such as motivational analysis can prove a useful tool in efforts to optimize the fit between organizations and volunteers.

References

AARP (2003). Time and money: An in-depth look at 45+ volunteers and donors. Retrieved January 16, 2007, from http://www.aarp.org/research/reference/publicopinions/aresearch-import-498.html

Bureau of labor Statistics. (2005). Volunteering in the United States, 2005. Retrieved August 5, 2006, from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/volun.nr0.htm

Clary. E.G. & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *8*, 156-159.

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*, 1516-1530.

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R.D., Miene, P., & Haugen, J. (1994). Matching messages to motives in persuasion: A functional approach to promoting volunteering. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *24*, 1129-1149.

Davis, M.H., Hall, J.A., & Meyer, M. (2003). The first year: Influences on the satisfaction, involvement, and persistence of new community volunteers. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *29*, 248-260.

Finkelstein, M.A. (2006). Dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior: Motives, motive fulfillment, and role identity. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *34*, 603-616.

Finkelstein, M.A., & Brannick (2007). Applying theories of institutional helping of informal volunteering: Motives, role identity, and prosocial personality. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *35*, 101-114.

Finkelstein, M.A., & McIntyre, S. (2005). A social psychological perspective on recruitment and retention of hospice volunteers. *Journal of Volunteer Administration*, *23*, 6-10.

Finkelstein, M.A., & Penner, L.A. (2004). Predicting organizational citizenship behavior: Integrating the functional and role identity approaches. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *32*, 383-398.

Finkelstein, M.A., Penner, L.A., & Brannick, M.T. (2005). Motive, role identity, and prosocial personality as predictors of volunteer activity. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *33*, 403-418.

Grube, J., & Piliavin, J. A. (2000). Role identity, organizational experiences, and volunteer experiences. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26,* 1108 - 1120.

Independent Sector. (2001). *Giving and volunteering in the United States 2001*. Retrieved September 3, 2004, from www.independentsector.org

Lee, L., Piliavin, J.A., & Call, V.R.A. (1999). Giving time, money, and blood: Similarities and differences. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *62*, 276-290.

Nelson, H.W., Hooker, K., DeHart, K.N., Edwards, J.A., & Lanning, K. (2004).

Factors important to success in the volunteer long-term care ombudsman role. *The Gerontologist*, *44*, 116-120.

Omoto, A., & Snyder, M. (1995). Sustained helping without obligation: Motivation, longevity of service, and perceived attitude change among AIDS volunteers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*, 671-687.

Omoto, A., & Snyder, M. (2002). Considerations of community: The context and process of volunteerism. *American Behavioral Scientist, 45,* 846-867.

Omoto, A.M., Snyder, M., & Martino, S.C. (2000). Volunteerism and the life course: Investigating age-related agendas for action. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 22,* 181-197.

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

Penner, L. A., & Finkelstein, M. A. (1998) Dispositional and structural determinants of volunteerism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74,* 525 - 537.

Van Dyne, L., & Farmer, S.M. (2004). It's who I am: Role identity and organizational citizenship behavior of volunteers. In D.L. Turnipseed (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational citizenship behavior: A review of 'good soldier' activity in organizations* (pp. 177-203). New York: Nova Science Publishers.

About the Author

Marcia A. Finkelstein, Ph.D. is Professor of Psychology at the University of South Florida where she has served on the faculty since 1981. She received her B.A. from Yale University and Ph.D. in psychology from Columbia University. Her current research examines the factors that initiate and sustain prosocial activities such as volunteerism and organizational citizenship behavior. She also publishes in the field of engaged scholarship, the effort to bring faculty researchers and community partners together to tackle problems of mutual concern.

Exemplary Volunteers: What Is the Role of Faith?

Laura Littlepage
Center for Urban Policy and the Environment
School of Public and Environmental Affairs
Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis
342 N. Senate Ave.
Indianapolis IN 46204-1708
Phone: (317) 261-3061
llittlep@iupui.edu

James L. Perry, Ph.D.
School of Public and Environmental Affairs
Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis
801 W. Michigan Street, BS 4078
Indianapolis, Indiana 46202
Phone: (317) 274-1078
perry@iupui.edu

Jeffrey L. Brudney, Ph.D.
Maxine Goodman Levin College of Urban Affairs
Cleveland State University
2121 Euclid Avenue
Cleveland, OH 44115
(216) 687-2135 (voice)
(216) 687-9239 (fax)

Philip K. Goff, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Religious Studies
425 University Blvd., CA 341B
Indianapolis, Indiana 46202
Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis
(317) 274-1465
pgoff@iupui.edu

Abstract

This study investigates the motivations and voluntary activities of exemplary volunteers. The researchers surveyed winners of the Daily Point of Light Awards and the President's Community Volunteer Awards and conducted in-depth telephone interviews with a sample of the mail survey respondents. Researchers then compared the survey data with information about typical volunteers. The findings indicated that although award-winners are more likely to be religious than the general population, most religious award-winning volunteers contribute their efforts to religious and nonreligious organizations. Also, many award-winning volunteers not religiously active have a spiritual motivation. Some began volunteer work after experiencing "life-

changing" events. Award winners generally respond favorably to public recognition in the local media, or at their school, worksite, or place of volunteering.

Key Words:
volunteer, motivation, religion, faith

Introduction

Although many studies have demonstrated a relationship between religiosity and volunteering (Greeley, 1997; Hodgkinson, Weitzman, & Kirsch, 1990; Lam, 2002), this research has generally examined either the general population or members of faith communities only, rather than focusing on those who volunteer. In addition, some studies have found only a weak relationship (Wuthnow, 1999) or no relationship (Hunter & Linn, 1980). Are the connections between religion or faith and volunteering found mainly in the context of the congregation and religious organization? Or do these connections extend to relationships outside congregations and religious organizations?

Wuthnow (1999, p. 352) maintains that much of the higher rate of volunteering in the context of religious organizations is for church-supported activities, and that religious influences and attendance are most pronounced within church-related volunteering. His analysis of the Independent Sector's 1994 Giving and Volunteering Survey found that much of the volunteering, especially among evangelical Christians, was concentrated within congregations and devoted to the maintenance of these congregations.

In contrast, Hodgkinson (1990) argues that churches inspire a desire to help others that moves people beyond the church setting. She maintains that

religious institutions foster philanthropy and voluntarism, both within their own communities and generally for other causes, including community and public service [p.291]. … Religious association is capable of inspiring social reform and experimenting with meeting human needs. The experiments of religious organizations in housing, community development and international relief and development are but a few of the more profound recent examples available in social reform. (p. 297)

In Hodgkinson's model, the researchers would expect that there would be a relationship between faith and formal and informal volunteering; that religious volunteers would volunteer for church-related and non-church-related activities; and that award-winning volunteers would be more likely to be religious than the general population. Based on both survey and in-depth interview data, the research examined these issues to determine how faith relates to motivations to volunteer in exemplary volunteers. The study also examined how these volunteers prefer to be recognized for their efforts.

Methodology

The research by the Center for Urban Policy and the Environment (Center) was conducted in partnership with the Points of Light Foundation (Foundation). The Foundation provided contact information for winners of the Daily Point of Light Awards (DPOL) and the President's Community Volunteer Awards (PCV), awarded on

behalf of the President of the United States. The Foundation has issued more than 1,100 Daily Point of Light Awards since 1998, and more than 150 President's Community Volunteer Awards since 1992, to individuals, groups, and organizations across the country. The researchers defined exemplary volunteers as winners of either of these two awards. Each award had a contact person associated with it. In the case of groups and organizations, the contact person either started the organization or was integral to the success of the effort. The researchers asked the contact person to complete the survey based on their experiences.

Survey Sample Population

The researchers developed a survey instrument using multiple sources for the measures for religiosity, voluntarism, and motivations to volunteer. In January and February 2004, the researchers mailed the questionnaire to all award winners, and received a response return rate of 38 percent (525 surveys returned).

To ensure that respondents were representative of all award winners, the researchers examined two indicators: percent of respondents by state compared to all winners, and percent of respondents by year of award compared to all winners. The respondents were widely distributed and did not over-represent any state. As might have been anticipated, a higher percentage of winners from recent years responded, although not dramatically higher.

Measures of Religiosity

The definition of religiosity can vary. Three different types of self-reported religiosity were measured: (1) religious involvement; (2) religious activity; and (3) professed closeness to God or spirituality.

Religious involvement is measured by membership in a place of worship, education in a religious school (one point for each level—elementary, middle or high school, college, or after-school or weekend classes), and having family and friends of religious affiliation or faith background.

Religious activity is measured by how often the person attends religious services, prays or reads religious texts, practices religious rituals at home, takes part in any activities of a place of worship (other than attending services), and takes part in any of the activities or groups of a religion or faith service organization (such as Knights of Columbus or Hadassah).

Many people, even those not involved in organized religion, profess to be spiritual persons. In a recent Gallup Poll (Gallup & Lindsay, 2004), 39 percent of Americans identified themselves as spiritual, not religious; 54 percent as religious; and 6 percent as both. Spirituality in this study is measured by how close the person feels to God (Hill & Pargament, 2003) when they are: performing acts of kindness, watching a beautiful sunset, performing religious traditions at home, meditating alone, or participating in a religious community through communal worship, celebration, memorial, or ritual. Spirituality can exhibit itself, then, among both religious and nonreligious individuals.

Measures of Volunteering

Both formal volunteering (for an organization) and informal volunteering (for example, helping run errands or doing yard work for people not living with you) are important to measure (Wilson & Musick, 1997). In addition, the researchers measured total hours dedicated to either informal or formal volunteering, as well as the number of different volunteer activities (either by type of organization for formal volunteering

or by type of activity for informal volunteering).

Measures of Motivation

The researchers measured six motivations that can be satisfied by volunteering (social, values, career, understanding, protective, and esteem) for each respondent (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992). The researchers also measured three indicators of public service motivation developed by Perry (1997), including commitment to public interest/civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Clary's volunteer motivation scale and Perry's public service motivation scale have been tested and attain high reliability and validity. In addition, two survey items measured *religious and spiritual motivation*: volunteering *is a practice encouraged by my religious beliefs*, and *it is my obligation to help others in need*. These items were added as a way to measure one conception of why people help each other; that is, it is a mandate of their faith to do what they can to make the world a better place for all people.

Interview Methodology

To provide a more in-depth understanding of the role of faith and religion in volunteering, the researchers purposefully selected a small, heterogeneous sample (*n* = 26) of responding award recipients for telephone interviews. The interviewed sub-sample encompassed substantial variations of demographic characteristics. The questions probed their goals, values, how they developed their volunteer commitment, and the role faith played in their volunteer commitments. Collected in 2004, this quailtative information supplements the data obtained from the mail surveys. The interviews were modeled on research conducted on moral commitment (Colby & Damon, 1992). In this research, almost 80

percent of these "moral exemplars" attributed their core value commitments to their religious faith, even though the nominating criteria for the awards did not include any specifically religious factor.

Respondents were categorized into four groups by cross-classifying them along two dimensions, religious activity and religious worldview. The responses were first separated into two categories—those with a high level of religious activity (as measured by several questions), and those with a low level of religious activity. The researchers then subdivided each group into two more groups: those who had an individual worldview and those who had a communal worldview. A wide representation of ages and religions were within these four groups.

Description Of Award Winners

Demographics

To see how exemplary volunteers compare with volunteers in general, the researchers compared the sample to the 2003 Current Population Survey (CPS) Supplement on Volunteering. Because the research data were collected in early 2004 and retrospecttive in nature, the 2003 CPS Survey was used for comparison.

As Table 1 illustrates, in many ways (gender, income, and race) the surveyed award winners are similar to other volunteers. There are some differences—award winners appear to be more highly educated, more likely to be retired, and older (over age 60). The age and employment status differences seem reasonable given that award recipients are generally expected to have more experience with the activity, likely to have more free time to volunteer, and have fewer family commitments. Thus, the researchers would expect them to be older and at a different stage in life compared to the typical volunteer.

Table 1
A Comparison of Demographic Characteristics of Responding Award Winners and All Volunteers

	Survey Respondents (2004)	CPS Volunteers (2003)
Gender		
Male	42.4%	41.3%
Female	57.6%	58.7%
Education		
Some high school	2.2%	9.4%
High school degree or GED	7.3%	23.4%
Some college	19.1%	19.3%
Less than a bachelor's degree	12.6%	9.8%
4-year degree or higher	57.8%	38.2%
Other	1.0%	1.0%
Employment Status		
Employed	56.3%	67.1%
Not employed	5.7%	3.3%
Retired	28.7%	14.2%
Full-time student or Other	9.3%	15.5%
Household Income		
Less than 20,000	11.7%	10.7%
20,000-39,999	18.8%	21.2%
40,000-59,999	19.9%	20.7%
60,000 or more	49.7%	47.5%
Age		
0-14	1.2%	NA
15-24	10.9%	13.8%
25-39	6.9%	25.3%
40-59	40.0%	41.2%
60+	41.0%	19.6%
Hispanic		
Yes	4.1%	5.2%
No	95.7%	94.8%
Don't know	0.2%	
Race		
White	85.2%	89.6%
Asian	1.9%	2.0%
Black	8.6%	6.0%
American Indian	2.1%	0.6%
Other	1.8%	1.7%
Don't know	0.4%	
Average Volunteer Hours		
	251.3	137.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey (CPS) Data. 2003 and 2004 Survey of Award Winners

Another unsurprising difference between the two groups is the amount of time devoted to volunteering. Award winners

Religion

To examine whether or not the religious denominations of award winners were significantly different than denominational affiliations nationally, Table 2 shows a comparison. Although the study sample had slightly higher percentages of Jewish respondents and slightly fewer Atheist/Agnostic people than the national average, in general the distribution of respondents by religion appears similar to the national distribution.

How Religious Are Award Winners?

More than half (55.7 percent) of the award winners say they attend religious services at least two or three times a month. Nationally, several surveys estimate that regular church attendees make up

report on average 251 hours per year, almost twice as much as the reported average for all volunteers (137 hours per year). approximately 40 percent of the general population (volunteers and nonvolunteers). A recent Gallup survey (Gallup & Lindsay, 2004) puts this figure at 41 percent. Similarly, the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS) (Davis, Smith, & Marsden, 2002) estimates church attendance at around 40 percent. The GSS also found that 18.6 percent of their respondents never attend religious services, compared to only about half that number, 10.2 percent, in the study sample. As attending religious services is a measure of religiosity for the purposes of this study, these differences indicate that the award winners are more religious than the general public. This factor might lead this group to be more likely to volunteer only for religious organizations, consistent with Wuthnow's (1999) arguments.

Table 2
A Comparison of Religious Self-Identification of Survey Respondents to National Averages

Denomination	Survey Respondents	National *
Christian, Non-Catholic	55.0 %	56.0%
Catholic	23.0%	24.4%
Jewish	6.0%	1.7%
Hindu	0.4%	0.2%
Muslim	0.4%	0.5%
Atheist/Agnostic	2.0%	4.8%
Other	13.0%	12.4%

* Source: *Exploring Religious America*, 2002 and 2004 Survey of Award Winners

Do Religious Volunteers Help Outside Their Church?

While 25 % of the general public who volunteer (according to the 2004 CPS survey) say that their only volunteer activity is for a religious organization, among the award-winning volunteers—even among those classified as very religious—only 8.6 % volunteer solely for religious organizations. Most (70%) volunteer for both religious and nonreligious organizations, and one in five volunteer for nonreligious organizations only. These findings support Hodgkinson's (1990) arguments.

The respondents have varying levels of religiosity, depending on whether religiosity is measured by involvement (e.g., church membership, religious schooling), participation in religious activities (e.g., attending services, praying, taking part in rituals at home), or perceived closeness to God.

Is There A Relationship Between Religiosity And Volunteering?

These results show that award-winning volunteers donate their time to both religious and nonreligious organizations. The following sections examine whether religiosity is related to level of volunteering (hours spent and number of volunteer activities).

Formal Volunteering

As Table 3 illustrates, the number of formal (organizational) volunteering activities seems to bear a stronger relationship to religiosity than do total hours volunteered. This finding may occur, in part, because the exemplary volunteers contribute many volunteer hours (almost twice the national average), but the number of different types of volunteering they do varies demonstrably. All three measures of religiosity are significantly correlated with formal volunteering activities. Religious activity is highly correlated with formal volunteering hours, and it explains 22.9 percent of the variance in formal volunteering hours.

Informal Volunteering

Informal volunteering (helping out) activities are significantly correlated with three measures of religiosity, and the number of informal volunteering hours is significantly correlated with reported closeness to God and religious activities. Religious activity explains 19.8 percent of the variance in informal volunteer hours, which seems to suggest that religious activity encourages people to give more hours toward helping people outside of an organization. These findings indicate that, at least for these award-winning volunteers, the relationship between religiosity and both formal and informal volunteering is more one of "loving thy neighbor" (all of your neighbors) than serving one's church.

Table 3
Correlations of Measures of Religiosity to Measures of Volunteering

	Formal Volunteering Hours	Formal Volunteering Activities	Informal Volunteering Hours	Informal Volunteering Activities
Religious Involvement	.069	.108*	.057	.113*
Religious Activity	.229**	.176**	.198**	.157**
Perceived Closeness to God	.095	.184**	.104*	.134**

*significant at .05 level
**significant at .01 level

How Do Award Winners Describe Their Motivation?

As described in the methodology section, to provide a more in-depth understanding of the role of faith and religion in volunteering, the researchers purposefully selected a small, heterogeneous sample (*n* = 26) of responding award recipients for telephone interviews. Among interviewees, there was a wide representation of ages and religions. The average age of interviewees was 54, with the range from 14 to 78 years of age. The interviewees included 16 men and 10 women. The group interviewed did not differ substantially from the group of all award winners by their motivations, the number of volunteer activities, or the number of hours volunteered.

Award Winners Follow Different Paths

Though half of the interviewees selected indicated they were not active religiously, almost all (85 percent) of the respondents said that they had either a religious or a spiritual reason for their volunteering activities. Comments from people with very low levels of religious activity included:

- "Teaching of Jesus is part of what I am and what I am meant to be."
- "The Bible is a guideline for how we should lead our lives."
- "I am spiritual but not religious."
- "I rely on God all the time."

These findings confirm the observation that most of the exemplary volunteers feel a "closeness to God," and the responses may provide a better measure of religiosity and how it relates to volunteer activity. Another commonly mentioned motivation was "wanting to give back."

Another notable finding from the interviews is that involvement in volunteering does not necessarily follow a linear progression. That is, senior volunteers did not necessarily begin volunteering as youths, then as young adults, and continuing through the present. Several of the interviewees had not volunteered either as children or young adults. Some had their first volunteer experience as late as their sixties. Others volunteered as children, but then did not volunteer again until years later. Some respondents did not consider the work they did for their church, either as children or adults, as voluntary or volunteering. Rather, either the volunteer activity was something they did for their faith, or it was something they were required to do by their parents or social norms.

A novel finding from the interviews was a motivation not widely discussed in the volunteer motivation literature: life-changing events. These are precipitating, dramatic events that lead people to volunteer with extraordinary intensity–the type of dedicated activity that produces award recognition. Approximately one-fourth of those interviewed cited such events as part of their motivation. These respondents included a mother who became active in victims' rights and counseling after her three children were brutally murdered; a woman who became active in prenatal and well-baby care after she was diagnosed with cervical cancer and learned she could not have children; a woman who became active in hospice care after her father died a long, slow, painful death; a father who began helping at-risk youth after losing his son in an automobile accident; and a man who began helping the homeless because of his mentally ill son.

How Do Award Winners Prefer To Be Recognized?

Though usually not a major motivating factor, recognition can be an important aspect in a volunteer's satisfaction with their efforts. Retention of existing volunteers is critical for most organizations, and both effective feedback and recognition are part of this process.

How do volunteers prefer to be recognized? The Points of Light Foundation and the Volunteer Center National Network are administering the new President's Volunteer Service Award, which is a recognition program for Americans of all ages who contribute a significant amount of time to volunteer service, and they asked the Center to include a question on the survey instrument mailed to respondents to help determine appropriate recognition for this new award. The possible responses to the preferred types of recognition question on the survey were:

- would be thrilled to get this as recognition,
- an acceptable form of recognition,
- would not consider this an acceptable form of recognition, and
- no opinion.

As Table 4 shows, most respondents would be thrilled to receive public recog-

nition in the local media. The next most popular recognition method is written acknowledgement at school or place of employment, followed by written acknowledgement at the place of volunteering. These preferred recognitions have the added benefits of publicizing and promoting volunteer activity in general, and the activity of the award-winning volunteer in particular. In contrast, the findings in Table 4 reveal that the overall sample of award-winning volunteers valued the more "material" motivations, such as receiving a patch or pin, trophy, and apparel, the least. Because the mail survey sample consists of award-winning volunteers with atypically high levels of donating time (see Table 1), one should be cautious in attempting to generalize these results concerning recognition to the general population of volunteers.

Table 4

Percentages of Respondents Who Would "Be Thrilled" to Receive Various Types of Recognition

Type of Recognition	%
Public recognition in local media	59%
Written acknowledgement at school or place of employment	47%
Written acknowledgement at place of volunteering	41%
Certificate	34%
Verbal acknowledgement at place of volunteering	32%
Verbal acknowledgement at school or place of employment	30%
Patch or pin	27%
Trophy	27%
Apparel	22%
No recognition	7%

When the various types of recognition are cross-tabulated by age groups, most outcomes are similar to the overall group, but there are a few exceptions. At least 53 percent of respondents from all age groups wanted some form of recognition. However, the younger the group of volunteers, the more likely they are to be thrilled to receive some form of recognition, compared to their older cohorts. For the overall group of all ages, over half of the volunteers would find receiving a certificate, trophy, apparel, or a written acknowledgement at school or place of employment acceptable or thrilling, but the younger the age group, the higher the percentage who find it acceptable or thrilling.

Conclusion And Practical Implications

Few studies have examined volunteers who have received major awards for their efforts (Brudney, 2000; Brudney & Willis, 1995). Although caution must be used in generalizing from a distinctive sample of award-winners, the analysis holds important implications for volunteer recruitment.

One implication of the findings centers on the importance of recognition to volunteers. Even among award-winning volunteers, for whom one might well conclude that intrinsic motivations are most salient to yield such high levels of voluntary activity, at least half (53 percent) of all age groups said they wanted some form of recognition. Recognition is likely to be even more significant for the typical volunteer, whose motivations for giving time are much more variable. Our findings show, too, that inexpensive forms of recognition, such as written acknowledgements and press releases, are highly desirable. The results indicate that the younger the age group of volunteers, the more likely they were to appreciate some form of recognition. Younger volunteers can be expected not only to want recognition as a matter of course but also additional forms of recognition, such as awards and acknowledgements that might lead to advances in school, work, and other aspects of life.

Second, the study reveals the spiritual or religious roots of volunteering for many people, even when they do not exhibit high levels of religious activity, according to the study's measures. Thus, volunteer programs that seek additional volunteers might appeal to the motivation to express spirituality or faith through service. The volunteer program need not be explicitly religious to attract these volunteers, but simply allow for such expression. For example, including quotations from volunteers with spiritual or religious motivations in recruitment and promotional materials could signal to potential recruits the opportunity to realize or live their faith through volunteering.

A critical issue facing the field of volunteer administration and management is how to recruit volunteers for more than episodic or one-time events. The concept that most exemplary volunteers are motivated by their spirituality and/or religiosity implies that religious congregations may be a good place to recruit volunteers for ongoing activities. Certainly, these volunteers have very high levels of volunteer involvement.

Third, although award-winning volunteers may be more religious than the general population, the findings of this study demonstrate they do not confine their volunteering exclusively to religious organizations. Indeed, most award winners volunteer for both religious and nonreligious organizations, and also volunteer informally. Thus, simply because a person finds spiritual or religious fulfillment through volunteering does not mean that she or he is available for service only to religious organizations. Because of the breadth of the service interests of these volunteers and the depth of their commitment (as manifested by such indicators as hours donated), organizations

(both religious and nonreligious) should not hesitate to attract and recruit these volunteers.

Finally, the in-depth interviews with some award-winners revealed that life-changing events led them to volunteer at extraordinary levels sufficient to earn prestigious honors. These events inspired manifest changes in lifestyle toward service. The researchers draw two lessons from these accounts. First, the traditional stereotype of increasing volunteer involvement from youth through adulthood does not hold for all people. Instead, the message is more optimistic— people can become interested and motivated to volunteer with strong conviction and intensity at any age. In fact, many of these award-winning volunteers (as well as other volunteers) are seniors. Organizations seeking volunteers should not make unwarranted assumptions about the volunteer behavior they might expect based on the ages of potential volunteers or their possible lack of prior volunteering experience. These findings show that people may grow into volunteering at any stage of the life cycle.

The second lesson is that the life-changing events that inspired the turn to volunteering could not have been predicted, even by the award winners. Thus, organizations that enlist volunteers should be aware that just as with a variety of other influences, the experiences they offer to volunteers might turn an ordinary volunteer into an exemplar. There is no higher calling for volunteer administration.

References

Brudney, J.L. (2000). Points of light: Building social capital? In D. McConkey & P. A. Lawler (Eds.), *Social structures, social capital, and personal freedom* (pp. 43-59). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Brudney, J.L., & Willis, K.L. (1995, Spring). The daily point of light awards: An analysis of recipients and effects. *Journal of Volunteer Administration, 13*, 1-9.

Clary, E.G., Snyder, M., & Ridge, R. (1992). Volunteers' motivations: A functional strategy for the recruitment, placement, and retention of volunteers. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership 2*(4), 333-350.

Colby, A., & Damon, W. (1992). *Some do care: Contemporary lives of moral commitment*. NY: Free Press.

Davis, J.A., Smith, T.W., & Marsden, P.V. (2002). General social survey 2002 Chicago: National Opinion Research Center.

Gallup, G., Jr., & Lindsay, D. M. (2004). *Surveying the religious landscape-trends in U.S. beliefs*. Retrieved October 6, 2004, from, http://www.gallup.com/publications/RelTrend.asp

Greeley, A. (1997). Civil society: The Tocqueville files, continued. *The American Prospect.* Retrieved August 26, 2004, from http://web.lexis-nexis.com/universe/document

Hill, P.C., & Pargament, K.I. (2003). Advances in the conceptualization and measurement of religion and spirituality: Implications for physical and mental health research. *American Psychologist*, *58*(1). Retrieved 10/5/04 from

http:ot.creighton.edu/OTD511/hillarticle .htm

Hodgkinson, V. A., Weitzman, M. S., & Kirsch, A. D. (1990). From commitment to action: How religious involvement affects giving and volunteering. *Faith and philanthropy in America: Exploring the role of religion in America's voluntary sector.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Nonprofit Sector Series.

Hodgkinson, V. A. (1990). The future of individual giving and volunteering: The inseparable link between religious community and individual generosity. *Faith and philanthropy in America; Exploring the role of religion in America's voluntary sector.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Nonprofit Sector Series.

Hunter, K. I., & Linn, M. W. (1980). Psychosocial differences between elderly volunteers and nonvolunteers. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 12*(3), 205–213.

Lam, P. Y. (2002). As the flocks gather: How religion affects voluntary association participation. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 41*(3), 405–422.

Perry, J.L. (1997). Antecedents of public service motivation. *Journal of Public Administration, Research and Theory, 2*, 181-197.

Religion and Ethnics Newsweekly (2002) *Exploring religious America.* Retrieved August 5, 2005, from http://www.pbs.org/wnet/religionandethi cs/week534/specialreport.html

Wilson, J., & Musick, M. (1997). Who cares? Toward an integrated theory of volunteer work. *American Sociological Review 62*(5), 694-713.

Wuthnow, R. (1999). Mobilizing civic engagement: The changing impact of religious involvement. In T. Skocpol & M. Fiorina (Eds.), *Civic engagement in American democracy.* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution

About the Authors

Laura Littlepage is a senior policy analyst at the Center for Urban Policy and the Environment and clinical lecturer in the School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis. Her research interests include volunteering and evaluation. She was co-investigator of a four-year evaluation of Join Hands Day, a national day of service, and was co-investigator of several national evaluations for the Points of Light Foundation.

James L. Perry, Ph.D., is Chancellor's Professor, School of Public and Environmental Affairs (SPEA) at Indiana University—Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI). His research focuses on motivation, community and national service, and government reform. His most recent books are *Civic Service: What Difference Does It Make?* (Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe, 2004) and *Quick Hits for Educating Citizens* (Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press, 2006).

Jeffrey L. Brudney, Ph.D., is the Albert A. Levin Chair of Urban Studies and Public Service at Cleveland State University's Maxine Goodman Levin College of Urban Affairs. He has written extensively on volunteerism, service delivery, research methodology and public management. Brudney has received national and international awards for his research, and serves on the editorial board of journals in public administration and the voluntary, nonprofit sector.

Philip K. Goff, Ph.D., is director of the Center for the Study of Religion and American Culture and associate professor of Religious Studies and American Studies. He has just published a co-edited volume titled "The Columbia Documentary History of Religion in America Since 1945" (Columbia University Press, 2005). His specialization is American religious history, with research interests in both the eighteenth and twentieth centuries.

Trust, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and the Volunteer's Psychological Contract

Becky J. Starnes, Ph.D.
Austin Peay State University
Clarksville, Tennessee, USA
starnesb@apsu.edu

Abstract

Studies indicate that psychological contracts can develop between volunteers and the nonprofit organizations they serve and that this relationship plays a role in volunteer performance and retention. This study explored the relationships between volunteers' levels of trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and their perceptions of organizational breaches of the contract. The data indicated decreases in job satisfaction may influence volunteers' perceptions of contract breach but trust and organizational commitment did not.

Key Words:

volunteers, satisfaction, commitment, trust, psychological contracts

Introduction

Volunteers may develop perceptions that their nonprofit obligations will provide them something in return for their service. This concept, of perceived reciprocity, is often referred to as a "psychological contract." Furthermore, volunteers may perceive their organization has not fulfilled its part of the contract. Perceived breaches may negatively affect the volunteer's service to the organization (Farmer & Fedor, 1997; Starnes 2004).

Purpose of the Paper

This study was conducted to answer the management question: What can managers of nonprofit organizations do to maintain and improve the contributions made by their volunteer workforces? This paper focuses on the study's findings regarding the influence of the volunteers' levels of trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on perceptions of contract breach.

Methodology

A longitudinal research design consisting of volunteer responses to a survey instrument at two points in time within a six-month period was used. A random sample of 276 volunteers was selected from a population of 532 volunteers serving in a variety of community, professional, and fraternal organizations.

Key concepts and operational definitions. Trust was defined as "reliance on others" and measured using a scale created by Gabarro and Athos (1976). Job satisfaction was defined as "how happy people are with their work based on what they perceive they will receive in return" and measured using a scale developed by (Spector, 1997). Finally, organizational commitment was defined as "the willingness of the organization to fulfill obligations to employees." Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian's (1974) scale measured commitment levels. Standardized multiple regression tested the hypotheses.

The hypotheses.

H_{1B}: Volunteers with decreased trust in the nonprofit organization (between Times One and Two) will be more likely to perceive a breach in the psychological contract (at Time Two) than are volunteers with increased trust in the nonprofit organization.

H_{2B}: Volunteers with decreased job satisfaction in the nonprofit organization (between Times One and Two) will be more likely to perceive a breach in the psychological contract than are volunteers with increased job satisfaction in the nonprofit organization (at Time Two).

H_{3B}: Volunteers with decreased organizational commitment in the nonprofit organization (between Times One and Two) will be more likely to perceive a breach in

the psychological contract than are volunteers with increased organizational commitment in the nonprofit organization (at Time Two).

Findings and Conclusions

Paired-sample t-tests were conducted to evaluate the changes in the mean scores of the volunteers' perceptions of trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment between Times One and Two. (See Table 1.) There was a statistically significant decrease in organizational commitment scores from Time One (Me = 48.6, sd = 6.23) to Time Two (Me = 45.4, sd = 5.27, t = .555, p <.0005). There were no statistically significant differences in the trust (Me =17.7, sd = 2.24) and job satisfaction (Me = 66.7, sd = 6.23) scores between Times One and Two.

Table 1

T Scores between Volunteers' Perceptions of Trust, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment in the Nonprofit Organization at Times One and Two (N=85)

Variable	Time One		Time Two			
	Me	Sd	Me	Sd	t	Sig.
Trust	17.7	2.24	17.4	2.40	.816	.417
Job satisfaction	66.7	7.53	66.2	7.06	.612	.542
Organizational commitment	48.6	6.23	45.4	5.27	.555*	.000*

df = 84
*p ≤ .05

Standardized multiple regression was used as the test statistic to assess impact of the Time Two-Time One scores for trust, job satisfaction, organizational commitment on the perceptions of how well the contract had been fulfilled at Time Two. Standardized multiple regression was chosen as the test statistic for these hypotheses because the sample size of 85 was large enough and visual assessments of the appropriate Normal Probability Plots and scatter plots indicated the data appeared to be normally distributed and linear. For this analysis the dependent variable was the volunteers' perceptions of a breach of the psychological contract. (The operational definition for a breach of the psychological contract was to subtract the volunteers' scores of how well the contract had been fulfilled at Time Two from their perceptions that a psychological developed at Time One score.) The data for the independent variables trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment was each variables Time Two-Time One score.

The Pearson correlation data, shown in Table 2 indicates a statistically significant strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction between Times One and Two and significant moderate relationships between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust scores between Times One and Two. In addition, a very weak negative relationship exists between the volunteers' perceptions of trust in the organization and their perceptions of a breach in the contract. In regard to perception of breach, the data indicates small positive relationships exist between the volunteers' perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and their perceptions of a breach in the psychological contract. However, only the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived breach was found to be statistically significant.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for Changes in the Volunteers' Perceptions of Trust, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment and Perceptions of a Breach in the Psychological Contract (N=85)

Variable	Me	Sd	Trust	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment	Perceived breach
Trust (T2-T1)	-2.35	2.65	X			
Job satisfaction (T2-T1)	-4.94	7.44	.456**	X		
Organizational commitment (T2-T1)	-3.24	5.38	.459**	.510**	X	
Perceived breach (T2)	.976	8.31	-.014	.268*	.176	X

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 presents the regression analysis. The collinearity tolerance statistics appear strong indicating this analysis does not violate the assumption of no multicollinarity and the coefficient of determination (r^2) indicates that 10.5 percent of the variance in the volunteers' perceptions of how well the contract had been fulfilled was caused by changes in the volunteers' levels of trust, satisfaction, and organizational commitment between Times One and Two. The ANOVA significance value for the entire model was found to be significant at .029. The standardized coefficients indicate that the volunteers' levels of job satisfaction made the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to explaining the volunteers' perceptions of how well the contract had been fulfilled (beta = .303). The statistically significant beta score of .020 and t value of 2.37 indicated that changes in job satisfaction between Times One and Two were making significant unique contributions to the volunteers' perception of a breach in the psychological contract. The ANOVA

significant value of .029 also indicated the model was statistically significant. Therefore, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis for Hypotheses Two and concluded that there was a significant relationship between the volunteers' perceptions of a breach in the psychological contract and their levels of job satisfaction between Time One and Time Two. However, the beta significance values of .100 for trust and .371 for organizational commitment and t values of -1.66 and .89 respectively indicated that changes in trust and organizational commitment were not making significant unique contributions to the volunteers' perceptions of a breach. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypotheses for Hypotheses One and Three and concluded that there were no significant relationships between the volunteers' perceptions of breach of the psychological contract and their levels of trust and organizational commitment in the nonprofit organization.

Table 3
Standardized Regression Results for Changes in Trust, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment Variables Predicting the Perception of a Breach of the Psychological Contract (N=85)

Variable	Tolerance[a]	Unstandardized Coefficients[a]	Standardized Coefficients Betas[a]	Sig[a]	t
(Constant)		1.569		.140	1.49
Trust (T2-T1)	.723	-.643	-.206	.100	-1.66
Job satisfaction (T2-T1)	.677	.339	.303	.020*	2.37
Organizational commitment (T2-T1)	.675	.177	.115	.371	.89
r^2 = .105[b]					
F = 3.152[b]					
ANOVA Sig. = .029*[a]					

*$p \le .05$
  a. Predictors: (constant), trust, satisfaction, commitment at Time 2-Time 1
  b. Dependent variable: Perceived contract fulfillment at Time Two

Implications for the Profession

Managers of volunteer workforces may find it helpful to enhance their understanding of the role job satisfaction may play in a volunteer's perception that the organization has breached the psychological contract. Management techniques and tools useful for managing this satisfaction could include job rotation and enlargement activities for volunteers to build the sense of accomplishment in their work (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). Additional actions include: participative decision-making processes, elimination of restrictive organizational policies and procedures, self-managing work group structures, reward systems that match volunteers' expectations, and realistic job reviews to match volunteers and their abilities with organizational needs (Gellatly, 1995; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1995; & Sims 1994).

References

Farmer, S. M., & Fedor, D. B. (1997). Volunteer participation and turnover intentions: The role of satisfaction, expectations, and organizational support. *Academy of Management Proceedings,* 380-384.

Gabarro, J. J. & Athos, A. G. (1976). *Interpersonal relations and communications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Gellatly, I. R. (1995). Individual and group determinants of employee absenteeism. *Journal of Organizational Behav*ior, *16*(5), 469-485.

Iaffaldano, M. T. & Muckinsky, P. M. (1985). Job satisfaction and job performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 97*(2), 251-273.

Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (1998). *Organizational behavior* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*(5), 603-609.

Sims, R. R. (1994). Human resource management's role in clarifying the new psychological contract. *Human Resource Management, 33*(3). 373-382.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Starnes B. J. (2004). *An analysis of psychological contracts in voluntarism and the influences of trust, job, satisfaction, and organizational commitment*. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *65*(06), 2359. (UMI No. 316015).

About the Author

Becky J. Starnes received a Ph.D. in public administration and public policy from Auburn University Montgomery. She is an assistant professor of professional studies for the school of technology and public management. This article is from her dissertation: An analysis of psychological contracts in voluntarism and the influences of trust, job, satisfaction, and organizational commitment published by *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *65*(06), 2359 (UMI No. 316015).

A Functional Approach to Senior Volunteer and Non-volunteer Motivations

Carlton F. Yoshioka, Ph.D.
Center for Nonprofit Leadership and Management
Arizona State University
Mail Code 4120
411 N. Central Avenue, Suite 500
Phoenix, AZ 85004-0691
602-496-0153
yoshioka@asu.edu

William A. Brown, Ph.D.
Bush School of Government and Public Service
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas
wbrown@bushschool.tamu.edu

Robert F. Ashcraft, Ph.D.
Center for Nonprofit Leadership and Management
Arizona State University
Phoenix, AZ
ashcraft@asu.edu

Abstract

Understanding volunteer motivation has been widely recognized by both researchers and administrators as a valuable component of management of volunteers. This paper utilized the multifactor functional approach derived from theories on attitudes to examine the motivations of active seniors that volunteer and those that did not volunteer. In general, the results supported the use of the multifactor functional approach (using the Volunteer Function Inventory scale) with seniors involved in human service organizations. Findings suggested several considerations for volunteer administrators to promote volunteerism among current volunteers and those with a desire to volunteer.

Key Words:
volunteers, motivations, seniors, non-volunteers

Introduction

There are 79 million baby boomers in America today, the youngest of which are turning 60 next year (Points of Light Foundation, 2004). A large portion of the baby boomer generation has already begun to retire or is planning to retire in the next couple of years. One of the most common activities for retirees is volunteerism. Approximately 50 percent of American adults volunteer their time in nonprofit organizations with an estimated $150 billion worth of services being provided annually (Silverberg, Ellis & Whitworth, 2002). The rate is less for those age 65 or older, but still results in nearly one fourth of all adults having volunteered once in 2005 (Department of Labor, 2005). It is clearly evident that volunteer programs provide benefits to individuals and organizations across the country.

Understanding volunteer motivation has been widely recognized by both researchers and administrators as a valuable component of volunteer management (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Harrison, 1995). In examining who volunteers, many investigators found a positive correlation between the likelihood of formal volunteering and the demographic variables of education or income (Chambre, 1993; Fischer, Mueller, & Cooper, 1991; Fischer & Schaffer, 1993), and a white collar/professional employment background (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993; Herzog & Morgan, 1993). With regard to employment status, adults employed part-time were more likely to volunteer than full-time workers or the unemployed (Fischer et al., 1991; Fischer & Schaffer, 1993). Similarly, church members had a greater likelihood of organizational volunteering than non-members (Fischer et al., 1991; Fischer & Schaffer, 1993). Some studies showed that highly motivated volunteers serve longer than volunteers who do not

have their needs met through service (Omoto & Snyder, 1995).

Gender is a strong predictor of volunteerism; women are more likely to volunteer than men (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Trudeau & Devlin, 1996). In studies involving parks and recreation and human service oriented programs, the prevalence of women in volunteer groups ranges from a high of 78 percent (Fitch, 1987) to a low of 52 percent (Backman, Wicks & Silverberg, 1997). Similar to gender, annual household income appears to assist in the under-standing of the types of organizations for which one volunteers. Studies of collegiate volunteers (Fitch, 1987) and members of recreation-related voluntary associations, affiliated for example with zoos, museums, and environmental concerns (Bigley, Fesenmaier & Roehl, 1994; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994), reported that high socio-economic status (i.e., income) is a common and predictive variable explaining participa-tion. Bigley et al., (1994) revealed that over 60 percent of volunteers had annual house-hold incomes exceeding $40,000.

In regards to age and volunteers, empirical studies have revealed generally an upward trend in the proportion of seniors who volunteer (Chambre, 1993). This upward trend has been attributed to the rising affluence and educational levels of the aged (Chambre, 1993), as well as an emerging ''busy ethic'' that encourages adults to age well by staying active and involved with family, home maintenance, and volunteer organizations (Ekerdt, 1986). Although there are more proportionally older volunteers, the amount of time contributed to volunteer organizations (by people of comparable socioeconomic status) has remained stable (Fischer et al., 1991; Herzog & House, 1991; Herzog & Morgan, 1993). On average, older adults have volunteered between 70-80 hours of their

time annually, or roughly six hours per month (Herzog & House, 1991; Herzog & Morgan, 1993). In fact, fewer than 10 percent of the aged have contributed as many as 10 hours per week, or the equivalent of a quarter-time job (Fischer et al., 1991; Worthy & Ventura-Merkel, 1982), but it is this small percentage of active elder volunteers that has accounted for most of the hours volunteered (Morgan, 1986).

Many studies examined and categorized the motivational objectives of individuals who donate their services to various organizations. One of the major motives for volunteering is giving something worthwhile to society. Helping others and benefiting society (altruistic motive) are consistent reasons why individuals volunteer (Brudney, 1993; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998). Other motives include sharpening or stretching one's job skills, testing new careers, or building a resume (Gillespie & King, 1985).

David McClelland (McClelland, 1972; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953) pioneered workplace motivation and particularly need-based achievement motivation theories and models in the field of organizational behavior. The three types of motivational need were identified as achievement motivation, authority/power motivation, and affiliation motivation (McClelland, 1988). Much of McClelland's work is the foundation of the current understanding of workplace interactions and the desire to achieve as a basic human motivation. McClelland (1972; 1988) found that achievement motivated people have certain characteristics in common, including: the capacity to set high personal but obtainable goals, the concern for personal achievement rather than the reward of success, and the desire for job-relevant feedback (how well am I doing?) rather than for attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?). Related to the affiliation

motivation or the desire for friendly relationships and interactions with other people, Wilson (1976) found that this motivation connected directly to the recruitment and retention of volunteers in a quality program.

Of the few theories explaining the motivations for planned helping or volunteering, a functional (psychological) approach was viewed as one of the predominant research strategies in current literature on motivation (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). One particular study (Okun, Barr & Herzog, 1998) focused on determining the best approach to measure volunteer motivations of seniors. The researchers (Okun et al., 1998) found that the multifactor functional approach derived from theories on attitudes showed the most promise in understanding volunteer motivetions. Another study (Stergios & Carruthers, 2003) investigated the motivations of volunteers serving in intergenerational programs that benefit older adults and youth who participate. The motivations of older adult volunteers in this study were consistent with and further validated the use of the functional approach.

Multifactor Functional Approach

Clary et al.'s (1998) functional analysis extends previous research on the breadth of volunteers' motivations (Clary & Snyder, 1991) and builds on the work of functional theorists (e.g., Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner & White, 1956) who argued that the same beliefs, attitudes, and actions could serve different psychological factors for different individuals. The Voluntary Functions Inventory (VFI) scale developed by Clary et al. (1998) proposes six different factors that exist in unique degrees of interest for each individual. Volunteerism may serve (a) a *value factor*, by allowing one to express altruistic and humanitarian values; (b) an *understanding factor*, by offering learning

experiences; (c) a *social factor*, by providing opportunities for social interaction and approval; (d) a *career factor*, by providing career-beneficial experiences; (e) a *protective factor*, by offering escape from negative feelings of self, such as guilt over one's good fortune relative to others'; and (f) an *enhancement factor*, by promoting positive feelings of self.

Perhaps the most significant implication of this functional approach is that individuals can be persuaded to volunteer through appeals to relevant psychological factors. Past research on functional theories of attitudes has supported the hypothesis that matching message content to audience motivations facilitates persuasion. DeBono (1987) found that individuals with primarily a social orientation experienced more attitude change after exposure to a message addressing that factor than after exposure to a message addressing the value factor. Individuals for whom attitudes serve primarily a value's factor were more influenced by a value message than a social message. Another study (Snyder, 1974) used a self-monitoring scale to identify social and value factors in the act of volunteering. This work and others (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & DeBono, 1989) revealed the importance of matching a motivational strategy to the individual's attitude resulted in persuasive messages that were effective in generating volunteers.

Consequently, understanding the motives of different volunteers will provide volunteer managers the opportunity to effectively promote opportunities and design volunteer positions that fulfill the interests of potential volunteers. Wymer (2002) suggests that effective market segmentation will improve the efficacy of volunteer administrator research to inform decision-making and understanding of voluntary behavior because a more focused research facilitates the understanding and applying of

results. A variety of methods are suggested to segment the volunteer pool, but typically it reflects demographic characteristics that define a recognizable market niche. Older individuals are an extremely valuable volunteer pool and further clarification of motivations and demographic characteristics of volunteers compared to non-volunteers would be beneficial. Unfortunately, no matter how effective the use of the functional approach to volunteer management, there are barriers that prevent individuals from volunteering. As individuals grow older, the rate of volunteerism is less likely to be influenced by health reasons. For each increase in age of one year, the odds of a person volunteering decrease slightly (Choi, 2003). Other barriers are a lack of time, lack of transporttation, disabilities, and lack of financial sustainability. For these reasons a substantial number of those serving through formal senior volunteer programs discontinue within one year (Stevens, 1991). This underscores the need for more research on seniors that do and do not volunteer. The purpose of this study was to determine through a functional approach if there are motivational differences between older adults that volunteer or those that do not but might be motivated to volunteer.

Methods

The purpose of this study was to determine the functional motivations of seniors that volunteer and those that do not. The researcher administered the instrument in two different locations. One location was a senior center that captured primarily non-volunteers, and the second was a local social service agency. A modified version of the Voluntary Functions Inventory (VFI) scale by Clary et al. (1998) which has been used extensively by a variety of researchers have established the reliability (.82 to .85 alpha reliability) of the VFI scale (Clary et al.,

1998; Okun et al., 1998; Snyder & Cantor, 1998; Welker, 2001). The motivational factor dimension of *career* was eliminated to reflect the senior sample reducing the VFI scale to five factor dimensions. After the modifications, the survey included 20 questions using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) *not at all important* to (7) *extremely important*. In order to separate the volunteers from non-volunteers, the survey instructions stated, "If you have done volunteer work before or are currently doing volunteer work, please indicate how important each of the following possible reasons for volunteering is for you. If you have not been a volunteer before, please indicate how important each of the following reasons for volunteering would be for you." The researcher's pilot tested the instrument with a selected group of seniors to determine the length of the overall presentation and survey, and to adjust and clarify the survey questions. Data were coded and analyzed using the SPSS for Windows version 12.0. Frequency distributions were initially calculated for the demographic variables.

Results

A total of 216 responses were used for this analysis (see Table 1). The sample was truncated (respondents 49 years of age and younger were excluded from the social service agency sample) to include only respondents between the ages of 51-79. This is based on the expanded view of mature adults (50 years of age and older) that volunteer for a variety of programs as seniors (Points of Light Foundation, 2004). Of the total respondents, 60 % were female with an average age of 68 years old. A large portion of the sample was White (92%), and retired from employment (81%) with a majority having completed a high school education. There were some differences between the two samples, most notably the social service agency volunteers tended to be slightly more affluent with a median income of $50,000 (computed from a fixed response question of household income categories starting at $15,000 or less up to $105,000 or more at intervals of $15,000), and slightly more educated. Otherwise, the samples were remarkably similar with over 80 % of the respondents retired and over 90 % White.

Table 1
Respondent Profile

Characteristic	Senior Center N=121	Social Service Agency N=95	Total N=216
Average age (SD)	68.5 (7.06)	67.2 (7.43)	67.9 (7.24)
Percent male (n)	31% (38)	52%	40% (87)
Percent female (n)	69% (83)	48%	60% (129)
Percent white	93%	90%	92%
Percent retired	83%	82%	82%
Median income	$30,000	$50,000	N/A
College degree	33%	40%	35%
Percent volunteer (n)	27% (36)	73% (95)	61% (131)
Percent nonvolunteer (n)	100% (85)	--	39% (85)

A principal axis factor method with oblique rotation was used on the 20 Likert-type scale items of the modified VFI scale of five factor dimensions to develop the motivational dimensions for volunteers and non-volunteers. Initially, three factors with Eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1.0 were identified, and they explained 58.5 percent of the variance in the original data set. Since the modified scale contained five theoretical factor dimensions (the career motivational dimension was eliminated previously for lack of relevance to a senior sample), additional analysis was conducted specifying five and then four factor solutions. A cutoff point of 0.4 for the factor loadings (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999) was used in the factor analysis to include items in subsequent interpretation of identified factors. With the five factor solution, the items clustered according to theoretical expectations except the enhancement factor items were relatively weak (i.e., two of the four have factor loadings below .40). A review of the "scree test" of the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix were computed and plotted (Cattell, 1966) which seemed to suggest a four factor solution. With the final four factor solution the three understanding and four enhancement scale items combined to create a single robust scale with all factor loadings above .40. The items in the values and social factors loaded according to expectations for these distinct factor loadings. All items except one in the protective factor dimension loaded appropriately. That one item which stated "volunteering helps me feel better" was dropped from the analysis because of a factor loading below .40. In addition, an eigenvalue of .92 for the fourth factor and the accompanying scree test suggested a final four factor solution. Table 2 displays the dimensions, item descriptions, four factor loadings (social, values, enhancement, protective), and item means for the

sample of senior non-volunteers. The alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .844 to .894 for the four motivational factors which is consistent with Clary et al. (1998) results.

The four factor solution for the senior volunteer sample produced results that loaded in similar fashion except for the initial factor loading of the understanding/enhancement motivation factor in place of the social motivation factor for the non-volunteer sample. The factor loadings for values and protective motivations loaded in the second and fourth position, respectively. This particular factor analysis of the senior volunteers with its slight variations was not included, but can be obtained from the authors.

Analysis was conducted to determine if volunteers differed from non-volunteers across the four motivational factor dimensions (see Table 3). Results from this analysis support the hypothesis that motivations to volunteer appear to differ from those that are actively volunteering and those that do not. Non-volunteers' responses indicated that enhancement/understanding and protective motivational factor dimension items were different than the volunteering sample. The analysis did not support the contention that the motivational dimensions of value and social differed from senior volunteers and non-volunteers. This suggests that values and social motivations are expressed by both volunteers and non-volunteers. This result was somewhat confirmed in a study of traditional college-age, students volunteer project (Papadakis, Griffin, & Frater, 2004). The difference between volunteers and non-volunteers was found for the enhancement/understanding motivation in this younger college age sample which confirms the findings in this study of seniors. The lack of support for the protective motivation to volunteer might be due to the college-age demographics of this sample of respondents.

Table 2
Results of Factor Analysis of Nonvolunteers

Dimension	Item Description	Factor Loading (N=85)				Communality	Item Mean
		1	2	3	4		
Social	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	.851				.845	4.11
	My friends volunteer.	.847				.823	
	People I know share an interest in community service.	.658				.671	
	By volunteering I feel less lonely.	.651				.673	
	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	.621				.625	
	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	.605				.792	
Values	I feel compassion toward people in need.		.848			.721	5.02
	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.		.748			.802	
	I feel it is important to help others.		.735			.847	
	I am concerned about the group I am serving.		.664			.790	
Enhancement	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.			.822		.842	4.75
	Volunteering helps me feel better.			.641		.755	
	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.			.608		.596	
	Volunteering increases my self-esteem.			.605		.708	
Protective	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands-on experience.	.558				.879	4.09
	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.789				.857	
	Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	.751				.811	
	Eigenvalue	4.42	3.93	3.36	2.46		
	Variance Explained	22.07	19.65	17.05	12.30 **		
	Reliability Coefficient	0.87	0.89	0.88	0.84		

*mean scores on a seven-point scale ranging from (1) not at all important to (7) extremely important.
**total variance explained = 71.07

Table 3
Comparison of Volunteers and Nonvolunteers

Motivations	t	df	Volunteers N=131		Nonvolunteers N=85	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Values	0.18	210	5.00	0.97	5.11	0.78
Social	-1.14	214	4.0	1.18	4.12	1.16
Enhancement/ Understanding	2.09*	213	4.64	1.01	4.93	0.94
Protective	2.62**	206	3.63	1.34	4.14	1.42

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

Discussion and Implications

The results of this study supported the use of the multifactor functional approach with seniors that volunteer in human service organizations. The anticipated five factor solution was not robust in this sample, although the scale did reveal some structural integrity when a five factor solution was analyzed, but the factor loadings were not sufficient. A four factor solution, which combined the understanding and enhancement dimensions, was used in the analysis. The understanding and enhancement dimensions are conceptually very similar (i.e., learning and growing) and suggest a desire for volunteer experiences that enrich the volunteer by providing opportunities to learn new things and to grow psychologically. This motivation to continue the life-long learning process was found to be still a significant factor for individuals in their non-work/retired period of their lives (Henderson, 1983).

The altruistic motivational dimension defined as concern for others (*values*) appeared to be salient reason for both volunteers and non-volunteers to become involved. This is supported by research for the population at-large (Clary et al., 1998),

and in the case of senior volunteers (Okun & Schultz, 2003; Stergios & Carruthers, 2003) and more specifically with older Red Cross volunteers (Gillespie & King, 1985). In addition, the social motive was also found to be a solid predictor of senior volunteers and non-volunteers based on the motivation to increase social interactions, interpersonal relationships, and friendships which supports the work of McClelland (1972; 1988). This suggests that messages to recruit and retain volunteers should communicate clearly how volunteer opportunities create climates that provide volunteers the chance to help others and build positive interpersonal relationships with peers (Henderson, 1983; Vineyard, 1991).

The two motivational dimensions for the non-volunteer seniors produced different results which were related to egotistical motivations. In other words, non-volunteers were much more likely to express a desire to volunteer so they could grow and learn (enhancement and understanding) as well as for protective motivations that suggest a desire to volunteer as a mechanism to feel better about one-self. For instance, one of the questions stated "volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles." These

individuals recognized the altruistic motives of helping others, but also perceived volunteering as a way to help themselves.

These findings suggest that the multi-factor functional analysis (VFI scale) can be a valuable tool for understanding the motivational processes of volunteerism and planned helping. To the extent that relevant motivations can be accurately identified, promotion of the service of volunteers can be adapted accordingly to maximize persuasion (Clary et al., 1998; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994), match the volunteer with the appropriate tasks and responsibilities (Rubin & Thorelli, 1984), enhance longevity of volunteer service (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Stallings, 1996), match rewards and recognition to volunteer needs (Vineyard, 1989), and improve recruitment and retention of senior volunteers in a variety of program areas (Okun & Schultz, 2003; Stergios & Carruthers, 2003). This strategy, along with other research on functionalism in general, reflects a re-emergence of interest in motivation as a personality and social psychology construct; one that has practical significance in addressing certain problems of inaction.

According to McClelland's theory (1972; 1988), the dominant motivational forces (affiliation, achievement or authority/power) impacting volunteer behavior, expectancies and meaningful incentives to the individual will have a significant influence on the most appropriate volunteer opportunity. If these behavioral factors are taken into account in developing, recruiting, and assigning volunteers, both the organization and the volunteer will benefit. Volunteers primarily motivated by achievement have a desire for excellence and take pride in their outcomes. These individuals are goal oriented and effective at tackling problems facing many nonprofit organizations. An affiliation motive influences a person to be most concerned about relationships with others, other people's feelings, and how they can be of help. A person for whom the power motive is dominant is characterized by needs for prestige and status and positions of influence. A simple question-naire used in the volunteer application process has been able to identify individual's hierarchy of motives which might facilitate the optimum placement of volunteers within an organization (Watts & Edwards, 1983).

The complexity of the social psychological influences on volunteer behavior substantiates the dynamic view of the continuum of overlapping and evolving forces. Backman et al. (1997) proposed a continuum of volunteer motives between altruistic and egotistical functions. They further developed the egotistical side of the continuum by suggesting that these individuals volunteer so that they (or family members) benefit directly from programs and services. Silverberg, Backman and Backman (2000) found users and partici-pants of parks and recreation services and programs that receive direct benefits (co-production) were more likely to volunteer, and suggested more research is needed on the relationship of egotistical motives and co-production. Ultimately, the researchers (Silverberg et al., 2000) suggest that those with the most intense connection to the organization feel most willing to contribute their time and services and that might be based on the satisfaction of the psychological need for achievement, influence over others and social affiliation (McClelland, 1988).

In summary, the multifactor functional approach to understanding the senior volunteer is further substantiated. However, the findings of this study are limited to those seniors that participated in two sites that were included in the study. Despite the

limitations, managers of volunteers who understand the social psychological motives sought by seniors will be better equipped to provide experiences that satisfy the altruistic and egotistical functions of current volunteers and those that have the potential to volunteer. This will result in recruitment and retention strategies that are effective in meeting the needs of the organization and the seniors who are willing to volunteer to support and benefit future generations.

References

Backman, K. F., Wicks, B., & Silverberg, K.E. (1997). Co-production of recreation services. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, *15*, 58-75.

Bigley, J. D., Fesenmaier, D.R., & Roehl, W. (1994). An approach to identifying motivations for membership in leisure service delivery service organizations. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 12*, 1-18.

Brudney, J. L. (1993). Volunteer involvement in the delivery of public services: Advantages and disadvantages. *Public Productivity & Management Review*, *3*, Spring, 283-297.

Caldwell, L.L., & Andereck, K.L. (1994). Motives for initiating and continuing membership in a recreation-related voluntary association. *Leisure Sciences*, *16*, 33-44.

Cattell, R.B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 1*, 245-276.

Chambre, S. M. (1993). Volunteerism by elders: past trends and future prospects. *The Gerontologist*, *33*(2), 221-228.

Choi, L. (2003). Factors affecting volunteerism among older adults. *The Journal of Applied Gerontology*, *22*(2), 179-196.

Clary, E. G*., & Snyder, M. (1991). A functional analysis of altruism and pro-social behavior: The case of volunteerism. In M. Clark (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology: Vol. 12. Pro-social behavior* (pp. 119-148). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Clary, E. G*., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, L., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1516-1530.

Clary, E. G*., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Miene, P. K., & Haugen, J. A. (1994). Matching messages to motives in persuasion: A functional approach to promoting volunteerism. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24*, 1129-1149.

Cnaan, R.A., & Goldberg-Glen, R.S. (1991). Measuring motivation to volunteer in human services. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences*, *27*, 269-284.

DeBono, K. G. (1987). Investigating the social-adjustive and value-expressive functions of attitudes: Implications for persuasion processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 279-287.

Ekerdt, D. J. (1986). The busy ethic: Moral continuity between work and retirement. *The Gerontologist, 26*(3), 239-244.

Fabrigar, L.R., Wegener, D.T., MacCallum, R.C., & Strahan, E.J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods, 4*(3), 272-299.

Farrell, J.M., Johnston, M.E., & Twynam, G.D. (1998). Volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and management at an elite sporting competition. *Journal of Sport Management, 12*, 288-300.

Fischer, L. R., Mueller, D. P., & Cooper, P.W. (1991). Older volunteers: A discussion of the Minnesota senior study. *The Gerontologist*, *31*, 183-194.

Fischer, L. R., & Schaffer, K. B. (1993). *Older volunteers: A guide to research and practice.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Fitch, R.T. (1987). Characteristics and motivations of college students volunteering for community service. *Journal of College Student Personnel,* September, 424-431.

Gillespie, D.F., & King, A.E. (1985). Demographic understanding of volunteerism. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare, 12*, 798-816.

Harrison, D.A. (1995). Volunteer motivation and attendance decisions: Competitive theory testing in multiple samples from a homeless shelter. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *80*, 371-385.

Henderson, K. (1983). Volunteerism as leisure. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 12*(3), 55-63.

Herzog, A. R., & House, J. S. (1991). Productive activities and aging well. *Generations*, *15,* 49-54.

Herzog, A. R., & Morgan, J. N. (1993). Formal volunteer work among older Americans. In S. A. Bass, F. G. Caro, & Y. Chen (Eds.), *Achieving a productive aging society* (pp. 119-142). Westport, CT: Auburn House.

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

McClelland, D.C. (1972). The use of measures of human motivation in the study of society, In W.K. Graham & K. H. Roberts (Eds.), *Comparative studies in organizational behavior* (pp. 343-365). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

McClelland, D.C. (1988). *Human motivation*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.A., & Lowell, E.L. (1953). *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton.

Morgan, J. N. (1986). Unpaid productive activity over the life course. In Committee on Aging Society (Ed.), *Productive roles in an older society* (pp.73-109). Washington, D. C.: National Academy Press.

Okun, M. A., Barr, A., & Herzog, R. A. (1998). Motivation to volunteer by older adults: A test of competing measurement models. *Psychology and Aging*, *13*, 608-621.

Okun, M. A., & Schultz, A. (2003). Age and motives for volunteering testing hypotheses derived from socio-emotional selectivity theory. *Psychology and Aging*, *18*, 231-239.

Omoto, A.M., & Snyder, M. (1995). Sustained helping without obligation: Motivation, longevity of service, and perceived attitude change among AIDS volunteers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*, 671-686.

Papadakis, K., Griffin, T., & Frater, J. (2004). Understanding volunteers' motivations. In K. Bricker (Ed.) *Proceedings of the 2004 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium*, Gen. Tech. Rep. NE-326. (pp. 321-326). Newton Square, PA: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northeastern Research Station.

Penner, L. A., & Finkelstein, M. A. (1998). Dispositional and structural determinants of volunteerism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 525-537.

Points of Light Foundation. (2004). 50+ Volunteering: Working for stronger communities. Washington D.C.: Points of Light Foundation.

Rubins, A. & Thorelli, I.M. (1984). Egoistic motives and longevity of participation by social service volunteers. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 20*(3), 223-235.

Silverberg, K. E., Backman, S., & Backman, K. (2000). Understanding parks and recreation volunteers: A functionalist perspective. *Society and Leisure/Loisir et Societe*, *23*, 453-475.

Silverberg, K. E., Ellis, G. D., & Whitworth, P. (2002). An "effects-indicator" model of volunteer satisfaction: A functionalist theory approach. *Leisure/Loisir*, *27*(3-4), 283-304.

Smith, M. B., Bruner, J. S., & White, R. W. (1956). *Opinions and personality.* New York: John Wiley.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-Monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *30*, 526-537.

Snyder, M. & Cantor, N. (1998). Understanding personality and social behavior: A functionalist strategy. In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology,* Vol. 1 (4th ed., pp. 635-697). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Snyder, M., & DeBono, K. G. (1989). Understanding the functions of attitudes: Lessons from personality and social behavior. In A. R. Pratkanis, S. J. Breckler, & A. G. Greenwald (Eds.), *Attitude, structure and function.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Stergios, C. A., & Carruthers, C. P. (2003). Motivations of elder volunteers to youth programs. Journal of the Canadian Association for Leisure Studies, *Leisure/Loisir*, *27*(2-4), 333-361.

Stevens, E. S. (1991). Toward satisfaction and retention of senior volunteers. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, *16*(3/4), 33-40.

Trudeau, K.J., & Devlin, A. S. (1996). College students and community service: Who, with whom, and why? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 26*, 1867-1888.

United States Department of Labor (2005). *Volunteering in 2005*. Current Population Survey, Washington, DC: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Vineyard, S. (1989) *Beyond banquets, plaques and pins: Creative ways to recognize volunteers*. Downers Grove, IL: Heritage Arts Publishing.

Vineyard, S. (1991). *Secrets of motivation: How to get and keep volunteers and paid staff*. Downers Grove, IL: Heritage Arts Publishing.

Watts, A.D. & Edwards, P.K. (1983). Recruiting and retaining human service volunteers: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 12*(3), 9-22.

Welker, M. J. (2001). Solving the organ shortage: Presumed consent, compensation, and a functional approach. *Journal of Psychological Inquiry, 6*(2), 93-98.

Wilson, M. (1976). *The effective management of volunteer programs*. Boulder, CO: Volunteer Management Associates.

Worthy, E. H., & Ventura-Merkel, C. (1982). *Older volunteers: A national survey.* Washington, D.C: The National Council on Aging.

Wymer, W. W. (2002). Differentiating literacy volunteers: A segmentation analysis for target marketing. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 8,* 267-285.

About the Authors

Carlton F. Yoshioka is the graduate coordinator and professor in the School of Community Resources and Development and the Director of Research and Academic Affairs of the Center for Nonprofit Leadership and Management at Arizona State University. His research is focused on volunteer managers and human resource practices of nonprofit agencies.

William Brown is an associate professor in the Bush School of Government and Public Service with a specialization in nonprofit management. His research covers volunteer administration, board governance, performance, practices, and competence.

Robert F. Ashcraft is the director of the Center of Nonprofit Leadership and Management and an associate professor in the School of Community Resources and Development. His research is concentrated in nonprofit education and organizational effectiveness, and volunteer administration.

A Review of *Nonprofit Risk Management & Contingency Planning – Done In A Day Strategies*

Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2006. Hardback. 193 pages. ISBN-13: 978-0-471-71749-2

Reviewed by Mary Kay Hood

Peggy Jackson provides excellent guidance for the non-profit looking to develop a risk management and business continuity plan. Her model of providing DIAD (Done In A Day) planning gives those who know nothing about risk management planning the opportunity to accomplish the task without being mired in the minutiae. The book is divided into three sections, the first addressing risk managment planning, the second discussing continuity planning, and the third discussing how risk management and contingency business planning adds value to any non profit.

In the first section, keenly aware of some mind-boggling myths relative to risk management, Jackson identifies and offers solutions to remove barriers hindering effective risk management. She identifies four components common to all organizations when considering risk management planning: 1) board members, 2) staff and volunteers, 3) operations and 4) relationships with the public. With these areas identified, Jackson suggests three primary steps surrounding effective risk management planning: 1) assessing the risk within the organization, 2) offering up and dealing with strategies relative to the identified risk, and 3) monitoring the activities surrounding the identified risk. Jackson further identifies four strategies for addressing risks: 1) Avoidance – just say "no" to the identified activity that might bring risk; 2) Retention – setting up funds to deal with identified risk when it happens, 3) Modification – changing of policies or processes to ensure that risk is minimized; and 4) Transfer – using the insurance or other entities to deal with risk

when it happens. According to Jackson, the organization knows that the risk management planning process has been accomplished when: everyone is "on the same page"; it is ongoing; the organization has partnered with external advisors (legal, insurance, etc.); and there is a holistic, hands-on and all-inclusive approach to risk management. The risk management template recognizes constraints of staff, time and dollars with an emphasis on prioritizing the risks once they are identified. Jackson offers up practical tools for selecting the strategy for dealing with risk by walking through what to think about. The DIAD template guides the reader through what work needs to be accomplished ahead of time recognizing that the success of the DIAD is dependent upon the pre-planning and prep work, complete with a timeline. The chapter with the template also outlines basic parameters for conducting the work to accomplishing this in a day. The template is detailed, with outlined sample agendas, and instructions for conducting the DIAD session with approximate time estimations to keep the process on track.

The second section of the book surrounds the unpleasant task of dealing the continuity business planning, something that most people don't want to think about. The three components for this process include: 1) the crisis incident management component ; 2) the business resumption component; and 3) the emergency fund raising component . With concrete examples of things that can interrupt normal business, one of the most important steps in dealing with a crisis should be a crisis communication plan.

Jackson provides pragmatic components of a plan by outlining the necessary parts to make the plan effective. This section also offers insight into which strategies to focus on to resume business operations should some disaster occur. With the business contingency plan, preparation work should consider keeping everyone safe, financing the resumption of business, consideration of the impact of neighboring businesses, the information technology infrastructure, family emergency preparedness, and vendors and supplies. Crisis incident management strategies addressed include: 1) crisis incident management leadership; 2) emergency situations; 3) crisis communications plans; 4) evacuation planning, 5) emergency fundraising; 6) determining the extent of the damage; and 6) non-profit expectation of staff and volunteers. Sensitive to the proprietary information required for maintaining a business plan, Jackson offers advice on who should have what information and the detail that information should include. She also challenges the reader to think about who and what is considered essential business functions, identifying key management functions, people and resources to accomplish the work of getting the business back up and running with a timeline and sequence. Once again, the DIAD template guides the reader through what work needs to be accomplished complete with a timeline.

The third and final section brings the reader full circle by discussing how to get everyone on the same page with appropriate training. This is where the return on the investment pays off. Should a situation happen, everyone knows what to do, how to react and get the non-profit back to day-to-day business. To accomplish this, Jackson suggests:

- Curriculum is designed in such a fashion to incorporate assessment techniques to ensure everyone understands the process. She offers up a sample training agenda for risk management as well as business contingency planning.
- There should be hands-on training exercises. Most often, the reader is aware of the fire drills that are most common but those hands-on training exercises should be more encompassing of other types of things that could interrupt normal business.
- Desktop exercises with examples to be used that could potentially happen during normal business hours, after business hours or at multiple locations. This allows for the planning to be throughout the organization considering all scenarios, at all levels.

The return on investment discussion also illustrates what's necessary to be in compliance with current legislation. By raising awareness and commitment to reducing potential loss and damage, the non-profit organization needs to consider worse case scenarios. Once they have been identified, then the organization plans proactively for them. Written in an easy to read fashion, this book helps any nonprofit accomplish those tasks with templates and guides for getting it done in a day!

Mary Kay Hood is the Director of Volunteer Services at Hendricks Regional Health. She is a national speaker on all aspects of volunteer management and author of "The One Minute Answer to Volunteer Management Questions." Mary Kay has a Master of Science degree and is currently president of the state healthcare DOVIA, Indiana Society of Director of Volunteer Services (ISDVS).

Volunteering: A Comparison of the Motivations of Collegiate Students Attending Different Types of Institutions

David J. Burns
Xavier University
Cincinnati, Ohio

Mark Toncar
Youngstown State University, Ohio

Jane Reid
Youngstown State University, Ohio

Cynthia Anderson
Youngstown State University, Ohio

Cassandra Wells, Ph.D.
Morehouse College
Department of Business Administration
830 Westview Dr., S.W.
Altanta, Georgia 30314
Phone: (404)681-2800

Jeffrey Fawcett
Cedarville University, Ohio

Kathleen Gruben
Georgia State University, Statesboro

Abstract
College-aged young adults spend significant amounts of time in voluntary activities and may represent an important pool of future volunteers. Consequently, understanding the motivations for volunteering, of students attending different types of colleges and universities, appears to be worthwhile. Do individuals attending different types of universities possess differing motivations to volunteer? The results suggest that students attending different types of universities differ in their motivations to volunteer. The primary differences involved students attending a public commuter university and an African-American liberal arts university. The results are discussed.

Key Words:
volunteers, motivations, college, students, university

Volunteerism represents a major source of labor in the United States (Dutta-Bergman, 2004). It involves a considerable number of activities and endeavors with the goal of improving communities and the lives of individuals (van Emmerik, Jawahar & Stone, 2004). Findings from the Current Population Survey, composed of 60,000 households, estimate, for instance, that between September 2001 and September 2002, more than one of every four individuals over the age of 16 in the United States engage in volunteer activities (Boraas, 2003). An activity pursued to such an extent appears to warrant research attention.

Volunteering affects more than merely the individuals who engage in it. Many valuable social programs rely on volunteers to succeed (Wilcox, Cameron, Ault & Agee, 2003). Many human-service agencies and nonprofit organizations providing these programs, however, are experiencing significant shortages of volunteers, often severely hampering their abilities to fulfill their missions (Edwards & Watts, 1983; Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Consequently, recruiting new volunteers is often a major, ongoing concern for many such organizations (Brudney & Brown, 1990), consuming a significant amount of an organization's time and resources.

When volunteers are examined, one can quickly observe that, as a demographic group, young adults spend significant time in volunteer activities. Furthermore, school enrollment seems to have a significant effect on the extent of volunteering activities among young adults. Young adults enrolled in school have been observed to volunteer at a rate twice that of those not enrolled in school (Boraas, 2003). Moreover, the increased involvement in volunteer activities by college students appears to continue after graduation (Oesterle, Johnson & Mortimer, 2004). In fact, recent college graduates have been observed to volunteer at a rate twice

that of high school graduates and four times that of high school dropouts (Boraas, 2003).

Universities and colleges in the United States tend to develop campus cultures that could influence how students feel about many topics and ideas, including the extent to which one should become involved in volunteering activities. Understanding the motivations of college students to engage in volunteering activities and identifying whether differences exist between students attending different types of colleges and universities would seem to be worthwhile. The purpose of this paper is to explore whether students at five different schools, each an exemplar of a different type of college or university, possess differing perceptions of volunteering. First, past research on volunteering is reviewed. Second, rationales for the existence of differing campus climates toward volunteering is developed. Third, hypotheses are presented. Finally, the hypotheses are tested.

Volunteerism

Each year, millions of people spend substantial amounts of time and energy voluntarily helping others (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene, 1998). Many organizations that depend on volunteers to deliver services, however, often find that they are unable to provide the services clients need or desire because of a lack of an adequate number of volunteers. The recruitment of volunteers, therefore, is an area of great importance to such agencies (Brudney & Brown, 1990). Indeed, Bussell and Forbes (2002) suggest that as competition for volunteers becomes increasingly intense, many organizations are increasingly turning to marketing techniques to recruit and retain volunteers.

To understand potential volunteers, an understanding of individuals' motivations to become involved in volunteering would

seem to be important. Indeed, Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) suggest that understanding the motivations of potential volunteers may help agencies identify and recruit potential volunteers. Consistent with this line of thought, Allison, Okun, and Dutridge (2002) and Oktin (1994) observed that an individual's motivation to volunteer is a good predictor of frequency of volunteering activities. Raman and Pashupati (2002) suggest that individuals' motivation to volunteer is a better predictor of future volunteering behavior than is present volunteering behavior since the extent of one's volunteering activity at any particular time is often cited by transient issues affecting the amount of time an individual has available for volunteering. Furthermore, volunteering is unquestionably a widely varied activity (Gaskin, 1999). Likewise, volunteers differ as much in the volunteer activity they perform (Cnaan, Handy & Wadsworth, 1996; Wymer, 1998) as in the motivations for becoming involved in volunteering.

Although many of the various definitions applied to volunteerism suggest that the volunteer must possess some form of altruistic motivation, Bussell and Forbes (2002) suggest that this is not necessarily true. They suggest several volunteering activities for which altruism is not a necessary motivation. Indeed, Clary and his associates (1998) identified six motives for volunteering: (a) developing and enhancing one's career, (b) enhancing and enriching personal development, (c) conforming to the norms of, or establish norms for, significant others, (d) escaping from negative feelings, (e) learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities, and (f) expressing values related to altruistic beliefs.

The literature suggests that the extent of one's volunteering activity is affected by age and by cohort. Members of Generation Y, for instance, are volunteering in their

communities more than any generation in American history (Wright, 2000). "Ninety-five percent indicate that spending time volunteering or helping people is very or somewhat important. Fifty percent actively participate in volunteer work in their communities" (Nucifora, 2001, p. 2). Consistent with these observations, volunteering among the young has increased by 12% over the last decade (Fegenbush, 2001). Similarly, Baldwin reported that members of Generation Y have "a strong sense of community, not just in smaller units, but a feeling of connectedness to a larger unit of society" (2002, p. 6).

As mentioned in the introduction, involvement of members of the younger generation (Generation Y) in volunteerism is profoundly affected by one's education. Young adults enrolled in school volunteer at a rate twice that of those not enrolled in school (Boraas, 2003), a trend that continues after graduation from college. Similarly, Davis-Smith (1999) observed a strong positive relationship between the level at which young people cease their education and the extent of their volunteering activities. Indeed, recent college graduates volunteer at twice the rate of high school graduates and four times that of high school dropouts (Boraas, 2003). Furthermore, religion and race have been suggested as factors affecting the motivation to volunteer.

Role of Religion

The role of religion in the motivation to volunteer has been long recognized (Benson, Dehority, Garman, Hanson, Hochschwender, Lebold, Rohr, & Sullivan, 1980). Greely (1997) and Wilson and Janoski (1995), for instance, contend that participation in church activities provides individuals with the tools and social networks that encourage volunteering in other areas. Similarly, Ammerman states,

Every club that plans a special event,

every society that needs officers, and every congregation that asks its members to teach classes and chair committees provides opportunities for the development and exercise of civic skills. And because congregations are the single most available opportunity for voluntary participa-tion, they are the single most egalitarian imparter of civic skills to society. By engaging in the practices of building up the fellowship, congregations also build up their communities. "Religious practices transcend religious insti-tutional lines (1997, p. 212).

Church members have long been regarded as being more likely to become involved in voluntary activities than non-members (e.g., Moberg, 1962). Empirical research supports this contention (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Parboteeah, Cullen & Lim, 2004; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Similarly, involvement in volunteerism is thought to vary across individuals belonging to different religious groups (Smith, 1994). Research on the relationship between religious identification and involvement in volunteering, however, has not produced consistent findings. Several studies (e.g., Lam, 2002; Peterson & Lee, 1976) observed that Protestants are more likely to participate in voluntary associations than are Catholics and those without religious affiliation. Thomson and Knoke (1980), however, observed that Catholics have a rate of participation higher than Protestants as did Wright and Hyman (1958). Hoge, Zech, McNamara and Donahue (1998) observed that although conservative Protestants reported the greatest amount of church-related volunteering, they tied for last with Catholics for the least amount of non-church related volunteering.

Role of Race

Relatively few studies have examined the relationship between volunteerism and race. The few studies that have, however, examined the participation rates of African-Americans observed that, when socioeconomic status is controlled for, African-Americans participate in volunteering activities at a rate higher than their white counterparts (Lucas, 1985; Williams & Ortega, 1986). Similarly, Latting (1990) observed that African-Americans are more apt to indicate altruistic motives for volunteering.

Research Hypotheses

H: Students attending differing types of universities possess differing motivations for engaging in volunteering activities. Specifically, students attending different types of universities differ in the relative strength of the following motivations to volunteer-

HI: Developing and enhancing one's career (career).

H2: Enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem).

H3: Conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social).

H4: Escaping from negative feelings (protective).

H5: Learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding).

H6: Expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value).

Methodology
Sample

Faculty members at five differing institutions were recruited to administer questionnaires, which included the Volunteer Functions Inventory Scale, to their students taking marketing courses. The universities were chosen to represent differing philosophical and religious

approaches to education. Specifically, they were chosen as exemplars of a public commuter institution, a public residential institution, a Jesuit Catholic institution, a conservative Protestant institution, and an African-American liberal arts institution. Students taking marketing courses were chosen to comprise the sample for two primary reasons. First, since business students are generally not encouraged to engage in volunteering as a part of their education, less likelihood exists of a social desirability bias in their responses. Furthermore, through their previous coursework or through discussions in their marketing courses on the environment and on consumer behavior, students taking marketing courses tend to possess an understanding of societal needs.

It is likely that the students attending each of the universities represent a different philosophical and religious subculture. Criteria for admission to the conservative Protestant university, for instance, include "evidence of a personal relationship with Jesus Christ and a consistent, Christian lifestyle." Once admitted to the institution, students are required to attend church services regularly, to attend daily chapel services, as well as abide by a far-reaching standards-of-conduct statement. The nature of these, requirements will serve to strongly dissuade individuals representing alternative subcultures from choosing this university for their collegiate education.

Similar admission requirements do not exist at the other universities; nevertheless, the students attending each university can be expected to vary. At the Jesuit Catholic university, for instance, students are required to take a significant number of theology courses as a part of the institution's general education requirements. As a result, the vast majority of students at the institution are Catholic.

The resulting sample sizes comprised

124 from the public commuter institution, 95 from the public residential institution, 73 from the Jesuit Catholic institution, 104 from the conservative Protestant institution, and 86 from the African-American liberal arts institution (for a total sample of 482). Since the instruments were distributed in classroom settings, virtually no nonresponse was noted.

Measurement of **Motivation to Volunteer**

Various measures have been developed to examine individuals' motivation to volunteer. When they examined the available measures, Okun, Barr, and Herzog (1998) observed that only the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary, et al., 1998) fits the data on volunteering, suggesting that it is the preferred measure for understanding and measuring motivations to volunteer. The VFI measures six motives for volunteering: (a) developing and enhancing ones career (career); (b) enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem); (C) conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social); (d) escaping from negative feelings (protective); (e) learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding); and (f) expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value) (Allison, Okun & Dutridge, 2002).

When examining the validity of the VFI scale, Clary, et al. (I 99 8) and Allison, Okun, and Dutridge (2002) observed that the VFI scale appears to be a valid instrument. The scale appears to be reliable: coefficient alphas are typically above .80 (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992) with test-retest correlations of .64 to .78 (Clary, et al., 1998). The scale also appears to possess construct and criterion validity (Allison, Okun, & Dutridge, Clary, et al., 1998). Allison, Dutrid (2002) observed that responses to the VFI scale are strongly correlated with volunteering activity. The

score for each motivation represents the relative importance of that motivation to the individual. Similarly, the highest score reflects the motivation with the greatest importance to the respondent (Clary, 5nyder, & Ridge, 1992).

Analysis

MANOVA was conducted to test the overall Hypothesis. One way ANOVAs were conducted was to test each secondary hypothesis reflecting each of the factors of the VFI scale. Finally, paired results are compared via t-tests for each ANOVA for which significant results were observed.

Results

The mean scores for students attending each university, and for each motivation to volunteer are displayed in Table 1. Results of the MANOVA to test the Hypothesis were observed to be significant at the .05 level (F 3.912, significance = .000). The overall hypothesis, that students attending different types of universities differ in their motivation to volunteer, is supported. The results of the one-way ANOVAs are displayed in Table 2.

Table 1
Mean Volunteering Scores

Motivation to Volunteer	PC	PR	JC	CP	AA
Developing and enhancing one's career (career)	24.37	25.40	23.40	23.43	25.19
Enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem)	22.05	23.76	21.39	20.42	23.48
Confirming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social)	16.03	19.18	19.22	20.06	22.26
Escaping from negative feelings (protective)	16.19	18.57	16.54	17.17	21.00
Learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding)	24.05	26.08	26.21	26.32	26.90
Expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value)	27.12	28.19	27.69	27.84	29.73

University Category Key
PC – public commuter university   PR – public residential university
JC – Jesuit Catholic university   CP – conservative Protestant university
AA – African-American liberal arts university

Table 2
ANOVA Results

Motivation to Volunteer	F-Value	Significance
Developing and enhancing one's career (career)	1.799	.128
Enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem)	2.780	.026*
Conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social)	10.196	.000*
Escaping from negative feelings (protective)	4.873	.001*
Learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding)	3.678	.006*
Expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value)	3.875	.004*

* = p < .05

Table 3
Post Hoc Tests

University	Compared With	Esteem	Social	Protective	Understanding	Value
PC	PR	-1.65	**-2.88**	**-2.38**	**-1.96**	-1.02
		.101	**.002***	**.020***	**.019***	.123
	JC	65	**-3.22**	-.52	**-2.16**	-.61
		.545	**.002***	.637	**.016***	.391
	CP	1.43	**-4.16**	-1.15	**-2.60**	-.91
		.147	**.000***	.249	**.001***	.161
	AA	-1.26	**-5.93**	**-4.40**	**-2.67**	**-2.72**
		.237	**.000***	**.000***	**.002***	**.000***
PR	JC	**2.31**	-.34	1.86	-.20	.41
		.046*	.752	.112	.834	.588
	CP	**3.08**	-1.28	1.23	-.64	.699
		.004*	.198	.254	.464	.871
	AA	39	**-3.05**	-2.02	-.71	**-1.70**
		.729	**.004***	.080	.451	**.024***
JC	CP	.77	-.94	-.63	-.44	-.30
		.496	.376	.582	.637	.690
	AA	-1.91	**-2.71**	**-3.88**	-.51	**-2.11**
		.113	**.017***	**.002***	.609	**.008***
CP	AA	**-2.68**	-1.77	**-3.25**	-.07	**1.81**
		.016*	.092	**.004***	.942	**.014***

University Category Key	Motivation Key
PC – public commuter university	*Esteem – Enhancing and enriching personal development*
PR – public residential university	*Social – Conforming to the norms of, or establishing*
JC – Jesuit Catholic university	*norms for, significant others*
CP – conservative Protestant university	*Protective – Escaping from negative feelings*
AA – African-American liberal arts university	*Understanding – Learning new skills and practicing*
	underutilized abilities
	Value – Expressing values related to altruistic beliefs

* = p < .05

Significant (at the .05 level) differences were observed for five of the six motivations to volunteer. The only motivation for which a significant difference was not observed was developing and enhancing one's career (career). Support, therefore, was observed for Hypotheses 2 through 6, but not for Hypothesis 1.

Post hoc tests were performed for the five motivations to volunteer for which significant results were observed, to better understand the nature of the differences. The results are displayed in Table 3.

For enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem), students attending the public residential university expressed significantly stronger motivations than students attending the Jesuit Catholic and the conservative Protestant universities. In addition, students attending the conservative Protestant university expressed significantly

weaker motivations than students attending the African-American liberal arts university.

For conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social), students attending the public commuter university expressed significantly weaker motivations than students attending any of the other universities. Furthermore, students attending the African-American liberal arts university expressed significantly stronger motivations than students attending the public residential university and the Jesuit Catholic university.

For escaping from negative feelings (protective), students attending the African-American liberal arts university expressed significantly stronger motivations than students attending the Jesuit Catholic, conservative Protestant, and public commuter universities. Moreover, students attending the public residential university expressed significantly stronger motivations than students attending the public commuter university.

For learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding), students attending the public commuter university expressed significantly weaker motivations than students attending any of the other universities.

Finally, for expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value), students attending the African-American liberal arts university expressed stronger attending any of the other

Discussion

Since individuals who have attended or are attending college appear to be much more likely to engage in volunteering activities, college students seem to be a group which should not be overlooked when attempting to recruit volunteers. In support of the general hypothesis, however, students attending different types of universities appear to possess differing motivations to volunteer. Closer analysis indicates that the

differences originate in five of the six motivations to volunteer. The results appear to indicate that it may be beneficial for human service agencies and nonprofit organizations to adapt their recruiting techniques to the collegiate background of the potential volunteers. When students attending the different universities (exemplars of a public commuter institution, a public residential institution, a Jesuit Catholic institution, a conservative Protestant institution, and an African-American liberal arts institution) were examined, the primary differences observed involved students attending the public commuter university and those attending the African-American liberal arts university. In the post hoc tests, students from these two institutions accounted for 19 of the 21 instances for which significant differences were noted. Closer examination of these results appears warranted.

Students attending the public commuter university were found to be consistently less motivated to engage in volunteer activities than were students attending the other types of universities. The differences were most pronounced for the social (conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others) and understanding (learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities) motivations. For each of these types of motivations, students attending the public com- muter university expressed significantly less motivation than students attending any of the other universities. It appears that public com- muter universities may be less likely to develop environments that foster desire among their students to engage in voluntary activities and/or are less likely to attract students who are motivated to volunteer.

Surprisingly few differences were observed to exist between students attending the public residential, the Jesuit Catholic, and the conservative Protestant universities. The only differences observed were that

students attending the Jesuit Catholic and conservative Protestant universities expressed lower esteem (enhancing and enriching personal. development) motivitions than those attending the public residential university.

Finally, students attending the African-American liberal arts university consistently expressed stronger motivations to engage in voluntary activities than students attending the other universities. The differences were especially notable for social (conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, sig- nificant others), protective (escaping from negative feelings), and value (expressin values related to altruistic beliefs) motivations- This finding is consistent with past research suggesting that race is a factor in one's propensity to volunteer. Furthermore, the finding that students attending the African-American liberal arts university expressed higher value (altruistic) motivations than students attending any of the other universities is also consistent with past research that suggests that African-Americans are more likely to pursue voluntary activities for altruistic motivations than individuals of other races. The se findings suggest that students attending or who have attended African-American liberal arts universities may be especially likely to engage in voluntary activities and may represent an especially fruitfld source of volunteers.

Implications

If corroborated by future research, the findings indicate that nonprofit organizations and human-service agencies recruiting volunteers from among college students may need to alter the recruitment appeals based on the type of university that the students are attending.

The strongest motivation to volunteer was the same across students attending all five institutions - expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value). The motivation, however, was observed to be significantly stronger for students attending the African-American liberal arts university. Appeals to the altruistic nature of volunteering appear to likely be a successful means to attract students from all universities to volunteer.

Learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding) also appears to be an important motivation to volunteer for all students, but the motivation was observed to be significantly weaker for those attending the public commuter university. Therefore, appeals to the learning aspects of volunteering appear likely to be successful, but their success will likely be less for those students attending a public commuter university.

No significant difference was observed between schools on the motivation of developing and enhancing one's career (career). Since the motivation was observed to be moderately strong for students attending each of the institutions, it may be used equally as an appeal to students attending each of the schools.

The results observed for the motivations of conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social) and escaping from negative feelings (protective) were somewhat similar. In each instance, students attending the public commuter university expressed the weakest motivation and students attending the African-American liberal arts university expressed the strongest motivation. Appeals to these two motivitions, therefore, can be expected to be more successful when directed toward students attending an African-American liberal arts university, but not when directed toward students attending a public commuter university. Although generally significantly stronger than those held by students attending the public commuter university, the strengths of these two motivations to volun-

teer (social and protective) were observed to be relatively weak for students attending the other institutions.

Finally, the enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem) motivation is strongest for students attending the public residential and African-American liberal arts universities and weakest for students attending the Jesuit Catholic and conservative Protestant universities. This finding suggests that appeals to esteem would likely work best for students attending non-religious-based universities.

Limitations

Although the findings of this effort are encouraging, a number of limitations exist. First, the exploratory nature of this study limits the drawing of any firm conclusions. Second, the limited nature of the sample restricts the generalizability of the results to other populations. The universities chosen represent exemplars of differing types of universities.

References

Allison, L.D., Okun, M.A., & Dutridge, K.S. (2002). Assessing volunteer motives: A comparison of open-ended probe and likert rating scales. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 12*(4). 243- 255.

Ammerman, N.T (1997). Organized religion in voluntaristic society. *Sociology of religion, 58*(3*).* 203-215.

Baldwin, R.C. (2002, November 14). *Mandatory voluntarism?* Retrieved May 16, 2005, from http://www.rediandsfortnightly.org/baldwin02.htm

Becker, R., & Dhingra, P.H. (2001). Religious involvement and volunteering:

Implications for civil society. *Sociology of Religion, 62(3).* 315-335.

Benson, E.L., Dehority, J., Garman, L., Hanson, E., Hochschwender, M., Lebold, C., Rohr, R., & Sullivan, J. (1980). Intrapersonal correlates of nonspontaneous helping behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology, 110*(l). 87-95.

Boraas, S. (2003). Volunteering in the United States. *Monthly Labor Review, 126*(8), 3-11.

Brudney, J.L., & Brown, M.M. (1990). Training in volunteer administration: Assessing the needs of the field. *Journal of Volunteer Administration, 9*(l). 21-28.

Bussell, H., & Forbes, D. (2002). Understanding the volunteer market: The what, where, who and why of volunteering. *International Journal of Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7*(3*).* 244-257.

Clary, E.G., Snyder, M., & Ridge, R. (1992). Volunteers' motivations: A functional strategy for the recruitment, placement, and retention of volunteers. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 2*(4). 333-350.

Clary, E.G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R.D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A.A., Haugen, & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology, 74*(6). 1516-1530.

Cnaan, R.A., Handy, F., & Wadsworth, M. (1996). Defining who is a volunteer: Conceptual and empirical considerations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 25*(3). 364-383.

Davis-Smith, J. (1999). Poor marketing or the decline of altruism? Young people and volunteering in the United Kingdom. *International journal of Nonprofit and Vol untary Sector Marketing, 4*(4). 372-377.

Dutta-Bergman, M.J. (2004). Describing volunteerism: The theory of unified responsibility. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 16*(4). *353-369.*

Edwards, P.K., & Watts, A.D. (1983). Volunteerism and human service organizations. *Journal of Applied Social Sciences, 7.* 225-245.

Fegenbush, K. (2001). Generation X and Y: New missionaries step forward. Retrieved October 11, 2005 from http://www.larn-org/view.html?id=101.

Fisher, R.J., &, Ackerman, D. (1998). The effects of recognition and group need on volunteerism: A social norm perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research, 25*(3). 262- 275.

Gaskin, K. (1999). Valuing volunteers in Europe: A comparative study of the volunteer investment and value audit. *Voluntary Action, 2*(2). 33-49.

Greeley, A. (1997). The other America: Religion and social capital. *American Prospect, 12.* 68-73.

Hoge, D.R., Zech, C., McNamara, P., & Donahue, M.J. (1998). The value of volunteers as resources for congregations. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, *47*(3). 470-480.

Lam, P.Y. (2002). As the flocks gather: How religion affects voluntary

association participation. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 41*(3). 405-422.

Latting, J.K. (1990). Motivational differences between black and white volunteers. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 19*(2). 121-135.

Lucus, J.S. (1985). The social participation of blacks: A proposed synthesis of two competing theories. *Sociological Inquiry, 55*(l). 97-108.

Moberg, D.O. (1962). *The church as a social institution: The sociologv of american reli*gion. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Nucifora, A. (2001, November 26), Marketers, ad firms' survey shows that gen Y no gen X, *Alaska Journal of Commerce.* Retrieved May 16, 2005, from http://www.alaskajournal.com/stories/ 112601 /vie_geny_nogenx.shtnil

Oesterle, S., Johnson, M.K., & Mortimer, K.T. (2004), Volunteerism during the transition to adulthood: A life course. *Social Forces, 82*(3). 1123-1149.

Okun, M.A. (1994). Relation between motives for organizational volunteering and frequency of volunteering by elders. *Journal of Applied Gerontology, 13*(2). 115-126.

Okun, M.A., Barr, A., & Herzog, A.R. (1998). Motivation to volunteer by older adults: A test of competing measurement models. *Psychology and Aging, 13*(4). 608-621.

Parboteeah, K.P., Cullen, J.B., & Lim, L. (2004). Formal volunteering: A cross-

national test. *Journal of World Business, 39*(4). 431-441.

Peterson, J.C., & Lee, G.R. (1976). Religious affiliation and social participation: Differences between Lutherans and Catholics. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 5*(2). 82-94.

Ramon, P., & Pashupati, K. (2002). Turning good citizens into even better ones: The impact of program characteristics and motivations on service learning outcomes. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 10*(2), 187-206.

Smith, D.H. (1994). Determinants of voluntary association participation and volunteering: A literature review. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 23*(3). 243-263.

Thomson, R., & Knoke, D. (1980). Voluntary associations and voting turnout of American ethnoreligious groups. *Ethnicity,* 7(l). 56-69.

 van Emmerik, I.H., Jawaht, I.M., & Stone, T. H. (2004). The relationship between personality and discretionary helping behaviors. *Psychological Reports, 95*(l). 355-365.

Wilcox, D.L., Cameron, G.T., Ault, P.H., & Agee, WK. (2003). *Public relations:*
.

Strategies and tactics. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Williams, J.A., & Ortega, S.T. (1986). The multidimensionality of joining. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research,* 15(4). 35-46.

Wilson, J., & Janoski, T. (1995). The contribution of religion to volunteer work. *Sociology of Religion, 56*(2). 137-152.

Wilson, J., & Musick, M. (1997). Who cares? Toward an integrated theory of volunteer work. *American Sociolgical Review,* 62(5). 694-713.

Wright, C.R., & Hyman, H.H. (1958). Voluntary association memberships of American adults: Evidence from national sample surveys. American Soci*ological Review, 23*(3). 284-294.

Wright, H. K. (2000). Top 10 reasons gen Y rules. Retrieved October 11, 2005 from http://www.youthnoise.com/page.php?page-id=367.

Wymer, W.W. (1998). Youth development volunteers: Their motives, how they differ from other volunteers and correlates of involvement intensity. *Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 3*(4). 31-336.

About the Authors

David Burns (DBA, Kent State University), Associate Professor of Marketing at Xavier University, has published in excess of fifty journal articles on retailing, ethics, and consumer behavior subjects. He has coauthored several books and has authored several video segments.

Mark Toncar (*PhD*, Kent State University) is Associate Professor of Marketing at Youngstown State University. His research has appeared in the *Journal of Advertising*, the *International*

Journal of Advertising, the *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, the *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, and the *Journal of Marketing Education*.

Jane S. Reid (*PhD*, University of Pittsburgh) is Professor of Marketing and Campus Director of the Center for Nonprofit Leadership at Youngstown State University. Her research and interests focus on the marketing of nonprofit organizations. Her research appears in the *Journal of Shopping Center Research*, the *Marketing Management Journal*, and the *Journal of Contemporary Business Issues*.

Cynthia E. Anderson (*EdD*, University of Akron) is Vice President for Student Affairs at Youngstown State University and a member of the Department of Marketing. Past research focused on recruitment of students in higher education, issues pertaining to retailing and shopping center management, and the marketing of nonprofit organizations.

Cassandra D. Wells (*PhD*, Georgia Institute of Technology) is Assistant Professor of Marketing at Morehouse College. Research areas include consumer debt, student attitudes towards debt, and disparity in retail markets. Teaching areas include marketing principles, consumer behavior and marketing research. She spent 13 years in marketing with IBM.

Jeffrey Fawcett (*DBA*, Cleveland State University) is Associate Professor of Marketing at Cedarville University. His teaching and research interests revolve around the marketing of services and nonprofit organizations. He serves as coordinator of the Integrated Business Core experience where junior students create and run their own companies.

Kathleen Gruben (*PhD*, University of North Texas) is Assistant Professor of Marketing at Georgia Southern University. Her research has appeared in the *Journal of Managerial Issues* and *Journal of Transportation Management*. Her research interests are in the areas of retailing, advertising, and relationship marketing.

Maximizing Elder Volunteerism and Service: Access, Incentives, and Facilitation

Madhura Nagchoudhuri
Center for Social Development
Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri

Amanda Moore McBride, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Social Work, Center for Social Development
Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri
Campus Box 1196
St. Louis, MO, 63130
Tel. 314-935-9778, FAX 314-935-8511
E-mail: ammcbride@wustl.edu

Prema Thirupathy
Center for Social Development
Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri

Nancy Morrow-Howell
Instructor of Social Work, Center for Social Development
Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri
Campus Box 1196
St. Louis, MO, 63130
Tel. 314-935-6762, FAX 314-935-8511
E-mail: morrow-howell@wustl.edu

Fengyan Tang
Center for Social Development
Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri

Abstract

With an increase in the number of adults who are living longer healthier lives, volunteer administrators having a growing pool of potential volunteers. What strategies effectively recruit and retain older volunteers? In focus groups with 43 older volunteers, their perceptions of institutional access, information, incentives, and facilitation are assessed. Findings suggest that older adults may access volunteer opportunities through direct agency contact or social networks, more so than formal ads. They report that interest in the organization's cause and meaningful task assignments serve as incentives for volunteering. Flexibility in task assignment, verbal appreciation, and transportation facilitate role performance. These findings suggest that informal strategies and respect for older adults' expertise and current capabilities are important in recruitment and retention of older volunteers.

Key Words: older, seniors, volunteers, recruitment, retention, incentives

Volunteering or service among older adults is associated with a range of positive outcomes including better health, greater life satisfaction, and extended longevity (Morrow-Howell, 2000; Musick, Herzog, & House, 1999; Oman, Thoresen, & McMahon, 1999; Van Willigen, 2000). Volunteering provides older adults with an opportunity for personal growth as well as a sense of purpose and productivity in later life (Morrow-Howell, Kinnevy, & Mann, 1999; Bundens & Bressler, 2002). Their actions are also associated with positive outcomes for those who are served (Wheeler, Gorey, & Greenblatt, 1988).

U.S. Census projections indicate that more than one third of Americans will be over the age of 50 by 2020 (Prisuta, 2004). They are expected to be better educated and have longer and healthier lives than previous generations (Gerteis, Winston, Stanton, Moses, Grodner Mendoza, & Roberts, 2004); hence productive, active engagement in later life is more likely. Their participation in volunteerism may be predicated on organizational efforts targeted specifically to the creation of volunteer opportunities and management practices for older adults (Kovacs & Black, 1999).

We apply an institutional perspective to the study of later-life volunteering (Hinterlong, McBride, Tang, & Danso, in press; Morrow-Howell, Hinterlong, Sherraden, Tang, Thirupathy & Nagchoudhuri, 2003). This perspective focuses on the link between institutional capacity to host volunteer roles and individual capacity. How can volunteer opportunities be made available such that older adults have access and incentives for participation, and information and facilitation for role performance? This article summarizes results of a two-phase project on institutional capacity for elder service.

The first phase included telephone interviews with 22 volunteer administrators of nonprofit organizations that host older volunteers (Morrow-Howell et al., 2003). Volunteer administrators report a range of strategies to recruit and retain older volunteers. The top recruitment strategies include word-of-mouth, other agency referrals, and targeted solicitations through letters or newspaper ads. In terms of role facilitation, a majority of administrators note a commitment to role accommodation and facilitation, e.g., variation in hours, supports for those with physical disabilities, and training. This research note reports on findings from the second phase of the project, which assessed older adults' percep-tions of volunteer roles and institutional efforts in recruitment and retention.

Methods

Four focus groups were conducted with a total of 43 older volunteers from 13 organizations in the metropolitan St. Louis area. The volunteer administrators, who participated in the first phase of the study, identified possible respondents who were 60 years of age or older with at least one year of volunteer experience. Focus group sessions ranged from 60 minutes to 90 minutes, consisting of seven to 14 people. The focus group sessions were audiotaped, transcribed, and coded separately by two coders. A hierarchical coding structure was developed with major codes reflecting the institutional perspective. The codes and quotes were analyzed for key themes. Divergent perspectives and relationships were noted, and the coding scheme was revised and condensed. Counts were developed for each theme, and applicable quotes were selected as examples.

Findings

The findings are categorized according to access and information regarding volunteer roles, incentives to begin and continue volunteering, and facilitation for role performance. Overall, findings suggest that

older volunteers may perceive informal strategies for recruitment and retention as more important than formal ones.

Access and Information

Access pertains to role requirements and a person's eligibility and ability to fill the role as well as how information about the role reaches potential volunteers. The likelihood of seeking volunteer opportunities is influenced by prior familiarity with the organization or the organization's cause (n=18). This familiarity developed from having been clients in the past or having relatives who were clients of the organization. As one respondent stated,

Many years ago an organization like NAMI [National Alliance for the Mentally Ill]in New Jersey came to my rescue when I desperately needed help. And about 10 years ago I was walking down the street and I saw the NAMI sign and I wandered in.

Another respondent reports,

I love kids, and I was a pediatric nurse before I retired at 55. So when I was looking for a place to volunteer, it led me right here to Cardinal Glennon [children's hospital].

Older adults often learned of volunteer roles through family members or friends (n=13) who were involved with the organization. To a lesser extent, respondents also gained access to volunteer roles through formal volunteer recruitment efforts such as advertisements (n=7).

Incentives

Incentives include the rewards or perceived benefits possible through the volunteer role. Respondents report personal motivations for seeking volunteer roles,

including interest in the cause (n=5) and volunteering overall (n=12). The underlying sentiment was that volunteering helped them ease into their later-life transitions. When asked about possible formal incentives such as training or stipends, respondents indicated that their decision to continue volunteering had more to do with personal satisfaction and quality of the volunteer experience. In addition, incentive to continue volunteering was influenced by the support received from the organization. Respondents (n=17) emphasized that responsiveness and inclusion in decision-making greatly affected their motivation to continue volunteering. One respondent stated that, "You get the satisfaction and motivation by helping others. But our organization is like a family… We are treated as volunteers and we are treated as part of a team."

Facilitation

Facilitation refers to supports or flexibility for role performance offered by the organization. Respondents focused on respect and inclusion in decision-making (n=17), verbal appreciation by staff and clients (n=16), and flexibility in task assignment and willingness to allow breaks (n=9). A few discussed the role and importance of training (n=7). Appreciation for respect and inclusion was expressed by this respondent: "They're willing, if I come up with an idea, requiring purchase of something…I've gotten nothing but a positive response, like, "Let's go with it… or let's do this, it's a good idea.'" In regard to flexibility, one respondent stated that, "If someone is not able to do the [hospice] care-giving as homes, there are other options. There's people that come in who can help in the office."

Some respondents indicated that the organizations were particularly cognizant of the increasing age and growing health limitations of the volunteers, and made

special efforts to accommodate their needs. One respondent stated, "I don't drive because of my eyes. They even come and pick me up and take me home. I wanted to quit when they moved, because it would be too far to walk and this woman said, 'We'll always pick you up and take you home.' And besides, they have luncheons and get-togethers and things like that [which make her want to continue volunteering]." Related to the social aspect of volunteerism, several respondents said they like open work environments and shared workspace, where they can be with other volunteers, staff, and clients.

Discussion

While implications from this study should be drawn with caution, given method limitations and the small sample size, several key points are worth noting for future volunteer management research. Findings from this study emphasize consideration of unique volunteer recruitment and retention practices for older adults. Given their social networks, life experience, expertise, and interests, older adults' access to volunteer roles, their feelings about the instrumental value of volunteering, and role performance may be different than young adults' (Morrow-Howell & Tang, 2004).

Older adults may be more likely to access volunteer roles through informal means. This may require that organizations put their formal efforts into facilitation of informal outreach methods, like training and encouraging current clients, family members, and volunteers to recruit others. Recruitment may benefit from inclusion of messages that older adults consider to be motivating. Information about the role may need to emphasize the mission of the organization and how the volunteers' efforts will support it. When older adults enter the "volunteering marketplace" seeking role replacement, it may also be important to

emphasize respect of their experience and their inclusion in agency processes.

These findings suggest that accommodation and flexibility facilitate sustained volunteerism by older adult volunteers. Volunteer administrators may need to evaluate volunteer functioning at the beginning of and throughout their task assignment. Task assignment may need to change, depending on the volunteer's functional level, or additional supports may be needed, e.g., transportation. Obviously, these supports beg consideration of costs, but so does loss of a skilled, trained volunteer. Older adults in this study also discussed "facilitators," such as social opportunities and verbal appreciation for contributions, as motivators. These are low-cost strategies that may have high payoffs.

In conclusion, utilizing older adults as volunteers may require a unique approach. Further research should study effective recruitment and retention strategies for older volunteers, so that volunteer administrators can focus their efforts. These findings provide fodder for hypothesis development and theory building, emphasizing access, incentives, and facilitation.

References

Bundens, J., & Bressler, J. (2002, November). *Assessment of older adult volunteers' subjective well being over one year.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Gerontological Society of America, Boston.

Gerteis, M., Winston, J.A., Stanton, F., Moses, S., Grodner Mendoza, T., & Roberts, M. (2004). *Reinventing aging: Baby boomers and civic engagement.* Boston: Center for Health Communication, Harvard School of Public Health.

Hinterlong, J., McBride, A.M., Tang, Fl, & Danso, K. (in press). Elder volunteerism and service: Global issues and outcomes. In L. Wilson (Ed.), *Civic engagement and people age 50 and beyond.* New York: Haworth Press.

Kovacs, P.J., & Black, B. (1999). Volunteerism and older adults: Implications for social work practice. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work, 32*(4), 25-39.

Morrow-Howell, N. (2000) *Productive engagement of older adults: Effects on well-being.* Working paper. St. Louis, MO: Center for Social Development, Washington University.

Morrow-Howell, N., Hinterlong, J., Sherraden, M., Tang, F., Thirupathy, P. & Nagchoudhuri, M. (2003). Institutional capacity for elder service. *Social Development Issues, 25*(1/2), 189-204.

Morrow-Howell, N., Kinnevy, S., & Mann, M. (1999). The perceived benefits of participation in volunteer and educational activities. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work, 32*(2), 65-80.

Morrow-Howell, N., & Tang, F. (2004). *Youth service and elder service in comparative perspective.* Working paper 04-10. St. Louis, MO: Center for Social Development, Washington University.

Musick, M.A., Herzog, A.R. & House, J.S. (1999). Volunteering and mortality among older adults: Findings from a national sample. *Journal of Gerontology: Social Sciences, 54B*(3), S173-S180.

Oman, D., Thoresen, C., & McMahon, K. (1999). Volunteerism and mortality among the community-dwelling elderly. *Journal of Health Psychology, 4*(3), 301-316.

Prisuta, R. (2004). Enhancing volunteerism among aging boomers. In M. Gerteis, J.A. Winston, F. Stanton, S. Moses, T. Grodner Mendoza, & M. Roberts, *Reinventing aging: Baby boomers and civic engagement.* (pp. 47-91). Boston: Center for Health Communication, Harvard School of Public Health.

Van Willigen, M. (2000). Differential benefits of volunteering across the life course. *Journal of Gerontology: Social Sciences, 55B*(5), S308-S318.

Wheeler, J.A., Gorey, K.M., & Greenblatt, B. (1998). The beneficial effects of volunteering for older volunteers and the people they serve: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 17*(1), 69-79.

About the Authors

Madhura Nagchoudhuri, MSW, is a doctoral student at the George Warren Brown School of Social Work and a Research Associate at the Center for Social Development, Washington University in St. Louis. Madhura is from India and has worked in the area of women's leracy and empowerment. Her research interests include literacy and basic education of female children and adults in developing countries and institutional capacity development for social service organizations.

Amanda Moore McBride, MSW, PhD, is Assistant Professor at the George Warren Brown School of Social Work, and Research Director of the Center for Social Development (CSD), Washington University in St. Louis. She is co-principal investigator with Michael Sherraden for CSD's Global Service Institute, studying the forms and effects of civic service worldwide. Her scholarship also addresses the civic engagement effects of civic service as well as asset building among disadvantaged citizens.

Prema Thirupathy, MA, is a doctoral student at the George Warren Brown School of Social Work and the Center for New Institutional Social Science at Washington University in St. Louis. Her research interests include social policy, public administration, government devolution and privatization, institutional capacity development, and systems dynamic modeling. Prema is from Singapore, where she served as Deputy Director of Community and Social Sector Development in the Ministry of Community Development and Sports. She also served a year in Ghana with the Singapore Volunteers Overseas program.

Nancy Morrow-Howell, MSW, PhD, is the Ralph and Muriel Pumphrey Professor of Social Work at Washington University. She teaches gerontology courses and research courses and serves as chair of the PhD program. She is editor of the Practice Concepts section of The Gerontologist. Her research interest is in productivity in later life.

Fengyan Tang, MSW, is a PhD candidate at the George Warren Brown School of Social Work, and Research Associate at the Center for Social Development, Washington University in St. Louis. Her areas of interest include productive aging in terms of volunteering, working, and caregiving in later life, civic engagement across life course, and long-term care for the elderly.

Volunteer Attrition:
Lessons Learned From Oregon's Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program

H. Wayne Nelson, Jr., Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Department of Health Science
Towson University
Room 138 Burdick Hall
Towson, MD 21252-0001
Tel. 410-704-4845 * E-mail: wnelson@towson.edu

F. Ellen Netting, Ph.D.
Professor, Department of Social Work
Virginia Commonwealth University
P.O. Box 842027
Richmond, VA 23284
Tel. 804-828-0404 * E-mail: enetting@vcu.edu

Kevin W. Borders, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Kent School of Social Work
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY 40292
Tel. 502-852-0425 * E-mail: k.borders@lousiville.edu

Ruth Huiber, Ph.D.
Professor, Kent School of Social Work
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY 40292
Tel. 502-852-0435 * E-mail: ruth.huber@louisville.edu

Abstract

A telephone survey of 136 active and 170 former volunteer ombudsmen asked the two open ended questions reported here. Both groups were asked to identify "the most discouraging aspect of the ombudsman's job," and former ombudsmen were also asked why they had left the program. Responses fell into four general groups (each with numerous sub-categories): (a) Program Factors (supervision, training, policies), (b) Personal Factors (health, family, time), (c) Power Factors (volunteer status, legal authority), and (d) System Adversity (troubled facilities, resident impairment, poor enforcement and so forth). Although the Personal Factors group emerged as the number one ranked reason for quitting, program factors (led by the sub-category of poor supervisory support) emerged as the most discouraging aspect of service, and was the second ranked reason for quitting. Implications are discussed with recommendations for reducing volunteer dissatisfaction and turnover.

Keywords:
ombudsmen, attrition, volunteers, dissatisfaction, turnover

Lessons Learned from the Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program

Many Long Term Care (LTC) Ombudsman Program leaders find it difficult to retain sufficient numbers of nonpaid advocates to investigate and resolve complaints on behalf of America's fast growing elder-care population. Although more than 8,000 volunteers assume this federally mandated resident-defense role, these are far too few to adequately monitor all of the country's nursing homes and other long-stay settings (Brown, 1999).

This shortage of volunteers is especially tragic given the mounting research lauding their vital contribution to the well-being of elder-care residents. Ombudsmen volunteers are firmly recognized in the literature as playing a critical protective role, and, more especially, as filling a unique void as vibrant defenders of patient rights (Harris-Wehling, Feasley, & Estes, 1995). Consequently, their effective deployment and solid support is seen by program leaders as absolutely critical to program success (Estes, Zulman, Goldberg, & Ogawa, 2001; Kusserow, 1991b). Although volunteer retention is a top national priority, it remains a vexing challenge.

Surprisingly there is no published research directly assessing former volunteer ombudsmen's stated reasons for quitting. Nevertheless, a number of role-impeding factors have been explored by a few scholars and government analysts. Most of these factors relate to the ombudsman role itself. These include opposition by facility staff (Litwin & Monk, 1987; Nelson, 1995), poor training and supervision (Harris-Wehling, et al., 1995; Litwin & Monk, 1987) and the fact that most volunteers serve in socially isolated, often dreary and emotionally depressing environments (Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging [PMCOA], 1989; Schiman & Lordeman,

1989). In 1989, local ombudsman volunteer administrators assessed the leading reasons for volunteer attrition and cited poor health as the top determinant, followed by role stress and strain, trailed by conflicting time commitments (Schiman & Lordeman, 1989).

In this paper, we examine what former volunteers themselves actually maintain as their reasons for discouragement and resignation. We begin with a brief overview, followed by study results, discussion and implications.

Study Overview
Context

The Oregon program began recruiting volunteers in 1981 and has maintained an average of just under 200 in service over the years with an annual average turnover rate of about 22%. Given the difficulty of the ombudsman job, this rate does not, on the face of it, seem unduly onerous, but since other state volunteer ombudsman attrition rates are unknown, comparisons are not possible. Regardless, the Oregon program has been recognized for its effective "recruiting, training and retraining volunteers" (Kusserow, 199la, p. 6). This is despite the fact that its tiny paid staff of eight represents one of the worst ratios of paid ombudsman program staff to volunteers in the nation (Harris-Wehling, et al., 1995), a situation that persists to this day.

To become certified, Oregon volunteers must complete 48 hours of initial training and, pass a certification exam before they are assigned to a facility where they are expected to spend an average of 4 hours a week in service. They must complete an average of 8 hours' continuing education a year and are encouraged to attend monthly support group meetings facilitated by a paid regional supervisor who is also available via toll free telephone during working hours. Beyond this, however, these supervisors, who work out of the office in the state

capitol, are rarely available in person to their volunteers.

Methods

As part of a larger study, four volunteers recruited from the program's recruitment committees (which are also staffed by volunteers) were trained in phone survey techniques. Over three months, they randomly contacted 136 active and 170 former certified ombudsman to ask the open- ended questions reported here. Of those contacted, 96 (71%) active volunteers and 147 (85%) former volunteers responded. Both groups were asked to identify "the most discouraging aspect of the ombudsman's job." Former ombudsmen were also asked why they had left the program.

Two investigators independently reviewed each of the 147 response narratives, then categorized and ranked them in order of prevalence. The two ranked response lists were then jointly compared and adjusted for discrepancies in interpretation.

Study Results

The demographic profile of the 147 respondents is similar to that reported for volunteer ombudsmen nationally. Oregon volunteers were typically older (mid to late 60s in age) and overwhelmingly retired. Women outnumbered men by 2 to 1. Former volunteers had served an average of 26 months, compared to the average of 36 months collectively logged by those who remained in service.

Question 1: What factors were the most discouraging to your fulfillment of the ombudsman job?

Of 348 responses, 25 reasonably distinct factors emerged falling into five general groups (Table 1). The largest general group of 120 responses comprised Program factors'

representing 34% of all discouraging factors. These perceived hindrances relate to internal problems the volunteer has with the ombudsman organization itself, such as training, supervision, program policies and so forth. Of the ten Program Factor sub-categories the most important was "poor program support" (34 responses), followed by "conflict with the central office" (staff) (23 responses), and "inadequate training" (17 responses). None of the seven other Program Factors accounted for more than 12 responses, representing no more than 5% each of the total responses for "the most discouraging aspects of the ombudsan's job." It is important to note that although "Program Factors" emerged, albeit marginally, as the leading general group of most discouraging factors, the leading Program Factor sub-category, "poor program support" ranked only second in the list of 25 subcategories.

System Adversity was the second ranked overall group. It comprised 114 individual responses in five subcategories, representing 33% of all discouraging factors (Table 1). This group reflected the volunteers' vexation with various troubles of the long-term care system. The leading subcategory for this group, "lack of regulatory enforcement" (49 responses, or 14%), was the top-ranked subcategory overall. It was distantly trailed by "poor work by facility staff" (22 responses, 60%). The three remaining System Adversity factors represented no more than 5% of all discouraging factors.

The third major group, Power Factors, reflects the ombudsmen's perceived lack of clout or authority to influence change. This section accounted for 63 responses, representing 18% of all discouraging factors. "Difficulty effecting change" led this group with 23 responses (but still only 7% of all discouraging factor responses). No other subcategory in this group represented more than 4% of all discouraging factors.

Only one of the five subcategories of the fourth (Personal Factors) and fifth (Other Factors) ranked groups accounted for more than 3% of all discouraging factors This was the Personal Factor of "not enough time to do the job," with 25 responses accounting for 7% of all discouraging factors.

Table 1
Most Discouraging Aspects of the Ombudsman's Job

RESPONSE			n	%
1.	Program Factors, n = 120, 34%			
	1.1	Poor program support	34	10
	1.2	Conflict with the central office	23	7
	1.3	Inadequate training	17	5
	1.4	Agency policies	12	3
	1.5	Required to do monthly report		3
	1.6	Problems with local volunteer leaders	9	3
	1.7	Not enough local contact with volunteers	5	1
	1.8	Problems with other volunteers	5	1
	1.9	Job too big	3	1
	1.10	Not enough ombudsmen	2	1
2.	System Adversity Factors, n = 144, 33%			
	2.1	Lack of regulatory enforcement	49	14
	2.2	Poor work by facility staff	22	6
	2.3	Difficulty communicating with residents	18	5
	2.4	Ongoing issues with facilities	14	4
	2.5	Issues overwhelming	11	3
3.	Power Factors, n = 63, 18%			
	3.1	Difficulty in effecting change	23	7
	3.2	Role too adversarial	13	4
	3.3	Conflict with facility staff	11	3
	3.4	Personally ineffective in the role	10	3
	3.5	Lack of authority	6	2
4.	Personal Factors, n = 35, 10%			
	4.1	Not enough time to do the job	25	7
	4.2	Health	6	2
	4.3	Transportation difficulties	4	1
5.	Other Factors, n = 16, 5%			
	5.1	Volunteer identified with the facility	9	3
	5.2	No problems at facility	7	2
TOTALS			348	100

Question 2. What was your reason for leaving the program?
There were 166 responses to this question comprising 25 different categories (Table 2). Personal Factors clearly led the way, with 104 responses representing (63%) of the stated reasons for quitting. Of these, the foremost stated personal reason for quitting was health (24 responses), followed by family (15 responses), then, obtaining a paid job (11 responses, 7%). Eight other issues followed, ranging from time conflicts (10 responses) to no pay (2 responses).

The second ranked reason for quitting involved Program Factors, comprising only 45 responses (27% of the reasons, for quitting), dispersed among nine subcategories. Of these, only "conflict with the central office staff" (13 responses, 8%) and "lack of support (12 responses, 7%) appeared to be important.

Discussion & Implications for Volunteer Retention
Our telephone survey indicates that taking time to ask former volunteers about their experiences can be very insightful. Using a well-trained team of current volunteers to make the calls appears to be a reasonable strategy. Former volunteers were typically eager to discuss their experiences, whether good or bad, and candor developed because of the shared trust of being a fellow volunteer. It was often difficult to close an interview due to respondents' eagerness to discuss their experiences and in some cases, to critique the program. Using volunteers to follow up, with others who have terminated provides a follow-up mechanism that could lead to a better understanding of how to strengthen the program. This supports the value of conducting routine, volunteer-administered exit interviews as a sort of post hoc, needs analysis, something the Oregon Program did not do.

Table 2
Volunteers' Reasons for Leaving the Ombudsman Program

RESPONSE			n	%
1.	Personal Factors, n = 104, 63%			
	1.1	Health	24	14
	1.2	Family	15	9
	1.3	Paid job	11	7
	1.4	Time	10	6
	1.5	Burnout	9	5
	1.6	Other interests	8	5
	1.7	Personal	8	5
	1.8	Developed conflict of interest	7	4
	1.9	Served long enough	5	3
	1.10	Wrong role for me	5	3
	1.11	No pay	2	1
2.	Program Factors, n = 45, 27%			
	2.1	Conflict with central office staff	13	8
	2.2	Lack of support	12	7
	2.3	Local program tensions	5	4
	2.4	Too much enforcement in role	4	2
	2.5	Fired	3	2
	2.6	Paperwork	3	2
	2.7	Felt program staff dissatisfied with work	2	1
	2.8	Not trained	2	1
	2.9	Organization ineffective	1	.5
3.	Power Factors, n = 10, 6%			
	3.1	Feeling ineffective	9	5
	3.2	Role too adversarial	1	.5
4.	System Adversity Factors, n = 7, 4%			
	4.1	Too stressful/depressing	3	2
	4.2	Trouble with other government agency	2	1
	4.3	Provider hostility	2	1
TOTALS			166	100

Several of the categories that emerged as important in this study have implications for other programs. Indeed, Program Factors, which emerged as the most important discouraging factor and second leading reason for leaving volunteer service, presents an obvious beginning framework for assessing not only volunteer termination but how to retain current volunteers. Several

factors in this group suggest areas for review: (a) *poor program support,* (b) *conflict with central office,* and (c) agency *policies* appear to be perceived as important hindrances by a sizeable minority of active and former Oregon volunteer ombudsmen. It also seems that these three problems are interconnected.

Perceptions of poor program support are not surprising given the extreme isolation of Oregon's volunteer ombudsmen, who have very little contact with their paid supervisors, possibly seeing them for only a few hours every other month, if that. Many volunteers are also isolated from their peers. Research warns that this isolation may force volunteers to rely too heavily on frail residents for socio- emotional support (PMCOA, 1989). It may also cause them to turn to facility staff for help and companionship. This may cause them to assimilate provider (caregiving) values as opposed to their programs lawful reformist and rights-based principles (Nelson, 2000). This misalignment of values may spur much of volunteer-staff conflict as is suggested in some volunteer's concerns that paid staff were "too hard on the facility," "unfair," "too adversarial," and so forth.

One attempt by the program to protect volunteer ombudsmen from this co-optation was to rotate them out of their assigned facilities after two years of service. This angered a number of volunteers who had admitted to building close relationships with facility staff. Several quit. Other volunteers resigned after being assigned a "silent-partner" that was intended to protect them from frivolous or false accusations that were being directed their way.

Role conflict may also explain some of the tension between volunteers and staff Role conflict occurs when volunteers perceive their role differently from others, including their supervisors. The ombudsman job entails many different facets, including those of advocate, mediator, resource

broker, lay-therapist, educator and friendly visitor, among others. The extensive literature on role conflict predicts that role-conflicted volunteers will be easily frustrated by supervisors who try to enforce policies that seem inconsistent with the volunteer's erroneous job perceptions. Such misunderstanding may be very difficult to eliminate in programs where volunteers are detached from the socializing influences of their leaders and coworkers (Harris-Wehling, et al., 1995; Nelson, 1995).

It is axiomatic, then, that ombudsman leaders must creatively increase volunteer sup- port in order to ameliorate program tensions. Specific recommendations that might improve volunteer comfort with agency policies and procedures include the following.

Program leaders must constantly promote the agency's core resident defense values in all formal and informal communications to volunteers: initial and continuing education programs, bimonthly newsletters, monthly support meetings, telephone advice calls, awards ceremonies and so forth.

Program recruiters and screamers must promote realistic role expectations by neither overselling the ombudsman job nor hiding its 'drudge' aspects. To do this will only breed frustration that may be problematic later.

Leaders must communicate the job's complex and exacting role dimensions through detailed position descriptions, the interview process, initial and ongoing training and other formal and informal contacts. The goal is to select the right person.

Leaders can reduce volunteer resistance to the somewhat displeasing task of complaint reporting ("too much paper work") by illustrating how such information can be used to identify problem trends and

troubled faculties, so they can be targeted for intervention.

Leaders should prepare performance contracts that specifically address not only key job responsibilities but also the means by which the program will (realistically) support ombudsmen through training and other activities.

Although classic formal job evaluations may be difficult to effectively administer given the agency's tiny centralized paid staff (and tight budget), volunteers should be asked to self evaluate their performance at least annually. The goal is to encourage the volunteers' reflective assessment of their accomplishments in key job dimensions, including complaint handling and reporting, resident visits, hours in facility and so forth.

The program should identify and train veteran volunteer mentors to accompany new volunteers as they begin their facility visits. These mentors will model appropriate behaviors that will help neophytes develop appropriate role behaviors and capabilities.

To reduce volunteer isolation, program leaders should provide formal and informal opportunities for ombudsmen to train together and socialize. They should also stress the importance of maintaining a professional "distance" from facility staff (who they are supposed to monitor).

Management should increase long-distance proactive management communication techniques via the telephone and e-mail to reduce volunteer isolation. Management should form a volunteer advisory board that will explore and recommend ways to increase supportive and meaningful feedback to volunteers.

Ombudsman leaders should employ trained volunteers to conduct exit interviews in order to identify role conflict issues, sources of discontent, training needs and so forth.

Management should invite veteran volunteers to participate in agency staff

meetings - especially those volunteers identified for the mentoring role. Although the number who may participate may be small (owing to travel time and expense) the volunteers' input will be valuable as will be their increased sense of job ownership and organizational loyalty. These enhanced pro-agency feelings will find their way back to the field where they will help motivate and influence others.

Above all, leaders must make volunteers acutely aware of how complying with program policies and protocols will directly lead to positive differences in the lives of residents.

Program leaders will have a more difficult time softening the effects of *System Adversity.* The literature is not optimistic about any major improvements in America's long-term care system in the near future. The best that an advocacy program may be able to do is to adequately prepare its volunteers to deal with the system's exceedingly frail clientele; it poorly trained and motivated front line staff; its insistent efficiency demands, endless routines and complexities; and its frequently disheartening austerity. Here again, program leaders must prepare potential ombudsmen even before they join the program by creating realistic expectations about the nature and went of the problems that will be encountered.

Conclusion

As long as a program relies heavily on older volunteers, health may lead the list of termination reasons. Programs with more resources may seek to develop ancillary roles, as Oregon has done in its large cadre of non-paid volunteer recruiters and, more recently, friendly visitors. Otherwise, all resources must be dedicated to the support and empowerment of those who are willing to engage in interpersonal conflict to benefit those who can no longer advocate for themselves. In the final analysis, only Per-

sonal Factors are beyond the control of administrators. Program Factors, a crucial major group of responses, are within administrators' control and it appears to be these factors that are particularly important to volunteers. The majority of circumstances that keep or drive a-way volunteers stem from situations that could be made more volunteer-friendly: therein lies the challenge.

References

Brown, J.G. (1999). *Long term care ombudsman program: Overall capacity.* (Report No. OEI-02-98-00350). Washington, DC: Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Inspector General.

Estes, C.L., Zulman, D.M., Goldberg, S.C., & Ogawa, D.D. (2001). *Effectiveness of the state long-term care ombudsman* programs. A report for the Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation. Institute for Health and Aging. San Francisco, University of California.

Harris-Wehling, J., Feasley, J.C., & Estes, C.L. (1995). *Real people, real problems. An evaluation of the long term care ombudsman programs of the Older Americans Act.* Washington, DC: Division of Health Care Services, Institute of Medicine.

Kusserow, R.P. (1991a). *Effective ombudsman programs: Six case studies.* (Report No. OEI-20-90-02122). Washington, DC: Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Inspector General.

Kusserow, R.P. (1991b). *Successful ombudsman programs.* (Report No. OEI-02-90-02120). Washington DC: Department of

Health and Human Services, Office of the Inspector General.

Litwin, H., & Monk, A. (1987). Do nursing home patient ombudsmen make a difference? *Journal of Gerontological Social Work, 2*(l), 95-104.

Monk, A., Kaye, L.W., & Litwin, H. (1984). *Resolving grievances in the nursing home.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Nelson, H.W. (1995). Long-term care volunteer roles on trial: Ombudsman effectiveness revisited. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work, 23*(3/4), 25-46.

Nelson, H.W. (2000). Injustice and conflict in nursing homes: Toward advocacy and

exchange. *Journal of Aging Studies, 14*(l), 39-61.

Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging. (1989, September). In search of Ombudsmen, 1988-1989; A grant awarded by the Meyer Memorial Trust to the Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging. Portland, OR. Research for Marketing, Executive Summary.

Schiman, C., & Lordeman, A. (1989). A study of the use of volunteers by long term care ombudsman programs. The effectiveness of recruitment, supervision, and retention. (Cooperative Agreement No. 90-AT0401). Washington, DC- National Center for Long Term Care Ombudsman Resources: Administration on Aging.

About the Authors

H. Wayne Nelson is Assistant Professor in the Department of Health Science, Towson University, MD. Before moving to Towson in 1998, Dr. Nelson had been the Deputy Director of the Oregon State Long Term Care Ombudsman program, which has been nationally recognized for its effective use of volunteers. He has continued to research volunteer motivation and satisfaction issues and most recently was commissioned by the National Association of State Ombudsman Programs to write a paper assessing the training and certification of both paid and volunteer ombudsmen.

F. Ellen Netting is a Professor in the Virginia Commonwealth University School of Social Work, Richmond. Dr. Netting formerly directed a Foster Grandparent Program, coordinated volunteers for a county office on aging, and helped develop the first volunteer credentialing and training program for the East Tennessee Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program. Over the years she has taught courses on volunteerism, presented research on older volunteers at both AVA and ARNOVA conferences, and published extensively on voluntary sector issues.

Kevin Borders, Ph.D., and Ruth Huber, Ph.D. are with the Kent School of Social Work, University of Louisville, KY. Drs. Borders and Huber both work with volunteer Long Term Care Ombudsmen in Kentucky in development of and training about outcome measures and with other ombudsman programs regarding the documentation of their work.

**Reasons for and Barriers to Participating in Volunteerism and Service:
A Comparison of Ohio Youth in Grades 5-8 and 9-12**

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D.
Professor & Extension Specialist
Department of 4-H Youth Development and Family and Consumer Science
North Carolina State University
Campus Box 7606
Raleigh, NC 27695-7606
Tel. 919-513-0306, FAX 919-515-7812
E-mail: dale_safrit@ncsu.edu

Rosemary R. Gliem, Ph.D.
Director, Ohio State University Extension Data User Center
Room 248, 2120 Fyffe Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1067
Tel. 614-688-8760, FAX 614-866-8762
E-mail: gliem.1@osu.edu

Joseph A. Gliem, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Human and Community Resource Development
The Ohio State University
Room 208, 2120 Fyffe Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210
Tel. 614-292-6321, FAX 614-292-7007
E-mail: gliem.2@osu.edu

Abstract

The authors analyzed existing data investigating volunteerism and service among Ohio youth. Principle components analysis resulted in four factors explaining respondents' reasons for providing volunteerism/service for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Adult and Peer Pressure; 2) Adult Encouragement; 3) Altruistic Reasons; and 4) Spiritual Reasons; Grades 9-12: 1) Personal and Altruistic Importance; 2) Education and Career Advancement; 3) Parent, Teacher, and/or Mentor Encouragement; and 4) Social and Peer Influences. Data analysis resulted in three factors explaining barriers to volunteerism/service, again for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Personal Challenges; and 3) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; Grades 9-12: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; and 3) Time Constraints. Volunteer administrators from Ohio and states with similar school demographics should consider these reasons and barriers when designing or restructuring youth volunteerism and service programs.

Key Words:
youth, volunteerism, community service, reasons, barriers, Ohio

Introduction

Volunteerism and community service are both contemporary and historical social phenomena in American society. Since colonial times, Americans have gone beyond normal expectations and familial responsibilities to help their fellow citizens (Ellis & Noyes, 1990.) Traditionally, the American family has had the major responsibility for instilling in young people the concepts of volunteerism and community service. However, beginning in the early twentieth century and especially during the past two decades, this responsibility has increasingly fallen upon other societal institutions as well. According to Maughs-Pugh (1996), "The relationship of attachment between local communities and the schools serving their youth is pedagogically critical" (p. 48) Volunteerism and community service are both critical strategies through which our nation's youths become integrally attached to their surrounding communities. In a national survey conducted by the Independent Sector (1992a), 61% of 12-17 year olds, and 58% pf 14 – 17 year olds, volunteered in the past 12 months. Almost a decade later, The Independent Sector (2002a) found that volunteering by U.S. high school students in 2001 reached its highest level in the past 50 years.

Nurturing a spirit and belief in volunteerism and community service in youth is a major goal of many educational and non-profit institutions and organizations. Yet, Safrit (2002) noted that:

. . . as adults, it is often challenging for us to even approach teens; we have developed a societal stereotype that teens are, by definition, rebellious and nonconforming and have little sincere interest in anything but themselves and their immediate needs. . . . we often subconsciously expect teens to fail in following-through on their responsi-bilities and commitments, again assuming that they will redirect their energies and attentions to anything that is more immediate and more exciting for them personally. And . . . we subcon-sciously resist delegating to them true power and authority to perform, instead constantly shadowing their efforts and suggesting alternative methods and options based upon the clichéd, "our experience as adults." (pp. 21-22)

In spite of these observations and assertions, little empirical data exist describing youth service and volunteerism. Rigorous analytical research conducted with large sub-segments of America's youth population would serve to greatly enhance volunteer administrators' and managers' understanding of the reasons and motivi-tions that youth decide to participate in volunteerism and community service, as well as the barriers youth themselves perceive hinder or impede their partici-pation.

Purpose and Methodology

The purpose of this research was to describe and compare reasons for and barriers to participating in volunteerism and service by Ohio youth in grades 5-12. The researchers used historical data collected originally in 1996 (Safrit, King, & Burcsu, 1998). The population for the original study was approximately 1.8 million 4th - 12th graders in Ohio public schools in 1995 (as reported by the Ohio Department of Education). Based on an average of 25 students per classroom, the researchers estimated there were approximately 50,000 4th - 12th grade classrooms in Ohio's public schools. Since names of individual students were not avail-able, the researchers used cluster sampling (with school classrooms as the sample unit) to draw a random sample of classrooms for each grade level (Kish, 1967). The accessible population was all 4th - 12th classrooms as of 1996 which were on

a computerized list provided by the O.D.E. The list was organized by grade level, with all individual classes for a specific grade level listed alphabetically by teacher's last name. Based upon Krejcie and Morgan's formula (1970) which utilizes a 5% risk of an extreme sample, the researchers selected the appropriate sample size of classrooms for each grade level and randomly selected classrooms from the computerized list.

In 1995, Safrit et al. used two 16 item questionnaires to collect data from grades 4 – 8 and 9-12. Both questionnaires employed vocabulary and response cate-gories appropriate (i.e., "yes" or "no") for the respective grade level. Experts in the field of youth service and volunteerism served as a panel of experts to establish the validity of the questionnaires. Based upon the panel's suggestions, the researchers made minor wording changes to the questionnaires. Overall questionnaire development followed recommendations by Rea and Parker (1997).

Both questionnaires were organized into five sections corresponding to the study objectives. Section 1 investigated overall levels and types of volunteerism and service by respondents. Section 2 investigated service as a part of respondents' school work, and Section 3 investigated service as a part of out-of-school clubs and organiza-tions, as well as service performed individually by respondents. Section 4 investigated motivations for and barriers to volunteerism and service by respondents, while section 5 investigated respondents' personal demographics. This article focuses upon post-collection analysis of the data investigating youth motivations for and barriers to volunteerism collected in Sections 4 of the two questionnaires.

Safrit et al. (1995) conducted a pilot study to establish the questionnaires' content validity. Five classrooms (not a part of the study sample) participated in the pilot tests.

As a result of these pilot tests, the researchers made minor changes to both questionnaires.

Safrit et al. (1998) also conducted a field study using the test-retest method to establish the reliability of the questionnaires. Eight 4th - 8th grade students and ten 9th - 12th grader students (who were not in the classrooms that were part of the study sample) participated in the field study. The researchers administered the questionnaire to each student on two separate occasions, allowing approximately three weeks between administrations. All items in both questionnaires demonstrated minimum reliabilities of 60%.

Principals of each school with participating classrooms received letters asking permission to conduct the study. Selected classroom teachers received a separate packet that included a study information sheet, a parental permission form, an instruction sheet for administering the questionnaires and 35 copies of the appropriate questionnaire. Classrooms had approximately 25 students; however, actual class sizes ranged from 18 - 30. Researchers sent 35 questionnaires to ensure enough for each student in the classroom. Teachers sent parental permission slips home with students prior to administering questionnaires. Teachers administered questionnaires to students whose parents returned signed per-mission forms and returned completed questionnaires to the researchers. The initial deadline for returned questionnaires was November 30, 1996. The researchers sent reminder post cards to teachers who had not returned questionnaires by December 2, 1996. Teachers received phone calls in early January, 1997 if there was still no response.

The overall response rate was 58%. Response rates for individual grades ranged from 31% (4th grade) to 73% (5th grade). Due to the low response rate for 4th grade,

the researchers did not conduct subsequent analysis of data from 4th grade students. No attempt was made to follow up with non-responding classrooms.

The 477 responding classrooms resulted in 11, 324 usable questionnaires. Sample statistics including frequencies and correlations were calculated using SPSS version 12.0. Factor analysis using the principal components model was used to identify major components underlying the barriers to participating in volunteerism/service for both grade groups (5th – 8th grade and 9th – 12th grade). Based upon the two correlation matrixes (several correlations above |.30|), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (p<.001), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.67 for the 5th – 8th grade group, and .75 for the 9th – 12th grade group), the data appeared appropriate for factor analysis. The analysis provided a

parsimonious number of components (3 for each grade group) that could be used to represent the relationships among the sets of interrelated variables.

Two criteria were used to determine the number of components to be extracted. First, only components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were considered in the analysis. Second, a scree plot of the component eigenvalues was used to identify breaks or discontinuity in determining the number of components. The components were rotated using a Varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalization to aid in the interpretation of the components. Stevens (1992) suggests using loadings of .40 absolute when determining which items are of practical importance in loading on a component.

Table 1

Rotated Component Matrix of Barriers to Volunteering for Grades 5 – 8

Item	Component Loadings			Communality
	1	2	3	
It wouldn't be fun	.74			.28
I don't care	.72			.40
I want to spend time doing things I like	.53			.42
I helped once, but didn't like it	.50			.25
None of my friends help others	.45			.45
I just moved here		.66		.37
My parents won't let me help		.62		.26
I don't know how to help		.56		.32
Transportation is a problem			.67	.55
I don't have enough time to help			.63	.53
No one asked me to help			.45	.50
Eigenvalues	1.90	1.24	1.21	
% of Variance	17.3	11.2	11.0	

Findings

The researchers identified three factors describing barriers to volunteering for both grade levels (Tables 1 and 2). Barriers identified for grades 5 – 8 include: Component 1) Low personal interest; Component 2) Weak connectedness to volunteerism; and Component 3) Personal challenges. The barriers identified for

grades 9 – 12 are vary similar to those found for grades 5 – 8 and include: Component 1) Low personal interest; Component 2) Weak connectedness to volunteering; and Component 3) Time constraints. Together the three grade 5 – 8 components accounted for 40% of the total variance, and the three grade 9 – 12 components accounted for 34% of the variance.

Table 2
Rotated Component Matrix of Barriers to Volunteering for Grades 9 – 12

Item	Component Loadings			Communality
	1	2	3	
It wouldn't be fun	.77			.59
I'm simply not interested	.76			.58
I don't care	.69			.48
I want to spend leisure time doing things I like	.62			.41
None of my friends are involved	.50			.32
I don't know how to get involved		.57		.33
My parents won't let me help		.52		.28
Transportation is a problem		.46		.29
No one asked me to get involved		.46		.25
I don't feel one person can make a difference		.43		.22
I just moved here		.40		.17
I don't have time because of homework			.79	.62
I don't have time due to extracurricular activities			.64	.41
No time because of work expected at home			.53	.38
Don't have time because of job			.47	.25
Eigenvalues	2.45	1.73	1.65	
% of Variance	14.4	10.2	9.7	

Table 3
Rotated Component Matrix of Reasons for Volunteering for Grades 5-8

Item	Component Loadings				Communality
	1	2	3	4	
A lot of free time	.59				.37
To make friends	.58				.43
My friends help others	.54				.39
It gives me something to do	.50				.29
To fit into a group	.49				.34
To make a good grade	.44				.34
Parents encouraged me		.66			.49
Important to my parents		.60			.40
Teachers encouraged me		.56			..46
Someone asked me to help		.40			.20
Wanted to help others			.67		.45
Helping others makes me feel good			.64		.43
It was fun			.48		.37
To learn new things			.48		.44
My parents made me		.44	-.47		.46
Place of worship made me				.72	.57
Place of worship encouraged me				.65	.55
Eigenvalues	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	
Percent of Variance	12.3	11.1	10.7	7.0	41.0

The researchers identified four factors describing reasons for volunteering for both grade levels (Tables 3 and 4). Reasons identified for grades 5 – 8 include: Component 1) adult and peer pressure; Component 2) adult encouragement; Component 3) altruistic reasons; and, Component 4) spiritual reasons. Reasons identified for grades 9 – 12 are very similar to those found for grades 5 – 8 and include:

Component 1) personal and altruistic importance; Component 2) educational and career advancement; Component 3) parent, teacher, and/or mentor encouragement; Component 4) social and peer influences. Together the four grade 5 – 8 components accounted for 41% of the total variance, and the four grade 9 – 12 components accounted for 31.1% of the variance.

Table 4
Rotated Component Matrix of Reasons for Volunteering for Grades 9 - 12

Item	Component Loadings				Communality
	1	2	3	4	
Important to me	.64				.44
It helps me gain new perspective on things	.59				.42
I feel compassion toward those in need	.57				.34
Makes me feel good about myself	.54				..32
I wanted to give something back	.54				.32
Important to the people I respect	.53				.35
It was fun and I enjoy the work	.48				.34
It gives me something worthwhile to do	.44				.30
It looks good on my resume		.69			.56
It looks good on a college application		.65			.50
To make contacts and help my career		.60			.42
It helps me to explore career options		.57			.50
A requirement to graduate		.40			.26
Important to my parents			.59		.36
My parents encouraged me			.51		.25
Someone asked me to help			.42		.21
My teachers encouraged me			.41		.25
I have a lot of free time				.53	.29
My friends help others				.50	.30
To fit into a group				.47	.27
It helps me to deal with my own problems				.45	.28
Eigenvalues	3.5	2.5	2.1	1.9	
Percent of Variance	10.9	7.7	6.6	5.9	31.1

Conclusions and Implications

The reader is cautioned about generalizations of the findings beyond Ohio due to the study's exploratory nature. The factors identified for each grade range largely support and reinforce existing literature regarding holistic youth reasons for and barriers to participating in

volunteerism and service. However, the study findings provide more focused insights into both shared and unique reasons for and barriers to volunteerism/service between the early teen years represented by grades 5-8, and the senior teen years in grades 9-12.

The reasons for volunteerism identified at both grade levels of "adult and peer pressure", "adult encouragement", and "parent, teacher, and/or mentor encouragement" emphasize the critical role that adult role models play in encouraging young people to volunteer. The authors believe that these factors cannot be overstated; youth learn best not from what adults say, but what adults actually do. Thus, whether a parent or guardian at home, a classroom teacher, a community youth program professional, or a neighbor or other adult acquaintance, adult role models serve as important positive catalysts and examples of citizens engaged in their communities through volunteer service for both pre-teen and teenage youth. The authors would suggest that to maximize upon this research finding, the most effective infrastructure for youth volunteerism and community service may be through youth-adult partnerships, i.e., youth and adults working together as equal peers to address through volunteerism challenges facing their communities. Such partnerships are supported by both best practices and the literature (Brendtro & Bacon, 1995; Long, Kressley, & Poulsen, n.d.; Safrit, 2002; Youth Service America, 1994; Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Calvert, n.d.) and not only build a commitment to service among youth, but also strengthens in them important leadership skills and aspirations.

The study factors identified at both grade levels of "altruistic reasons" and "personal and altruistic importance" again are prevalent in adult volunteerism literature (Shure, 1991; Independent Sector, 1996b) but less

frequently cited for youth volunteerism. The Independent Sector (1996) identified "compassion toward people in need" as one of the most reasons teens cited for volunteering, while Spoto (1999) cited "to learn to be helpful and kind" as one of five highest factors in influencing 4-H youth to volunteer. Personal philosophies that we profess as adults have their origins anchored in the personal values, belief systems, and experiences to which we are exposed as youth growing up in homes, neighborhoods, and communities. Consequently, adults who serve as role models in encouraging youth to volunteer not only demonstrate a commitment to a positive social behavior, but also transfer less tangible beliefs and values to youth relating to each individual's role in supporting and aiding those less fortunate, and those in need. Service learning (the pedagogical approach that links classroom subject matter, volunteer service, and student reflection upon that service) has been designed from its inception to instill in youth larger shared cultural values of civic and social responsibility while reinforcing a personal commitment to volunteerism and community service. It is noteworthy that altruistic-focused reasons for volunteering were identified for both the 5-8 and 9-12 grade levels. After approximately two decades of encouraging holistic youth development wherein the individual student in the formal school classroom is connected to both that student in his/her home setting, as well as that student's involvement in other community based youth programs, American society is hopefully beginning to see the results of an altruistic emphasis shared among all three contexts that refocuses today's youth upon historical tenets upon which our nation was founded. These tenets include our individual responsibilities toward promoting the well being of our fellow citizens, our communities, and our nation through community

service and volunteerism (Ellis & Noyes, 1990).

The factors identified for grades 9-12 of "educational and career advancement" and "social and peer influences" are not surprising considering the life stage at which teenagers find themselves. Teens are very concerned with preparing for their future jobs and careers through appropriate education and training. Smith and Havercamp (1991) found that volunteerism by high-risk teenagers positively influenced their school grades, and Sauer (1991) concluded that volunteerism by students at risk helped the students "[turn] around a record of excessive absences and below grade level academic achievement" (p. 37). Spoto (1999) identified "to improve school grades/do better in school" and "to develop new career goals" as two important factors influencing youth respondents in Louisiana to volunteer. Safrit, Scheer and King (2001) suggested that "Volunteer opportunities can enhance the teen's career exploration . . . and be included as part of building a strong college application or job resume" (p. 19). With today's emphasis on workforce preparation and a technologically literate workforce, volunteerism and community service are excellent means through which older youth may explore possible jobs and career paths through real-life, hands-on experience. When combined with classroom vocational programs and career related coursework, volunteerism is an excellent learning strategy that effectively combines course content with the actual workplace for teens in an emotionally safe environment.

Additionally, teens are very concerned with fitting into the larger group while still demonstrating their individuality. Therefore, "social and peer influences" may relate to not only our society's increasing emphasis on youth volunteerism and community service, but an interpersonal aspect as well. Safrit, Scheer and King (2001) suggested

that "Teens are more willing to actively engage in mixed gender groups" (p. 19) wherein individuals of one gender are exposed to, and learn to collaborate with, peers of the other gender through structured volunteer activities. Such inter-gender peer interaction promotes positive peer pressure wherein teens role model volunteer service to their friends and fellow students.

The reason for volunteering identified for early teens in grades 5-8 of "spiritual reasons" is somewhat surprising to the authors. The roles of an individual's religious beliefs, as well as organized communities of faith to which they belong, upon adults as volunteers is well documented (Independent Sector, 1992b, 1996b, 2002b). However, the role of spirituality in youth volunteerism is less evident in the literature. The authors suggest that "spiritual reasons" identified by the study findings may be related to (1) our society's increasing emphasis upon human spirituality (both through organized communities of faith and individual spiritual movements), and/or (2) the direct influence that parents and guardians have upon younger youth (as opposed to older teens) in exposing them to religious contexts. Hopefully, the ultimate outcome of either of these two aspects would be a youth (and eventual adult) who connects a personal commitment to helping others to their individual and shared religious beliefs, and visa versa.

The barriers identified of "low personal interest", "personal challenges", "weak connectedness to volunteerism", and "time constraints" are all documented in the literature on barriers to adult volunteerism. MacKenzie and Moore (1994) discussed barriers to adult volunteerism related to the identified factors of time constraints (e.g., increasing demands from career and family) and poor connectivity to volunteerism (e.g., no one asking an individual to help.) Safrit and Merrill (2000) discussed management

implications of several trends in volunteerism they identified. One trend identified the many challenges of our ever-increasingly busy and hectic lives in integrating volunteer commitments with personal, familial, and professional responsibilities.

The study findings provide more focused insights into both shared and unique barriers to volunteerism/service between the early teen years represented by grades 5-8, and the senior teen years in grades 9-12. While the content of the barriers identified for youth volunteerism in this study are similar to many of those identified for adults, one must recognize that the contexts of these barriers for youth may differ drastically from those for adults.

"Low personal interest" and "weak connectedness to volunteerism" were barriers identified for both grade levels. The authors would suggest that these barriers may reflect youths' perceptions that some volunteer programs are poorly planned or implemented, or fail to truly engage youth as active, meaningful partners in volunteer initiatives. Volunteer program administrators must avoid at all cost the appearance that youth are asked to volunteer for busywork simply to occupy their time, or that the tasks assigned to youth volunteers are not perceived by the youth as distasteful activities that adults prefer not to do. A "weak connectedness to volunteerism" may reflect the observation that youth with parents who volunteer tend to be more likely to volunteer as well (Independent Sector, 2002). Thus, youth from households or communities with little visible evidence of volunteer activities or accomplishments may lack a peer or adult role model to encourage them to volunteer. While service learning may be an effective method through which to introduce youth to volunteer service, youth would still benefit from a close friend, family member, or adult mentor to sustain their interest and initiative to volunteer.

The barrier identified for grades 9-12 of "time constraints" may reflect the increasing pressures of time commitments on many high school students. High schools offer many intra- and extra-curricular organizations and activities that compete for students' time, energies and talents. While many high school students elect to join and participate in as many organizations and activities as possible, others may focus upon one organization or activity, and others may elect not to participate at all. So as to minimize the potential detrimental affects of this barrier, volunteer administrators should work closely with classroom teachers and school administrators to integrate into the school environment as many volunteer service opportunities as possible. Leaders and advisers of school clubs and organizations should be encouraged to suggest to student members that they perform at least one group service activity per semester. Entire grade levels could be encouraged to adopt a class volunteer service project that would benefit the entire school and its surrounding community. Volunteer organizations should be encouraged to work with school guidance counselors and administrators to post volunteer opportunities available to students in a prominent and conspicuous location. At the high school level, such volunteer opportunities would help students explore possible vocations and careers.

Volunteer administrators from Ohio (as well as states with similar school demographics) should consider both these reasons and barriers when designing or restructuring youth volunteerism and service programs. While the authors recognize that the study findings are based upon data collected in 1996, they would argue that volunteerism motivations and barriers faced by youth have not changed drastically in seven years. According to the Independent

Sector (2002c), even today, "Several factors appear to encourage volunteering as a habit: the age when young people start to volunteer; the exposure to volunteering opportunities through religious, educational, or other institutions; and the role of positive self-images and role models" (n.p.)

The authors would encourage administrators of volunteer programs to contact and engage educators, elected and informal civic leaders, parents and guardians, and young people themselves in active dialogue regarding their unique perceptions and opinions regarding the reasons and barriers discussed here. Only then will we as positive adult role models truly be able to best support youth in sustained volunteer service.

References

Brendtro, L., & Bacon, J. (1995). Youth empowerment and teamwork. In H.G. Garner (Ed.), *Teamwork models and experiences in education* (pp. 55-70). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Ellis, S., & Noyes, K. (1990). *By the people: A history of Americans as volunteers.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Independent Sector. (1992a, 1996a, 2002a). *Volunteering and giving among American teenagers 12 – 17 years of age.* Washington, DC: Author.

Independent Sector. (1992b, 1996b, 2002b). *Volunteering and giving among Americans: Findings from a national survey.* Washington, DC: Author.

Independent Sector. (2002c). *America's teenage volunteers: Civic participation begins early in life*. Washington, D.C.: Author.

Kish, L. (1967). *Survey sampling.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Krejcie, R.V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30*, 607-610.

Long, R.F., Kressley, K.G., & Poulsen, S.J. (n.d.) Youth in Community – Youth in citizenship…Weaving in a future tense: Insights from the field. Battle Creek, MI: W.K. Kellogg Foundation. [Available on-line: www.wkkf.org]

MacKenzie, M., & Moore, G. (1993), The volunteer development toolbox. Heritage Arts Publishing.

Maughs-Pugh, T. (1996). Developing the good person: The role of local publics. In Burstyn, J.N. (Ed.), *Educating tomorrow's valuable citizen* (pp. 41-57). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Rea, L.M., & Parker, R.A. (1997). *Designing and conducting survey research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Safrit, R.D. (2002). Developing effective teen-adult partnerships through volunteerism: Strengthening empathy, engagement, empowerment, and enjoyment. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, 20*(4), 21-25.

Safrit, R.D., King, J.E., & Burcsu, K. (1998). *A study of the prevalence and impact of service learning, community service, and volunteerism with Ohio youth in grades 4-12: Final report.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, Department of Human and Community Resource Development.

Safrit, R.D., & Merrill, M. (2000). Management implications of contemporary trends in voluntarism in the United States and Canada. *Journal of the Institute of Volunteering Research: Voluntary Action, III*(1), 73-88.

Safrit, R.D., Scheer, S.D., & King, J.E. (2001). Understanding seasons of service: Promoting volunteerism across the life span. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, 19*(3), 15-23.

Sauer, J. (1991). Volunteerism by students at risk. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, 10*(1), 33-38.

Shure, R.S. (1991). Volunteering: Continuing expansion of the definition and a practical application of altruistic motivation. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, 9*(4), 36-41.

Smith, M., & Havercamp, M.J. (1991). "Just do it!": High-risk teenagers help themselves while helping others. *The Journal of Volunteer Administration, IX*(4), 4-10.

Spoto, K. (1999). Perceived influence of selected factors on decision of high school 4-H youth to volunteer. *The Journal of Extension* [On-line]*, 37*(5). Available at: http://www.joe.org/joe/1999october/comm2.html

Stevens, J. (1992). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences (2nd edition).* Hillsdale,NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Youth Service America. (1994). *National youth service: Answer the call: A resource guide.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Zeldin, S., McDaniel, A.K., Topitzes, D., & Calvert, M. (n.d.) *Youth in decision-making: A study on the impacts of youth on adults and organizations.* Chevy Chase, MD: Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development, a Decision of National 4-H Council.

About the Authors

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D. is a Professor and Extension Specialist in the Department of 4-H Youth Development and Family and Consumer Sciences at NC State University in Raleigh where he provides leadership to continuing professional education for 4-H professionals and the Department's Youth Development Leadership graduate specialization. With a doctorate from NC State in adult education, Dale has established a firm reputation as a noted scholar, visionary leader and motivational educator in the not-for-profit sector.

Rosemary R. Gliem, Ph.D. is Director of the Ohio State University Extension Data Center in the College of Food, Agricultural and Environmental Sciences. She directs the collection, analysis, and dissemination of data sets relating to social, environmental, demographic, and economic aspects of Ohio's communities and citizens. Her doctorate from The Ohio State University's Department of Human and Community Resource Development focused upon Extension Education.

Joseph A. Gliem, Ph,D. is an Associate Professor in the Department of Human and Community Resource Development at The Ohio State University. Joe teaches graduate courses in research methods and data analysis and has a national reputation in social systems research.