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FROM THE EDITOR

In This Issue: Are We Relevant? …LINK TO PDF

FEATURE ARTICLES

Who Lends a Hand to Government? The Impact of Social Capital on Governmental Volunteering.

Min Su

Governmental volunteering has received increased recognition in recent years. Results of the research reported here show the impact of social capital on governmental volunteering. Based on the Texas Adults Survey, four indicators of social capital have been identified—asked to volunteer, non-religious group meeting attendance, children living in household, and norm of trust. These social capital indicators are incorporated in the governmental volunteering model, with control variables such as human capital indicators, working status, religiosity, and demographic factors (age, gender, race, etc.). The results confirm the importance of social capital in explaining governmental volunteering—individuals with greater stocks of social capital are more likely to participate in governmental volunteering. Further, the results also indicate that social capital has different impacts on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering—it plays a more important role in governmental volunteering. Research results suggest that researchers should revisit the conventional views of volunteering and incorporate social capital factors in studies of volunteering. Finally, the results offer practical value to practitioners in volunteer administration, especially practitioners in government volunteer programs—social capital factors could be used to increase volunteer recruitment in public service delivery. …LINK TO PDF

Key Words: social capital; volunteering; governmental volunteering

Public Service Motivation from the Volunteer Resource Manager Perspective.

Nevbahar Ertas, Ph.D.

Qualitative research on public service motivation (PSM) is rare, and volunteer resource manager perspectives on PSM have not been explored in the research literature, even though volunteer resource managers deal directly with individuals involved in voluntary work that could be expected to be driven by inspiration and motivation. Using data generated from in-person biographical interviews with Birmingham-area volunteer resource managers, the study reported here examined the PSM values of volunteer resource managers and looks at their perspectives on the role of PSM on civic action, recruiting, and maintaining volunteers. The analyses of interview data reveal the critical role of the demand side of volunteering and suggest implications for both researchers and the profession. Increased attention to the quality of engagement for volunteers, and articulating the motivational aspect, may enhance the experiences of volunteers as well as volunteer resource managers, which are both key resources for nonprofit service organizations. …LINK TO PDF

Key Words: public service motivation, volunteering, volunteer management, non-profits

Community Volunteer Leadership in West Virginia: Key Incentives and Influences that Enhance Involvement

Lisa Kelly Nix, Ph.D.

Many organizations must count on volunteers to provide core services (Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992). Since community organizations play a vital role in a community's quality of life, it is important to learn about community leader characteristics and what incentives and influences motivate them to volunteer. The purpose of the study reported here was to identify incentives and influences that enhance volunteer leader participation in West Virginia communities. The target population consisted of members from the West Virginia Regional Planning and Development Council and the West Virginia Economic Development Council. Findings revealed top incentives and indicate distinctive preference for volunteering in leadership roles. A unique disparity to the national data regarding educational level and amount of hours volunteered was realized. The information from the study

In This Issue:
Are We Relevant?

Who, why, and how to manage are all key themes in this issue of The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA). Within the seven published manuscripts, you'll find a number of very practical ideas and potential solutions to the challenges and opportunities volunteer resource managers' face on a day-to-day basis.

Rather than provide an overview of each manuscript, I think it more important to comment on the entire issue. As we prepared this issue, I began to think about the articles and how it seemed that perhaps we were not pushing the profession hard enough in areas that need further explored. Are we publishing the right type of manuscript? Is the content relevant? Have readers moved on to other issues and do they no longer care about recruitment, retention, and measuring impact? Are these really contemporary issues that our profession needs to continue to explore? Depending on who I would ask, I am sure that I would get a variety of answers that ranged from emphatic "yes" to all my questions to an emphatic "no". If that is the case, then we are doing what we need to do.

What I reminded myself was that this profession continues to evolve. New professionals, with little experience, join us everyday. Seasoned professionals that have left other careers transition into volunteer resource management roles and need resources. Long serving volunteer resource managers change positions or move to different communities and need new information relevant to their current situation. At the end of the day, we must continue to publish a wide range of articles that offer new ideas to the professional just entering the workforce, yet challenge our tenured colleagues. I hope that we are serving that purpose!

As we turn the calendar to 2014, I want to wish each of you a very Happy New Year! I hope that you continue to grow as a professional, enjoy your personal time and continue to contribute to the success of your organization and community.

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

provides empirical data that can be used for effective volunteer recruitment practices and guide programming designed to improve job satisfaction of community volunteer leaders. …LINK TO PDF
Key Words: volunteer leadership, community leadership, leadership motivation

Volunteering Measurement and Management: Evidence from Maryland

Laura Berardi, Ph.D.

Volunteer service is a natural and renewable resource that can be effectively measured and evaluated by organizations that use unpaid workers to perform activities and to execute programs. The researchers examined how and why U.S. nonprofit organizations measure this important resource and determine if that measurement affects the management of volunteer activities and programs. Reported here are the studied cases of four charitable organizations from Maryland with different dimensions, fields, and scope. In the explorative multiple-case study, reported here, each organization confirmed the main hypotheses that the measurement of volunteer service positively impacts both the effectiveness, and the efficiency of volunteer programs and activities. The researchers also consider other characteristics of these organizations that are impacted by measurement activities and other volunteer management practices. The results can be generalized to other nonprofit organizations that have the same structured system of volunteer management, but may exhibit different characteristics in terms of dimension, fields, and/or scope. …LINK TO PDF
Key Words: volunteer work measurement, accounting, management, nonprofit organizations

Understanding How Age Affects the Relationships Between Well-Known Predictors of Volunteerism and the Duration and Intensity of Volunteering

Jennifer M. Mohorovic, Ph.D. & Elizabeth M. Hill, Ph.D.

Formal volunteering within the context of an organization represents a substantial social and economic contribution to the United States. Volunteerism has been explained by various theories including: functional, behaviorist, exchange, social resources, role identity, sustained volunteerism, and the three-stage model. Because volunteerism spans all ages, a developmental perspective is necessary since age ranges of the volunteers might affect various factors related to volunteer commitment. The study reported here investigated how age affects the relationship between predictors of volunteerism and the duration and intensity of volunteering among a sample of hospital volunteers, ages 18 and older, recruited from hospital volunteer programs of the Metropolitan Detroit area. Participants completed self-report measures assessing demographic characteristics, reasons to volunteer, satisfaction, role identity, and prosocial personality. Results revealed partial support for the hypotheses. Reasons to volunteer were more strongly correlated with intensity of volunteering than duration. Age groups of volunteers significantly differed in the duration of volunteering, the desire to gain career related experience and new learning experiences, and the personality characteristic of helpfulness. Years of education, the desire to gain career related experience, and age groups of volunteers was the most parsimonious model for predicting duration of volunteering. For predicting intensity, years of education, satisfaction, helpfulness, the desire to gain career related experience, age groups, and the interactions between age groups and education and satisfaction was the best model. Thus, volunteerism does appear to be affected by age with older volunteers volunteering for a longer duration than younger volunteers. The relationship between age and intensity of volunteering is mediated by the volunteers' level of satisfaction and years of education. …LINK TO PDF
Key Words: volunteer commitment, reasons to volunteer, prosocial personality, age differences, hospital

Leadership, Management Practices, and Volunteer Retention

Edward J. Breslin, DM

This qualitative research reported here delved into 12 hospital volunteers' perceptions of their lived experiences and their view of how those experiences affected their tendency to continue to come back to work year in and year out. The objective of the study was to arrive at an improved understanding of why the retention rate was much better at the Northwest Florida hospital than it was for volunteers at nonprofits nationally. The researcher used interviews and analyzed data according to a modified van Kaam method. The researchers also identify recommendations for management policies and leadership practices relative to the retention proclivity of volunteers. …LINK TO PDF
Key Words: retention, volunteers, leadership, satisfaction, engagement

Challenges in Volunteer Resource Management

Margaret Moore & Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Ph.D.
Volunteers represent both an invaluable resource and a unique set of challenges to nonprofit organizations large and small. The study reported here was designed to investigate the top challenges in volunteer resource management as identified by a variety of stakeholders at diverse nonprofit organizations. Identifying meaningful volunteer roles, recruiting a sufficient number of volunteers, and recruiting volunteers with particular skill sets were reported as the three top challenges. Some differences between larger and smaller organizations in terms of both recruitment and management challenges were indicated. In addition, identified challenges varied based on the organizational role of the respondent. …LINK TO PDF
Key Words: volunteer resource management, executive directors, nonprofit staff, nonprofit management

Who Lends a Hand to Government? The Impact of Social Capital on Governmental Volunteering

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Abstract

Governmental volunteering has received increased recognition in recent years. Results of the research reported here show the impact of social capital on governmental volunteering. Based on the Texas Adults Survey, four indicators of social capital have been identified—asked to volunteer, non-religious group meeting attendance, children living in household, and norm of trust. These social capital indicators are incorporated in the governmental volunteering model, with control variables such as human capital indicators, working status, religiosity, and demographic factors (age, gender, race, etc.). The results confirm the importance of social capital in explaining governmental volunteering—individuals with greater stocks of social capital are more likely to participate in governmental volunteering. Further, the results also indicate that social capital has different impacts on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering—it plays a more important role in governmental volunteering. Research results suggest that researchers should revisit the conventional views of volunteering and incorporate social capital factors in studies of volunteering. Finally, the results offer practical value to practitioners in volunteer administration, especially practitioners in government volunteer programs—social capital factors could be used to increase volunteer recruitment in public service delivery.

Key Words: social capital; volunteering; governmental volunteering

Introduction

Volunteering—unpaid help given to benefit other people, social movements, or society at large—has been at the core of the social sciences in the last quarter century (Wilson, 2012). It is generally accepted that most volunteering occurs in nonprofit organizations, churches, and other religious groups. People sometimes do not recognize that volunteering also happens in governmental entities (Dover, 2010). Volunteers helping the government in the United States dates back to as early as the beginning of the new republic, when citizens assisted the inexperienced government in social welfare, education, the arts, and other local issues (Ellis and Campbell, 1978). Throughout history, Americans have played an active role in helping their government and their active involvement has increased government's capacity for public problem solving. Especially during this economic down turn, government volunteers fill in the gaps left by budget and staff cuts. From cleaning up highways to assisting firefighters, volunteers represent an attractive source for government in public service delivery. For example, in Virginia, Stafford County recruits residents to perform duties such as answering phone calls and cleaning up public cemeteries (Brock, 2010). In Georgia, where

appropriations for state parks shrank by 40 percent, the number of "Friends of the Georgia State Parks" volunteers has doubled over the past two years (Goodale, 2011). Such stories have become familiar as more governments start to realize the value of using volunteers in public service delivery.

Volunteerism is a type of collective social action. Individuals who volunteer typically possess a degree of compassion and commitment to others and to society as a whole. Social capital—"the collective value of all social networks and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other" —seems likely to play a role in facilitating collective social action and philanthropic behavior in a community (Putnam, 2001, p.19; Brown & Ferris, 2007). Compared to informal volunteering (such as helping a friend or a neighbor in the same church community), governmental volunteering, which is often organized through some agencies and associations, is public and formal. In this sense, it seems that governmental volunteering might require more social capital.

Research on volunteering in public agencies is not as abundant as it is in nonprofit organizations. The scarce research on governmental volunteering mostly takes an institutional perspective, examining the organizational models of government volunteer program design and management, relationship between volunteers and government staff, and barriers to utilizing volunteers in the public sector (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Rehnborg, Fallon, & Hinerfeld, 2002; Gazley & Brudney, 2005; Dover, 2010). Little research has investigated the antecedents of governmental volunteering. The authors sought to explore the impact of social capital on governmental volunteering. The research is based on Wilson and Musick's (1997) volunteer supply model, which posits that the basic resources that an individual possesses—human capital, social capital, and cultural capital—are very important predictors of volunteering (1997). A governmental volunteering model is derived from the volunteer supply model, using social capital as the primary independent variable with a variety of controls such as human capital, working status, religiosity, and other demographic factors (age, gender, race, and being native Texans). A two-part analysis is used to test the governmental volunteering model: first, a logistic regression analysis examines how social capital influences governmental volunteering; then a multinomial logistic regression further examines whether social capital influences governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering differently.

The results from the analysis confirm the importance of social capital in governmental volunteering. The logistic regression analysis shows that individuals with greater stocks of social capital are more likely to volunteer for government. The multinomial logistic regression further suggests that the role social capital plays in governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering is, to some extent, different. This study has potential contributions, both academically and practically. It deepens understanding of governmental volunteering and broadens the application of social capital concept in explaining volunteering. It also suggests that practitioners and public officials can use social capital (networks) to increase the successful recruitment of citizen volunteers in public service delivery. The sole focus on Texas residents is the limitation of the research reported here. However, this should not dilute the potential value of this study, since the survey used in this paper is by far the only one that clearly identifies governmental volunteering. Further research

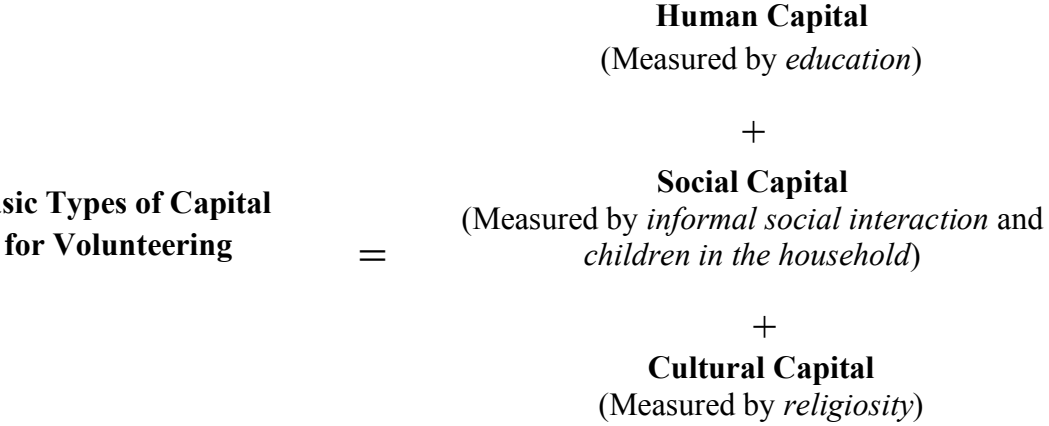
has to await national surveys on governmental volunteering.

A Sociological Theory of Volunteering—Volunteer Supply Model

Voluntary work, by nature, is a type of productive activity. Like any other type of productive activity in the labor market, individuals who provide voluntary work should possess some basic "qualifications." Scholars use the term "capital" to represent the qualifications an individual has that facilitate productive activities; for example, knowledge, social ties, the ability to use tools, etc.

Wilson and Musick (1997) examine whether different types of voluntary work demand different amounts of "capital." They find that formal volunteering, which is undertaken on behalf of a collective good, is usually directed through some organizations, and requires more social capital (See Figure 1: Wilson and Music's Volunteer Supply Model). Governmental volunteering, by this definition, is a type of formal volunteering. Because social capital is an important resource for collective action, it is reasonable to hypothesize that social capital plays an important role in governmental volunteering. Therefore, the research question is: does social capital have a positive impact on governmental volunteering? Second, does social capital have the same impact on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering?

Figure 1: Wilson and Music's Volunteer Supply Model



Modeling Governmental Volunteering

The governmental volunteering model in this study is based on Wilson and Musick's (1997) volunteer supply model, with social capital as the independent variable and a set of demographic variables as controls.

Measuring Social Capital

According to Lin (2002), social capital is the capital captured through social relations. It is defined as the "resources embedded in social networks accessed and used by actors for actions" (p. 25). This concept shows that unlike human capital (e.g., skills, knowledge, certifications, etc.), which is rooted in individuals, social capital is embedded in social relations (e.g., friendship, organization membership, etc.). It is a resource that facilitates collective actions and enhances the outcomes of these actions. Individuals with more social capital have more channels to learn about volunteer

opportunities; they are also more likely to be recognized and recruited by government agencies as volunteers. Therefore, I hypothesize that social capital has a positive impact on governmental volunteering.

One of the major weaknesses of the social capital concept is the absence of a consensus on how to measure it (Fukuyama, 2001). Because social capital is not directly observable, it can be specified in different ways. Scholars have been trying to develop "theoretically coherent and empirically valid typologies or dimensions" to measure social capital, but are nowhere near a "canonical account of the dimensions of social capital" (Putnam, 2001, p. 42). Depending on the research question, the research object, and the specific context, they measure social capital differently.

Wilson and Musick (1997) have used two indicators to measure social capital—informal social interaction and number of children in the household. The first indicator, informal social interaction, is measured by the frequency with which an individual has conversations and meetings with friends and acquaintances. The authors assume that people who have more informal social interactions tend to have more friends and are more likely to volunteer. They justify their second indicator by assuming that children in the household could draw their parents into more social interactions, such as participating in school and community activities.

Using factor analysis, Brown and Ferris (2007) have identified two dimensions of social capital based on a survey conducted by a Harvard research team. The first dimension of social capital is social network, which captures an individual's wealth of associational ties. The second dimension is the norm of social trust, which measures an individual's trust and faith in others and civic institutions.

Based on methods that scholars have adopted in measuring social capital, four dimensions of social capital have been identified for this study: 1) social interaction; 2) group meeting attendance; 3) children living in the household; and 4) norm of trust.

Asked to volunteer is used as an indicator of social interaction to measure social capital. People with more social capital and larger social networks are more likely to be asked by others for voluntary work. They are also more able to reach other people and ask others to join the volunteer work. Scholars find a positive impact of being asked to volunteer on volunteering. Bryant, Jeon-Slaughter, Kang & Tax (2003) find that 80 percent of those who have been asked to volunteer have actually volunteered, compared to only 21 percent of people who have volunteered without being asked. Wilson provides another explanation that people's behaviors are influenced by others in their social networks. For example, people may follow what their neighbors or friends do; they do not want to let their friends down when asked to volunteer (2000).

The second indicator is *non-religious group meeting attendance*, measured by whether an individual has attended meetings of any non-religious groups/associations to which he belongs. Putnam and other scholars argue that group membership facilitates the production of social capital because people who join organizations generally have more opportunities to meet others, and to develop an extensive system of social relationships (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995; La Due Lake & Huckfeldt, 1998). In his later work, Putnam uses group meeting attendance instead of group membership because the actual participation and interaction in group networks measure social capital better. Since "religiosity" is incorporated in governmental volunteering

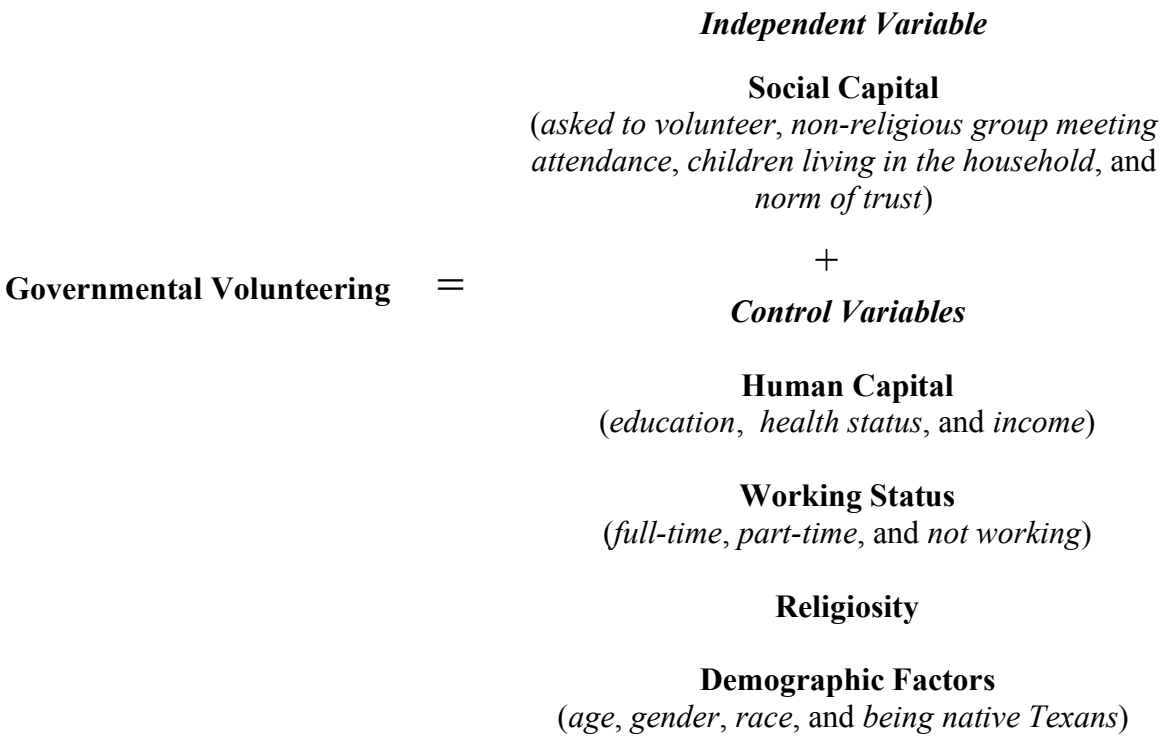
model as a control variable, religious group membership and religious group meeting attendance are excluded.

Children living in the household is the third indicator of social capital. Children "create more pressing obligations" for their parents (Wilson& Musick, 1997, p. 701). For example, school-age children create social ties that link their parents to other adults in the neighborhood and other social institutions around children's needs such as schools, youth-development groups, sports teams, and recreational organizations, most of which are likely to expect voluntary contributions (Rotolo & Wilson, 2007).

Trust is also a widely used indicator of social capital. Fukuyama (2001) has surmised that level of trust is one of the two most broadly used approaches to measure social capital (the other measure is group memberships). Scholars such as Putnam (2001), Brown, and Ferris (2007) all have found a positive impact of social trust on volunteering.

Control Variables. In addition to social capital, the model also includes variables that have been shown to be statistical significant in previous studies. These factors are grouped into four sets: 1) human capital, 2) working status, 3) religiosity, and 4) demographic factors. Figure 2 describes how these variables are incorporated in the model.

Figure 2: Governmental Volunteering Model



Data, Variables, and Method

The study reported here uses data from the Texas Adults Survey, conducted by Musick (2004) of the University of Texas at Austin. Compared to the Volunteer Supplement data from the Current Population Survey, the advantage of this data is that it identifies governmental volunteering, which allows the researchers to investigate factors that impact governmental volunteering.

The Texas Adults Survey asked whether respondents had volunteered and whether they had volunteered "for state or local government or a government-related organization... [e.g.], a public school, fire department, or licensing agency, or any work that is often done by government agencies, such as high-way clean-up or park service" (Musick, 2004, p. 34). Among the respondents, 23% of them had volunteered for government or government-related organizations. They are identified as "government volunteers". The "non-government volunteers" are those who had volunteered but did not volunteer with government. They are identified by subtracting the government volunteers from the overall volunteer population. The non-government volunteers account for 48% of the total respondents. Thus, the dependent variable describes three options a person could choose, including "no volunteering". Table 1 describes the definitions and statistics of the dependent variable, independent variables, and control variables. The proportions (means) are presented for the dummy variables, while the means and standard deviations are presented for the continuous and ordinal variable.

Table 1 Variable Definition and Descriptive Statistics

	Definition and Coding	Proportion or Mean (Std. Dev.)
Dependent Variable		
Types of Volunteering		
Government Volunteers	Volunteer for state/local government or government-related organizations over the past 12 months Coded 1 if yes	0.23
Non-Government Volunteers	Volunteer for only non-governmental organizations over the past 12 months Coded 2 if yes	0.48
No Volunteering	Did not do any volunteer work over the past 12 months Coded 3 if yes	0.29
Independent Variable		
Social Capital		
Asked to Volunteer	Has been asked to volunteer over the past 12 months Coded 1 if yes; 0 if no	0.55
Meeting Attendance	The respondent has attended non-religious group meeting in the past 12 months Coded 1 if yes; 0 if not	0.27
Children in Household	Has children currently living in the household Coded 1 if yes; 0 if no	0.48
Trust	The respondent's view of people in general, measured by a scale from 1 to 7 where 1 means that people are "perverse and corrupt" and 7 means that people are "basically good"	4.93 (1.56)
Control Variable		
Human Capital		
Education		
Master's degree or higher	Coded 1 if the respondent has a master's degree or higher degrees	0.11
Bachelor's degree or Associate degree	Coded 1 if the respondent has a bachelor's degree or associate degree	0.39

High school degree or lower	Coded 1 if the respondent has a high school degree or lower degrees	0.49
Physical Health	The respondent's physical health status, measured by a scale of 1~5 where 1 represents "Excellent", 2 represents "Very good", 3 represents "Good", 4 represents "Fair", and 5 represents "Poor"	2.53 (1.09)
Mental Health	The respondent's mental health status, measured by a scale of 1~5 where 1 represents "Excellent", 2 represents "Very good", 3 represents "Good", 4 represents "Fair", and 5 represents "Poor"	1.95 (1.00)
Income ($10,000s)	The household income divided by 10,000	6.24 (6.06)
Working Status		
Full-time	Work 52 weeks a year	0.42
Part-time	Work less than 52 weeks a year	0.12
Not Working	Not on the labor market	0.44
Religiosity	General religiosity, measured by a scale from 1 to 7 where 1 means "Not at all religious" and 7 means "Very religious"	4.85 (1.70)
Demographic Factors		
Age	The respondent's age, ranging from 18 to 94	45.70 (16.47)
Age Square	Squared age	2360.13 (1619.49)
Gender	Coded 1 if male; 0 if female	0.38
Race		
White	Coded 1 if White; 0 if not	0.65
Black	Coded 1 if African American; 0 if not	0.07
Latino	Coded 1 if Hispanic or Latino; 0 if not	0.22
Other	Coded 1 if Asian, Native American, and other races; 0 if not	0.04
Native Texans	Coded 1 if the respondent was born in Texas; 0 if not	0.56

Source: Survey of Texas Adults, 2004

Logistic regression is used and the results are reported in the form of probability changes to make the findings easier to understand. This part of the analysis allowed researchers to observe how social capital and other factors influence governmental volunteering. Secondly, a multinomial logistic regression was conducted to further examine the differences between governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering. The multinomial logistic regression compares multiple groups through a combination of binary logistic regressions. Using the non-governmental volunteering as the base category, the multinomial logistic analysis allowed researchers to observe, directly, whether social capital has different impacts on governmental and non-governmental volunteering.

Results

The results show that social capital indicators play a direct role in determining governmental volunteering. Moreover, human capital (education) and race (black) also have significant impacts on governmental volunteering (see Table 2). These results indicate the magnitude of these impacts and demonstrate the importance of incorporating social capital measures into the study of governmental volunteering.

Table 2 Logistic Analysis of Governmental Volunteering

	Logistic Coefficient	(Z-Statistics)	Changes in Predicted Probabilities
Independent Variable			
Social Capital			
Asked to Volunteer	1.25***	(6.30)	0.20
Meeting Attendance	0.53**	(2.94)	0.10
Children in Household	0.72***	(3.88)	0.12
Trust	0.01	(0.19)	0.00
Control Variable			
Human Capital			
Education			
Master's degree or higher	0.86**	(3.12)	0.17
Bachelor's degree or Associate degree	0.74***	(4.02)	0.13
Health Status			
Physical Health	0.11	(1.29)	0.02
Mental Health	-0.02	(-0.18)	-0.00
Income ($10,000s)	-0.01	(-0.57)	-0.00
Working Status			
Full-time	-0.21	(-0.86)	-0.03
Not Working	-0.21	(-0.79)	-0.03
Religiosity	0.00	(0.02)	0.00
Demographic Factors			
Age	0.02	(0.47)	0.00
Age Square	-0.00	(-0.57)	-0.00
Gender	-0.03	(-0.18)	-0.01
Race			
Black	0.88**	(2.79)	0.18
Latino	0.35	(0.11)	0.06
Other	0.07	(0.87)	0.01
Native Texans	0.13	(0.43)	0.02

*** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Source: Survey of Texas Adults, 2004

Social capital matters for governmental volunteering. The two strongest indicators are being asked to volunteer and children living in the household. Holding the other variables at their means, people who have been asked to volunteer are 20 percentage points more likely to volunteer for government; for people who currently have children living in the household, they are 12 percentage points more likely to participate in governmental volunteering. Attending group meetings also was a predictor of governmental volunteering. People who attended non-religious group meetings at least once in the past 12 months are 10 percentage points more likely to volunteer for government agencies than those who did not attend any non-religious meetings.

Human capital also matters. Holding other variables at their means, the probability of participating in governmental volunteering for people who hold a master's degree or higher is 17 percentage points greater than for people who only have high school education or less. People who have a bachelor's degree or associate degree are 13 percentage points more likely to engage in governmental volunteering than people who have a high school degree or less.

The result is interesting in terms of governmental volunteering behavior among African Americans. In general, research has found that African Americans volunteer less frequently than white Americans (Wilson, 2012). A number of studies conclude that the lack of human capital among African Americans explains this racial difference (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Wilson & Musick, 1997). The findings in this study confirm this conclusion that once controlling for social capital, human capital, and other variables, African-Americans seem to do more governmental voluntary work than comparable whites.

Multinomial regression analysis compares the different impacts of social capital on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering. According to Table 3, the impacts of being asked to volunteer on the two types of volunteering seem to be similar—a 19-percentage-point increase for governmental volunteering and 20-percentage-point increase for non-governmental volunteering. Non-religious group meeting attendance is more influential in governmental volunteering—it increases the likelihood of governmental volunteering by 11 percentage points but only by 2 percentage points for non-governmental volunteering. Children living in the household is a very strong predictor of governmental volunteering. It increases the probability of volunteering for the government by 13 percentage points. The 13-percentage-point decrease in non-governmental volunteering indicates that new volunteers who contributed to government volunteering are primarily drawn from people who would have volunteered for non-government organization.

Table 3 Multinomial Logistic Analysis of Volunteering in Different Groups

	Logistic Coefficient (Z-Statistics)		Changes in Predicted Probabilities[1]		
	Gov. Volunteers vs. Non-Gov. Volunteers		Gov. Volunteers	Non-Gov. Volunteers	No Volunteering
Independent Variable					
Social Capital					
Asked to Volunteer	0.52*	(2.48)	0.19	0.20	-0.39
Meeting Attendance	0.39*	(2.12)	0.11	0.02	-0.13
Children in Household	0.74***	(3.91)	0.13	-0.13	-0.00
Trust	-0.01	(-0.10)	0.00	0.01	-0.01
Control Variable					
Human Capital					
Education					
Master's degree or higher	0.76**	(2.69)	0.18	-0.09	-0.09
Bachelor's degree or Associate degree	0.66***	(3.51)	0.13	-0.08	-0.05
Health Status					
Physical Health	0.15	(1.61)	0.02	-0.03	0.01
Mental Health	-0.02	(-0.20)	-0.00	0.00	0.00
Income ($10,000s)	-0.01	(-0.75)	-0.00	0.00	-0.00
Working Status					
Full-time	-0.22	(-0.89)	-0.04	0.04	-0.00
Not Working	-0.24	(-0.87)	-0.04	0.05	-0.02
Religiosity	-0.02	(-0.34)	0.00	0.01	-0.01
Demographic Factors					
Age	0.02	(0.61)	0.00	-0.00	0.00

Age Square	-0.00	(-0.63)	-0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.00	(0.02)	-0.00	-0.01	0.02
Race					
Black	0.99**	(2.95)	0.18	-0.21	0.03
Latino	0.43#	(1.90)	0.07	-0.10	0.03
Other	0.13	(0.29)	0.01	-0.06	0.05
Native Texans	0.05	(0.28)	0.02	0.02	-0.04

*** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05 # p<0.1

Source: Survey of Texas Adults, 2004

Note1: Some of the changes in predicted possibilities in the three volunteer groups do not add up to 0 due to rounding.

Indicators of human capital also show different impacts on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering. Compared to individuals who only have high school education or less, those with bachelor's or higher degrees are more likely to volunteer for government agencies and seem to be less likely to be involved in non-governmental volunteering.

The multinomial logistic regression results show an even more striking preference among African-Americans to participate in governmental volunteering. Holding all the other variables at their means, African-Americans are 18 percentage points more likely to volunteer for government agencies than comparable whites, while they are 21 percentage points less likely than whites to participate in non-governmental volunteering.

Conclusion

This study is derived from Wilson and Musick (1997) volunteer supply model with the perspective that voluntary work, like any other type of productive activity, requires basic resources (social capital, human capital, etc.) that enable individuals to be "qualified" enough to enter the volunteer labor market.

The logistic regression results suggest that social capital plays an important role in governmental volunteering. Individuals with greater stocks of social capital—those who are more likely to be asked to volunteer, who are members of non-religious groups/associations and attend group meetings, and who have children currently living in the household—tend to be more likely to participate in governmental volunteering. The multinomial logistic regression results further indicate that the role social capital plays in shaping the generosity toward governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering, to some extent, is different. Being asked to volunteer increases the probability of volunteering for both government agencies and non-governmental organizations to almost the same extent. Factors such as non-religious group meeting attendance and children living in the household serve as stronger predictors of governmental volunteering.

The two-part analysis clearly suggests that social capital matters in governmental volunteering. These results highlight the importance of individuals' children and their associations in connecting them to others and to organizations that encourage them to get involved in public service delivery. Because the original survey question did not ask if those respondents who had volunteered for government agencies also had volunteered for any non-government organizations, the "government volunteers" variable might include some who have volunteered for both government agencies and non-governmental organizations, although the "non-government volunteers" are strictly those who only have volunteered for non-governmental organizations. It is reasonable to expect that if those non-government volunteers could be excluded from the government volunteers group in this model, the different impacts of social capital on governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering might become clearer. A more rigorous test of the impacts of social capital on the two types of volunteering has to await data that permits the disaggregation of governmental volunteering and non-governmental volunteering.

The results from the analysis also enable the researchers to draw a number of other conclusions. For example, it is possible that the lower volunteer rates for African-Americans are primarily accounted for by African-Americans' lower stocks of social capital, human capital, and other

resources that inhibit them volunteering. Controlling for those resources, African-Americans show even higher volunteer rates than comparable whites in helping government with public service delivery. This probably resonates with some research that besides religious volunteering, African Americans are also more likely than white volunteers to focus on needs in the black community—efforts to deal with crime, provide human services, and organize for local political initiatives, most of which are government-related work (Sundeen, 1992; Portney & Berry, 1997).

In all, this study has important implications for the understanding of social capital's role in volunteering, especially in governmental volunteering. It suggests that the conventional wisdom from previous studies of volunteering may need to be revisited in light of the omission of social capital factors. It also provides insights to practitioners in volunteer resource mangement that social capital factors could be used to increase volunteer recruitment. The strategic use of social ties could bring more hands from citizens to help volunteer administrators in public agencies with public service delivery.

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Public Service Motivation from the Volunteer Resource Manager Perspective

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Abstract

Qualitative research on public service motivation (PSM) is rare, and volunteer resource manager perspectives on PSM have not been explored in the research literature, even though volunteer resource managers deal directly with individuals involved in voluntary work that could be expected to be driven by inspiration and motivation. Using data generated from in-person biographical interviews with Birmingham-area volunteer resource managers, the study reported here examined the PSM values of volunteer resource managers and looks at their perspectives on the role of PSM on civic action, recruiting, and maintaining volunteers. The analyses of interview data reveal the critical role of the demand side of volunteering and suggest implications for both researchers and the profession. Increased attention to the quality of engagement for volunteers, and articulating the motivational aspect, may enhance the experiences of volunteers as well as volunteer resource managers, which are both key resources for nonprofit service organizations.

Key Words: Public service motivation, volunteering, volunteer management, non-profits

Introduction

Understanding what motivates individuals to engage in civic and participatory behavior is central to policy making. In the field of public administration, scholars have developed a theory of public service motivation (PSM) to refer to individuals' pro-social predisposition to contribute to society through the delivery of public services in public organizations (Perry & Wise, 1990). Recent work has expanded the concept to include meaningful public, community, and social service, benefiting others in all settings (Brewer & Selden, 1998). With respect to this, the PSM literature has mainly focused on comparisons of public-sector employees to others in terms of: motivations (Lewis & Frank, 2002); work-related outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment, or turnover (Pandey & Stazyk, 2008); and participation behaviors such as volunteering (Brewer, 2003; Houston, 2008; Ertas, 2012). Since volunteering is an essential form of civic engagement, scholars in several fields—including non-profit management and leadership, sociology, and economics—have studied several factors that encourage or facilitate volunteerism, including social background characteristics, participation resources, and the contextual factors (Clary et al., 1998; Smith, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997). One important contextual factor that has generated a number of recent research studies in this literature is volunteer management capacity and practices in social service organizations. Many charitable organizations depend on volunteers to provide their services—in fact, Hager (2004) estimates that about 80% of nonprofits use volunteers to assist them in service production. Consequently, an increasing number of organizations have been investing in volunteer resource managers (VRMs) to

streamline their volunteer engagement processes. VRMs are typically involved in recruiting, coordinating, and administering volunteers, and may also have the responsibility for overall strategic planning for volunteering.

The scholarly literature on both PSM and VRMs contains critical gaps, and it is these gaps which inform the research questions posed in this study. First, although we know that the way volunteers are involved and managed shapes their experience and motivation, evidence from the perspective of the managers is quite limited (Hager & Brudney, 2004). Second, the relationship between PSM and civic action is not clearly specified and studied (Houston, 2008). Third, most studies rely on quantitative analyses and cross-sectional secondary data that was not collected to measure PSM or its relation to civic action, and this diminishes the contextual realism and relevancy of research findings for practitioners (Wright & Grant, 2010). This article responds to recent calls for more qualitative research to understand whether or how organizations seek to influence PSM (p. 697).

More specifically, this study aims to address some of these gaps, and so contribute to the literature on the behavioral implications of PSM theory and research on volunteer management, by using data generated from in-person biographical interviews with VRMs. This project sought to explore whether there is any substance to the presumed PSM–volunteerism relationship from the volunteer manager perspective, by asking the following research questions: (a) What are the perceptions related to the motivations of volunteers among VRMs? (b) Do VRMs use motivational aspects of volunteering to tailor their management strategies? (c) Do VRMs perceive PSM values to be important in their own career decisions? The results presented here describe the VRMs' perceptions of these motivations, and the discussion includes the implications for charitable organizations and for future research.

Literature Review

Before providing more detail on the method and discussing the results, the following subsections provide background on research related to volunteer management, volunteerism and public service relationship, and PSM.

Research on Volunteer Management: Practitioners have long discussed the need for better management of volunteer programs (Ellis, 1996). Those who work with volunteers on a day-to-day basis recognize the importance of having systems and expertise in place to support service production in a charitable setting. The experiences of volunteers influence how they feel and thus whether or not they will return to the organization themselves and/or invite others to support the organization. This general wisdom did not, however, translate immediately into systematic research. In 1998, the UPS Foundation commissioned the first national study of volunteer management. The goal was to document volunteer management capacity and the extent of use of best practice in nonprofits. One of the most striking findings of this study concerned the causes of volunteer attrition. About two-fifths of volunteers reported that they had stopped volunteering for an organization because of experiences of poor volunteer management practice (UPS Foundation, 1998).

Motivated by these findings, Hager and Brudney (2004) began collecting data for their 2003 volunteer management capacity study, drawing on the experiences of charities nationwide. They examined the extent of adoption of nine management practices, including regular supervision and communication with volunteers, training for

paid staff in working with volunteers, training and professional development opportunities for volunteers, evaluation of the impacts of volunteers, recognition activities, written policies and job descriptions for volunteer involvement, screening procedures, information monitoring, and use of liability coverage. They showed that the degree of adoption of these practices varies by the size and domain of the charity, as well as the extent to which volunteers are used in direct service roles. Only the practice of regular supervision and communication with volunteers was found to have been adopted by the majority of the charities surveyed. Furthermore, Hager and Brudney (2004) found that many organizations still did not have a professional VRM devoted solely to coordinating volunteers. In sum, the systematic research in the area focused on the adoption of best practice. Routes into volunteer resource manager careers, workplace outcomes, or manager perspectives on other subjects have not been studied.

Volunteerism and Public Service: Public service and volunteerism are both conceptualized as constitutive of pro-social behavior aimed to benefit others. Although there is not much engagement between the volunteerism and public administration literatures, a review of core studies reveal that volunteering and public service are explained by similar theories and values (Clary et al. 1998; Coursey, Brudney, Littlepage, & Perry, 2011; Musick & Wilson, 2008). Studies in the field of public administration found consistently higher rates of volunteering by government and non-profit workers compared to private-sector workers (Brewer, 2003; Houston, 2008; Lee, 2011; Ertas, 2012; 2013) and interpreted this disparity by the higher PSM levels of employees in these careers. PSM was originally defined as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (p. 368). Extant PSM studies have showed that individuals with higher levels of PSM tend to rank intrinsic motivations—such as having a meaningful job, helping others, and being useful to society—higher than extrinsic rewards—such as money, praise, and fame (Lewis & Frank, 2002).

Individual behavior, including career choice or volunteering, is shaped by the individual's motivation to satisfy their needs. In developing the PSM measure, public administration scholars considered motives that would draw individuals to public service, and included four dimensions in the resulting empirical construct for PSM. Each dimension serves one or more distinct categories of rational (based on individual utility maximization), norm-based (based on efforts to conform to norms), and affective (based on emotional responses) motives (Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982). For example, the dimension of *attraction to public policy making* is conceptualized as a rational motive that represents "an opportunity to participate in the formulation of public policy and increase one's image of self-importance" (Perry, 1996, p. 6). The dimension of *commitment to public interest/civic duty* is a norm-based motive based on altruism and an obligation to support social justice for those who lack resources. The *compassion* dimension is an affective motive that involves the practice of benevolence in serving others and unconditional protection of the rights of others. Finally, the *self-sacrifice* dimension is conceptualized as another affective motive that represents "the willingness to substitute service to others for tangible personal rewards" (Perry, 1996, p. 7). A more recent line of PSM research, which focuses on its behavioral implications, has hypothesized that some of these same PSM

values that attract individuals to public service may also lead them into other pro-social behaviors such as volunteering. In addition to coordination and management, one of the main roles of many VRMs is to inspire people to contribute their time to serving others, match their skills and motives to volunteer roles, and maintain their motivation to serve with limited forms of extrinsic rewards. Following the same logic, it seems plausible to conclude that the same PSM values may also be a factor in choosing a career in volunteer resource management.

Volunteerism studies have often used functional theory to understand the motives behind volunteering, finding that individuals prefer tasks with benefits that match their personally relevant motives (Clary et al., 1998; Houle, Sagarin, and Kaplan, 2005). Functional theory also adopts a motivational perspective to understand the processes that move people to initiate and sustain action. The functional analysis of volunteerism posits that people volunteer to satisfy different underlying motivational processes. Drawing on this theory, Clary et al. (1998) developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) classification to sort motivational functions served by volunteerism into six functions: values, understanding, social motives, career motives, protective motives, and enhancement. The first VFI category ('Values') considers volunteerism as "a way to express one's altruistic and humanitarian values" (Clary et al., 1998, pp. 1517–19). This function refers to altruism and contributions to society, which overlap with several dimensions of the PSM construct and were consistently found in research studies to be a distinguishing characteristic of volunteers and volunteer maintenance (Cnaan, Hand, & Wadsworth, 1996; Musick & Wilson, 2008). Subsequent research has refined and tested several propositions of the functional approach, which emphasize the importance of matching volunteer motivations to the benefits that volunteerism provides. Individuals are found to respond to opportunities that provide a stronger match for their motives, and to feel more satisfied with their experience when they perceive the benefits and motives to be congruent (Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005).

Since the characteristics of the volunteer organization and the quality of the volunteering experience affect the satisfaction, retention, and performance of volunteers, it is fitting to examine the extent to which VMRs consider the differing volunteer motives of the individuals they work with.

Data and Methods

This article presents an exploratory study that furthers our understanding of the general relationship between PSM and volunteerism. In order to provide an in-depth discussion of manager perspectives, VRMs from the Greater Birmingham Association of Volunteer Resource Managers (GBAVM) were invited to participate in face-to-face qualitative biographical interviews. GBAVM is a professional voluntary group, a networking organization for individuals who are responsible for the administration of volunteer service programs in several nonprofit organizations in the region. During the discussion of the results in the next section, pseudonyms are used in the place of real names and any details about participants and their organizations that may lead to identification have been removed per IRB requirements. Whenever respondents are directly quoted, pseudonyms are used. Each interview lasted from 90 to 120 minutes. All the interviews were transcribed and analysed using elements of an interpretive biographical methodology and thematic analyses. The narratives are rich and multi-

faceted, detailing several aspects of their careers. For this study, the interview transcripts were examined and sorted around the theme of manager perspectives on motivations in general and PSM in particular.

The study can be thought of as a simple qualitative exploration and description, with narrative overtones (Sandelowski, 2000, pp. 334-339). The biographical interview method collects and analyses a portion of a life, usually through in-depth but unstructured interview. This method involves the use of "personal-life documents, stories, accounts, and narratives which describe turning-point moments in individuals' lives" (Denzin, 1989, p. 123). The semi-structured interview instrument used in the current work comprised a small number of open-ended questions concerning the respondent's career path to a VRM position, challenges on the job, and their perspectives on volunteer motivations. The intention was to allow the participant to direct the interview around these themes. The managers were asked about their opinions on the motivations of the volunteers, but not about themselves particularly. The aim was to allow for free association in order to observe whether PSM values emerged from their narrative organically. Six unstructured interviews lasting about one-and-a-half hours each were conducted and tape-recorded with consent. The group currently has about 40 members, so this corresponds to about 10% of members. Despite reflecting a diversity of experiences in volunteer management careers in terms of service area and organizational size, this sample is clearly not representative of all managers in the nation or even in the region. Therefore, it is important to note explicitly that the goal of this project is not generalizability in the traditional sense, but rather to generate conclusions amenable to "transferability" to other settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316) and to develop "moderatum generalizations" that can be tested with further work (Payne & Williams, 2005). In qualitative research, and especially in the interpretivist qualitative research tradition, generalizing claims are less explicit (e.g., Denzin, 1989; Marshall & Rossman, 1995). This does not mean that the number of participants or settings in a study is unimportant or that generalizability is not desirable, but simply that here it is not possible to achieve traditional generalizability based on a statistical probability framework. Instead, this study adopted Yin's (2002) case study logic, as suggested by Small (2013) and Baxter and Jack (2008) for in-depth interview-based research, and treats the in-depth interviews as multiple cases rather than units in a small-sample study. Yin differentiates between "statistical generalization" (generalization to some defined population that has been sampled) and "analytic generalization" (generalization to a theory of the phenomenon being studied). In this study, there is no claim to statistical representativeness; instead the idea is that the results contribute to a general theory of the phenomenon. In this work, the goal was not to compare these cases to each other or, for example, to the general population of volunteer managers across the nation. The goal was to provide insight into the phenomenon being studied (whether PSM matters to volunteer managers), and to help refine a theory (in this case, the PSM theory).

As a result, the conclusions resemble 'moderatum generalizations', meaning that they are not attempts to produce "sweeping statements that hold good over long periods of time or across ranges of contexts" (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 297), but rather testable propositions subject to further exploration. This current study was in fact conducted to

lay the groundwork for our larger empirical survey project, involving a survey of volunteer administrators in order to examine the relationship between PSM and several work-related outcomes. This project sought to explore whether there is any substance to the presumed PSM–volunteerism relationship from the volunteer manager perspective, by way of justifying the larger project. The interview data provided enough narrative content to enable developing moderatum generalizations (in other words, conclusions that have a hypothetical character).

Results

Although the raw data provides extensive information on several dimensions of volunteer management, the results of the current study were based primarily on those of the VRMs' responses that were relevant to our research questions. The emerging themes are presented under two broad clusters. The section titled "motivations of volunteers" focuses on answers to the first two questions (What are the perceptions related to motivations of volunteers among VRMs? Do VRMs use motivational aspects of volunteering to tailor their management strategies?). The section titled "motivations for VRMs" focuses on answering the question, Do VRMs perceive PSM values to be important in their own career decisions? Participant quotes, identified in italics, are included as supportive illustrations of particular observations.

Motivations of Volunteers: All VRMs were keen to comment on the motivations that compel their volunteers to action. When they were asked directly to comment on some of the main reasons people volunteer, the first few reasons managers cited did not strictly follow the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) classification. The most immediate response was not "helping the community or others". All the managers mentioned a basic level of self-serving motivation and fulfilling compulsory requirements first, followed by relational drives, and attachment to a cause. Managers cited an opportunity for "relaxation" and doing something they love as a main drive for many of their volunteers. In particular, those VRMs who recruit volunteers to do skill-based tasks mentioned volunteers who were motivated to participate in order to gain relevant skills that would contribute to their careers. VRMs also provided examples of how volunteering provides an opportunity for individuals to meet new people who share similar interests and values.

VRMs incorporated motives into their management strategies in various subtle ways. First, they were constantly involved in 'motivation monitoring', a continuous process that involves gathering information on volunteer motives to provide feedback into their management styles and retention efforts. Secondly, they mentioned instances of structuring their leadership styles or recruitment and retention techniques to highlight certain aspect of opportunities, based on the driving motivators of their volunteers. For example, a few VRMs mentioned arranging recruitment meetings at schools targeted to students in selected fields, where these events highlight the volunteering opportunity as a way to gain knowledge, skills, and abilities, improving career aspects, as well as helping others. Others mentioned emphasizing volunteering as an opportunity to meet new people with similar interests, especially for individuals who are new into the local area. Some VRMs were keeping in touch with some of their regular volunteers outside of the structured volunteer time, for instance by a simple handwritten 'thinking of you' card or an occasional phone call. This was particularly

addressed to their regular volunteers who were invested in the organization.

As the narratives unfolded, it became clear that altruistic and humanitarian concern for others is the all-encompassing theme that infuses the way managers see meaning in their work and how they relate it to their volunteers. In a classroom setting, when the issue of volunteerism is raised for students, helping others is usually the first notion that comes to mind. Yet the managers interviewed are not discussing volunteerism as an academic exercise: for them it is hands-on work, and this practical approach is reflected in their descriptions. The in-depth discussions reveal the layers of motives that they identify, and demonstrate that volunteering is not an either/or choice for any volunteer. Individuals volunteer for a combination of reasons, and feeling better by doing something meaningful—in other words, by helping others—is typically a part of the combination. Sometimes this is not clearly articulated. From the managers' perspective, instilling and cultivating this good feeling appears to be key to retaining volunteers and is what makes people come back.

In sum, the analysis of the personal interview transcripts revealed that the managers have a very sophisticated understanding of the motivational aspects of volunteering and use this information to tailor marketing calls to find volunteers, organize their work, and recognize their contributions. General altruistic and humanitarian concern for others, or several facets of the commitment to public interest and compassion dimensions of PSM, appear as the message embedded in the meaning of the volunteer work, as articulated by VRMs to their volunteers. We end the section with the words of one VRM:

"*I just think they (volunteers) just really want to help out. They've got free time. They feel like they're blessed, so they want to return—I want to say favor. They want to believe it is a good cause too. They would give you as much time as you asked from them as long as you feel like it is a good cause.*" Josh, November 13, 2012.

Motivations for VRMs: It was remarkable that even though the VRMs were not asked to list their motivations specifically, they offered plentiful anecdotes, narratives, and emotions concerning motivational themes. Due to space constraints, I focus here on three observations that appear in multiple narratives.

First is the organic bond which managers detect between themselves and the volunteers they work with as they navigate their motives and develop ways to recruit and maintain their volunteer workforce. VRMs know that keeping volunteers engaged and satisfied is facilitated by understanding their motivations. A major reference point for these professionals was their own experience. All managers reported an appreciation of the innate instinct to help others, and cited examples of life-changing moments as they ventured into the nonprofit sector and their current careers. For some it was a personal incident, while others were driven by specific causes they cared about. In all instances, these narratives evoke strong appreciation of benevolence from others that informed their sense of compassion in serving others.

Second is the direct association between job satisfaction and having a job that affords opportunities to provide self-actualization. According to Maslow's well-known motivation theory, self-actualization is the highest-level need, and refers to reaching one's full potential, where self-actualized people tend to have motivators such as truth, justice, wisdom, and meaning (Maslow, 1948). Public service motivation fits at the top of the Maslow's hierarchy of need, since attaching meaning to serving and

even prioritizing needs of others, possibly at the expense of an imperfect valuation of one's own efforts, may only be possible after lower needs have been met. Despite their tremendous workload and—typically—low pay, VRMs reported feeling motivated, inspired, and respected, and this contentment was supported by their altruism, the opportunity to work towards causes they care about, and the meaningfulness of the work. Managers said that these benefits made their job worthwhile despite the low pay.

The third observation is the use of the term 'building connections' by VRMs. Building connections was not expressed solely in terms of networking and the cultivation of productive relationships for employment or career. As an advantage that their job afforded them, VRMs emphasized remaining connected to their communities, disadvantaged populations, and those in need. The value the managers place on "being connected" emanated from the same self-actualization goals. They articulated this connection as a desirable and worthwhile goal in itself.

In sum, VRMs, themselves exhibit a strong commitment to public service values, specifically helping others—in fact, this was the primary drive that directed these individuals to choose the non-profit sector and the particular role they assumed in their organizations. This theme became most apparent when they reflected on whether they were receiving enough compensation for the work they do. It was clear that their cost–benefit comparison was only balanced because of the high premium they put on the public service opportunities provided by these careers. As one VRM puts it concisely:

"*Sometimes when we are looking at peers who are maybe working at corporate and making a lot more money than we do, it can be discouraging. But I think we're all the kind of people who care a lot about the work. So you know we didn't get in this line of work for the material compensation.*" Cathy, December 13, 2012.

Finally, an unexpected theme that emerged from these narratives was the development of self-reflection by VRMs on motivational aspects of their career. Self-reflection is the process of exercising introspection regarding values, viewpoints, and experiences. It is a common strategy discussed in leadership literature, because self-reflection leads to self-awareness, a common trait of successful leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Most of the VRMs acknowledged the value of the process of thinking about motivations as the interviews progressed. They began identifying further examples to illustrate role of motives, and their explanations of the logic behind their strategies and motivations became clearer and stronger.

Discussion and Conclusion

Overall, the results confirmed the presence of a PSM–volunteerism relationship from the volunteer manager perspective. This study aimed to contribute to a better understanding of public service motivation by examining a distinct perspective, those of VRMs. These individuals have made a career of reaching out to potential volunteers, providing them a worthwhile experience, and making sure their contributions benefit the organization and the communities their organizations serve. Three questions guided the analysis in this paper. What are the perceptions related to motivations of volunteers among VRMs? Do VRMs use motivational aspects of volunteering to tailor their management strategies? and, Do VRMs perceive public service motivation values to be important in their own career decisions? Findings suggest that the answers to last two are both affirmative. Examination of the in-depth narratives reveals that VRMs have

developed a sophisticated understanding of the motivational factors affecting volunteers they work with and use this insight in their work. One sweeping motive that informs their relations with volunteers is the altruistic pro-social nature of volunteering behavior. They have also indicated that the managers have PSM values themselves and that those values influenced their career choices. Their narratives contained elements of commitment to public interest and the compassion dimensions of PSM, but not the same degree of attraction to policy making or self-sacrifice.

These findings have implications for both researchers and the profession. First, further qualitative and quantitative research is needed to clarify the linkages between PSM, pro-social participation behavior, and work-related outcomes, to improve our understanding. As discussed earlier, the conclusions from the study rely on limited qualitative data and, as a result, express moderatum generalizations that need to be supported or refuted with future research.

One line of investigation might look in greater depth at the strategies VRMs, as nonprofit leaders, use to help nurture and meet their volunteers' PSM needs. Another line of investigation could focus on the influence of different dimensions of PSM on VRMs' own behaviors and attitudes regarding work such as satisfaction, productivity, or burnout. Finally, investigation of organizational influences may provide critical knowledge about the role of on-the-job experiences and organizational policies on generating or maintaining the public service motivation of its employees.

In considering practical implications, it is important to note that nonprofit organizational performance is dependent upon effective human resource management. VRMs manage volunteers, where the latter is one integral component of human resources for many non-profit organizations. Previous research has suggested that PSM could be used as a tool to enhance employee and organizational performance (Paarlberg & Hondeghem, 2008). VRMs may adopt similar strategies that incorporate public service values in their efforts to provide an enriching experience for their volunteers. For example, they may provide opportunities for newcomers to learn about organizational values and expectations that reflect public service values (Paarlberg & Hondeghem, 2008), or they may create direct or indirect contact between volunteers and the beneficiaries of their work to highlight the pro-social impact they are making (Grant, 2008). Since VRMs do not have much tangible rewards to offer to their volunteers, adopting motivational tools are especially critical. Although limited in its scope, from a practical perspective the narrative analyses have also suggested that self-reflection could be a powerful vehicle for identifying and developing strategies to motivate pro-social behavior. A systematic effort to articulate the role of motivations and civic action can reap benefits in the short run for leaders and VRMs of nonprofit service organizations.

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Community Volunteer Leadership in West Virginia: Key Incentives and Influences that Enhance Involvement

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Abstract

Many organizations must count on volunteers to provide core services (Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992). Since community organizations play a vital role in a community's quality of life, it is important to learn about community leader characteristics and what incentives and influences motivate them to volunteer. The purpose of the study reported here was to identify incentives and influences that enhance volunteer leader participation in West Virginia communities. The target population consisted of members from the West Virginia Regional Planning and Development Council and the West Virginia Economic Development Council. Findings revealed top incentives and indicate distinctive preference for volunteering in leadership roles. A unique disparity to the national data regarding educational level and amount of hours volunteered was realized. The information from the study provides empirical data that can be used for effective volunteer recruitment practices and guide programming designed to improve job satisfaction of community volunteer leaders.

Key Words: volunteer leadership, community leadership, leadership motivation

Introduction

The volunteer rate in West Virginia is declining. As a source of possible leaders, volunteers are perhaps the most essential, yet ignored, resource in all communities, especially in those with limited or no professional staff. Because good leadership is a key to a strong community, it is imperative to understand incentives and influences that enhance volunteer leader involvement for successful recruitment, placement and retention; ultimately leading to stronger communities and quality of life. This article presents unique community leader characteristics as well as key incentives and influences that enhance volunteer involvement.

Review of Literature

When it comes to civic voluntarism, Verba, Schlozman and Brady's (1995) identified two main factors for active volunteer participation. These factors include motivation and the capacity to participate in political life. A volunteer must want to be active given that participation is a choice in America. Resource considerations should be taken seriously when it involves volunteer participation, such as how much time and money an individual has, and their individual strengths. If an individual has motivation and resources, they are more likely to volunteer when asked (Verba et al., 1995). Because community leader volunteers play a valuable role in the functioning of communities, it is important for organizations to understand what motivates volunteers to hold leadership roles. For the purpose of this study, the definition used for community leadership was developed by the National Extension

Task Force on Community Leadership. This definition states:

> …community leadership is that which involves influence, power, and input into public decision-making over one or more spheres of activity. The spheres of activity may include an organization, an area of interest, an institution, and/or activities organization. The leadership skills include those necessary for public decision-making, policy development, program implementation, and organizational maintenance. (Langone, 1992, p. 1)

Incentives for community volunteer leaders include working together to reach a common goal, making connections and building networks. Putnam (2000) refers to social capital as the connections among individuals such as social networks and the norms of mutual benefit and trustworthiness that result from them. Social capital is related to "civic virtue" that is the cultivation of habits of personal living. These collective habits are important for the success of the community and are most powerful when embedded in a concentrated network of social relations (Putnam, 2000). Coleman (1988) examined social capital in the family and in the adult community surrounding high school and revealed evidence of value in decreasing the probability of dropping out of high school.

A number of studies on volunteer leadership motivation focus on the baby boomer population due to the retirement age of this population. Baby boomers are more financially well off and have more expendable income than other previous generations of retirees. Furthermore, baby boomers are more educated and skilled and exhibit greater independence (Culp, 2009). The findings of these studies emphasize the importance of identifying a good fit for the volunteer and the organization based on the volunteer's skills and interests and indicates that they will seek volunteer opportunities that use their skills (Culp, 2009; Lindblom, 2001). Baby boomers are looking for volunteer leadership opportunities that will work with their schedules. They identify opportunities through faith communities, because they were asked directly, or through participating in their children's activities (Culp, 2009; Lindblom, 2001). Culp (2009) also found that the socio-economic characteristics of the baby boomer generation are distinctly different from that of earlier generations.

Age is a factor in the way in which volunteers are recruited and motivated. Culp (2009) discovered the importance of considering different skills and administrative strategies when working with multi-generational volunteers. He indicated the importance of tailoring community leadership recruitment strategies to particular volunteer groups. Specifically, baby boomers are different in terms of their demographics and motivation from other generations and will seek different volunteer experiences. Baby boomers seek experiences that will use their skills, fulfill their interests, and fit their schedules (Culp, 2009).

Lindblom (2011) conducted a study in Minnesota to assess baby boomer involvement through current and past volunteer activities, in both the metro area and rural community. A literature review was conducted to create the basis for the study. This framework was then used to develop questions for individual interviews and focus group sessions. Twenty-three baby boomers were involved in the study. Information was gathered in three areas that included motivations to volunteer, volunteer recruitment, and how they view retirement. The findings revealed incentives are much more important than traditional volunteer recognition activities or rewards for baby

boomers. These incentives are both tangible and intangible. For instance, tangible incentives include asking someone to return a service or receiving free or discounted tuition for continued education. Intangible incentives include companionship or opportunities to volunteer as a group (Lindblom, 2001).

In a study of 346 adults aged 50 years and over, Rouse and Clawson (1992) found older adult volunteers were motivated by preferred purposive incentives and affiliation. The participants identified achievement motives as inspiring them to use their time constructively by drawing on their skills and learning new things. Purposive incentives helped their volunteer organization because volunteers received satisfaction from being involved in making a difference in their community. The affiliation motives consisted of working with others with warmth and friendliness and an interest in helping others. For example, of the 346 participants 85.5% 4-H youth volunteers said they want to spend time with youth (Rouse & Clawson, 1992).

Culp and Schwartz (1999) found that every volunteer administration model includes motivation as a key component. The research on motivation suggests that while some individuals are driven by material concerns, others are motivated by experiences and identities rather than material goods making a significant difference in the lives of others or affecting a cause to which they are strongly committed (Frey & Osterloh, 2005; Ghoshal, 2005; Grant, 2007). Not only do positive childhood experiences, religion and professional life have an effect on volunteer motivation, concerns for society's welfare, community and social ties were included. Personal values, humanistic concerns and enhanced relationships also emerged as motivators. Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) concluded in order to retain volunteers over time, helping volunteers recognize compensation must outweigh the costs. Motivation was also linked to personal values. In a study seeking to understand county-level Extension leadership as it relates to volunteer board member motivation, Farris, McKinley, Ayres, Peters and Brady (2009) found that volunteer leaders were motivated by the community-related aspects of their service. Sixty-seven percent of volunteer leaders indicated they served on the County Extension Board because their work was benefiting others in the community. In this same study, 75% of the participants perceived increased knowledge, more awareness and satisfaction and enhanced relationships as a result of serving on the board. Inglis and Cleave (2006) found similar results in a study assessing volunteer board motivation conducted in a Canada metropolitan region. They found community board members most motivated were those with a community focus and with the understanding that their efforts would help others rather than by increasing their own self-worth. The highest motivational factors were associated with "opportunity to work toward a good cause", "opportunity to respond to community needs" and "opportunity to make a difference in the quality of life in my community". A Minnesota study (Byrne & Caskey, 1985) asked volunteers what incentives motivated them to volunteer for 4-H. Eighty-eight percent indicated that knowing they have done a good job, or making a contribution to something important was the main motive. Seventy-eight percent indicated that receiving an expression of appreciation from a 4-H member was the motivation. In addition, 48% said they would be motivated by receiving training that helps them do their job well (Byrne & Caskey, 1985).

Individuals are motivated in different ways because of the many different human

needs. Perry (1997) studied motives for public service with regard to several hypothesized antecedents. He used an instrument to measure public service motivation (PSM) by investigating the relationship of PSM to five sets of correlates. These correlates include parental socialization, religious socialization, professional identification, political ideology and individual demographic characteristics. The results indicated that volunteer motivation comes from being exposed to many different experiences. These experiences were associated with childhood, religion and professional life (Perry, 1997). Clark and Wilson (1961) studied incentive systems and identified three types that included material, solidary, and purposive. Their research revealed incentives related to social status, sociability and "fun" positively influenced the organizations and efforts to become wealthier were negatively influential.

The review of literature looked at demographic characteristics that make up a community volunteer leader. Individuals 35-44 years of age were more likely to volunteer than those older or younger without pay. Adults with a college degree and employed were more likely to volunteer as well as individuals with a higher income. There was little difference in the number of men and women volunteers. The review revealed Baby Boomer volunteers (born between 1946 and 1964) were more educated, skilled and financially well off as well as required greater independence. Additionally, Baby Boomers were motivated by incentives and not as motivated by traditional volunteer recognition activities or rewards. Adults 50 years of age and older were motivated by preferred purposive incentives and affiliation, such as working with others with warmth and friendliness and an interest in helping others.

Studies associated with motivational desires and incentives were part of the review of literature. Not only do positive childhood experiences, religion and professional life have an effect on volunteer motivation, concerns for society's welfare, community and social ties were included. Personal values, humanistic concerns and enhanced relationships also emerged as motivators.

No effort was found in the research to develop an approach to understand motivational factors specific to community development volunteer leaders in rural areas. Furthermore, there were no specific research found that identified the motivational desires possessed by volunteer community leaders. The following research will help identify the motivational desires of volunteer leaders in the community development field. Once desires are identified, an attempt will be made to discriminate between individuals who are motivated to volunteer by their motivational factors based on their desire to volunteer. From these findings, recruitment and appropriate placement of leader volunteers can be made based on their motivation to volunteer.

Methodology

Descriptive research methodologies were used to summarize the characteristics of the population and used to describe the key incentives and influences that motivate individuals to volunteer in community leadership roles.

The target population for this study was a purposeful sample of community volunteer leaders from the community development field associated with the West Virginia Regional Planning and Development Council and the West Virginia Economic Development Council (N = 577). The individuals in these two councils included mayors, city council members, county commissioners, city managers and

other elected officials. These councils focus on community and economic needs in West Virginia communities.

Demographic questions were included in the survey to determine gender, age, race, paid versus non-paid leader, previous training, needs for future training, educational background and educational level. Dillman's tailored design (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009) was followed for data collection which included five mailing attempts to gather data from the population. Non-response error was assessed by conducting a comparison of early respondents to late respondents. There were no differences between the two groups.

Findings

A total of 285 instruments were returned for a 49.4 % response rate. The majority of the respondents were male (68.1%). In relation to the general volunteer population, this percentage is inconsistent with Hayghe (1991) who found that there is little difference in the number of men and women volunteers in America. Baby boomers (1946 –1964) were the highest percentage (52.8%) of respondents for this study.

Over 50% of the respondents had earned at least a four-year college degree (55.4%). A cross tabulation of educational level and amount of volunteer hours revealed over half (54.2%) of respondents who were high school graduates or equivalent (GED) had the highest amount of volunteer hours (more than 12 hours per week) as to compared to the other higher education level respondents who had the lower amount of volunteer hours. Community services projects (86.5%) and government associations (78.4%) were the top two activities or groups where the high school graduate or equivalent respondents volunteered their time.

Most of the respondents worked full time (65%) and 77.9% were currently volunteering in a leadership role. When asked to specify their current volunteer leadership role, the largest percentage (26%) indicated they were working with non-profits. The majorities of respondents live and volunteer in rural/non-farm areas (59%) and were trained in developing leadership skills (69%). A high percentage of volunteers did not receive payment for volunteering (88.7%) and volunteered for two - four organizations (63.9%). Findings showed that the majority of respondents volunteer for four or more hours per week with only 32.9% of the individuals volunteering 1-3 hours per week.

Frequencies and percentages were used to describe the key incentives that motivate individuals to volunteer in community leadership roles. One-hundred-seventy two individuals (60.1%) indicated flexible meeting schedule was their key incentive and 132 respondents (46.2%) indicated networking. One-hundred five respondents (36.7%) indicated training opportunities while 87 respondents (30.4%) indicated continued training opportunities. Forty-five individuals (15.7%) indicated continued education for credit and 44 respondents (15.4%) indicated recognition. Twenty-nine respondents (10.1%) indicated reimbursement for food and travel and nine individuals (3.1%) indicated paid for volunteer work. Seventy-three individuals (25.5%) indicated something other as key incentives that motivate them to volunteer. Of the 73 individuals, 28 indicated helping others and 17 respondents indicated satisfaction was their key incentive to volunteer. Ten individuals indicated their incentive was due to a need while three indicated more time (see Table 1).

Table 1 Key Incentives that Motivate Individuals to Volunteer in Community Leadership Roles

	Incentives	
	N	%
Flexible meeting schedule	172	60.1
Networking	132	46.2
Training opportunities	105	36.7
Continued training opportunities	87	30.4
Continued education for credit	45	15.7
Recognition	44	15.4
Reimbursement for food and travel	29	10.1
Paid for volunteer work	9	3.1
Other	73	25.5

Respondents were asked their opinions on the most significant influences that affected their decision to seek a volunteer leadership role in their community. One-hundred eighty-four respondents (64.3%) indicated friends were their highest influences affecting their decision to volunteer and 160 individuals (55.9%) indicated family. One-hundred forty-two individuals (49.7%) indicated church while 127 respondents (44.4%) indicated civic organizations. One-hundred seventeen individuals (40.9%) indicated other people in the community development profession while 103 respondents (36%) indicated business. Forty-nine individuals (17.2%) indicated mentor and 23 respondents (8%) indicated 4-H involvement. Twenty-three individuals (8%) indicated Boy Scouts while 17 respondents (5.9%) indicated community educational outreach service (CEOS) involvement. Fifteen individuals (5.2%) indicated FFA involvement, 15 respondents (5.2%) indicated university faculty and four individuals (1.4%) indicated Girl Scouts. Thirty-seven respondents (12.9%) indicated something other for their opinions on the most significant influences that affected their decision to volunteer. Of the 37 respondents, 13 individuals indicated their influences were related to filling a need while eight respondents indicated it was due to community improvement. Three individuals felt a duty, another three individuals wanted to be a role model and two indicated they seek volunteer leadership roles in their community for personal enjoyment (see Table 2).

Table 2. Influences Affecting Decision to Volunteer

	Influences	
	N	%
Friends	184	64.3
Family	160	55.9
Church	142	49.7
Civic organizations	127	44.4
Other people in the community development profession	117	40.9
Business	103	36.0
Mentor	49	17.2
4-H involvement	23	8.0
Boy Scouts	23	8.0
Community Educational Outreach Service (CEOS) involvement	17	5.9
FFA involvement	15	5.2
University faculty	15	5.2
Girl Scouts	4	1.4
Other	37	12.9

Discussion and Conclusions

The research findings revealed a unique disparity to the national statistics regarding educational level and amount of hours volunteered. The literature showed adults with a college degree and employed were more likely to volunteer, whereas, this study revealed over half (54.2%) of respondents that were high school graduates or equivalent (GED) respondents had the highest amount of volunteer hours (more than 12 hours per week) as compared to the higher educational level respondents who had the lower amount of volunteer hours. Of the high school or equivalent respondents, the top two reported activities or groups where they volunteered their efforts were community service projects (86.5%) and government associations (78.4%). This study suggests that those with a higher education level in West Virginia are not likely to volunteer more hours. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, 41.6% are high school graduates with no

additional higher education. Because the West Virginia high school graduate percentage is higher than the national (28.4%), there is a greater opportunity to target this group for increased volunteer involvement (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). A targeted strategy will help identify these individuals and their motivational desires that will assist in successful recruitment.

The top two key incentives for volunteering were flexible meeting schedules (60.1%) followed by networking (46.2%). This finding is in line with the research that indicates that baby boomers are looking for volunteer leadership opportunities that will work with their schedules (Culp, 2009; Lindblom, 2001). Trends in motivation suggests movement toward a society in which aspects like social status and sociability with a concentrated network of social relations all have a positive effect on the organization (Clark & Wilson, 1961; Putnam, 2000). Putnam (2000) concluded that a successful community cultivates social capital and is most impactful when embedded in a focused network of social relations, thus; making connections, building networks and focusing on a common goal is important to success.

Friends (64.3%), family (55.9%) and church (49.7%) were at the top of the list of influences that motivate volunteering. These findings uncover the need to develop specific recruitment and placement strategies based on these influences.

Over the years, the volunteer rate has declined in West Virginia (Volunteering in America, 2010) along with increased volunteer leadership turnover and limited resources within city government. The findings of this study reveal new challenges and opportunities in the areas of community leader volunteerism. Community Development volunteers have time requirements and job demands. Flexible meeting schedules and informal networking opportunities should be encouraged in order to motivate individuals to volunteer that will lead to future volunteer efforts with other groups. Strategies that include volunteer recruitment through friends, family and church will generate new volunteer growth in the community development field. In line with the literature on civic voluntarism by Verba et al (1995), understanding what motivates volunteer leaders and their capacity to take part in political life will increase the volunteer pool. This understanding will help create more effective volunteer placement and retention; ultimately leading to stronger communities and quality of life. Future research may examine why individuals have not volunteered in their community. In addition, future research may investigate the connection between incentives to volunteer and preference for volunteer activities as well as analyzing the demographics and volunteer participation. Furthermore, studies that target demographics of organizations which aggressively seek volunteer support will contribute to the overall understanding of community development volunteer recruitment and retention.

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Volunteering Measurement and Management: Evidence from Maryland

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Abstract

Volunteer service is a natural and renewable resource that can be effectively measured and evaluated by organizations that use unpaid workers to perform activities and to execute programs. The researchers examined how and why U.S. nonprofit organizations measure this important resource and determine if that measurement affects the management of volunteer activities and programs. Reported here are the studied cases of four charitable organizations from Maryland with different dimensions, fields, and scope. In the explorative multiple-case study, reported here, each organization confirmed the main hypotheses that the measurement of volunteer service positively impacts both the effectiveness, and the efficiency of volunteer programs and activities. The researchers also consider other characteristics of these organizations that are impacted by measurement activities and other volunteer management practices. The results can be generalized to other nonprofit organizations that have the same structured system of volunteer management, but may exhibit different characteristics in terms of dimension, fields, and/or scope.

Key Words: volunteer work measurement, accounting, management, nonprofit organizations

Introduction

The recently published International Labour Organization *Manual on the Measurement of Volunteer Work* (ILO, 2011) states that "volunteer work can be most effective when properly managed" (p. 7). We focus here on the measurement of volunteer work at the organizational level of analysis (Salamon, Sokolowski, & Haddock, 2011; Mook, Handy & Quarter 2007), and gather that if an organization adopts best measurement practices, then it can increase the effectiveness, and also the efficiency, of volunteer activities through improved management.

We undertook several case studies to examine whether nonprofit organizations that keep records of volunteer activities and measure the economic value of volunteer work also report good management practices and positive outcomes in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of their volunteer activities and programs.

We chose four organizations that measure volunteer work and that have the same *volunteer management structure* (Brudney, 2010), i.e., similar complexity and articulation of the system of volunteer management including other practices adopted and the investment in one or more paid staff persons dedicated to volunteer management duties (Hager & Brudney, 2004a). These four charitable organizations all operate in the U.S. state of Maryland, but differ in terms of their *dimensions*, *fields*, and s*cope*.

Through this multiple case study we seek to answer the following primary questions: *a) how and why do nonprofit organizations measure the volunteer work*

that takes place as part of their organizational activities and b) what outcomes does this measurement produce in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of the volunteer work?

We consider a broad concept of measurement that includes the following three aspects (Mook & Quarter, 2004): 1) the *keeping of records of volunteer activities*; 2) the *assessment of the economic value of the volunteer work*; and 3) the *financial and social accounting of the value of volunteer work*. We understand that the measurement of volunteer work is affected by the quality of the volunteer management, and is influenced by several other factors including the presence of a volunteer coordinator and other staff who work with volunteers. We would like to explore the effects of these efforts on both the *internal* and *external effectiveness* and the *efficiency* of volunteer work.

Theoretical Background

Volunteer work

Our research refers to the definition of volunteer work used in the ILO *Manual on the Measurement of Volunteer Work*: "Unpaid non-compulsory work; that is, time individuals give without pay to activities performed either through an organization or directly for others outside their own household." (ILO Manual, par. 3.5). In particular, we focus on what the ILO *Manual* terms "organization-based" volunteering, i.e., volunteering done for or through nonprofit institutions or other types of organizations (ILO, 2011).

The ILO *Manual* describes volunteering as a "crucial renewable resource" (p. 1) drawing a similar conceptualization of "volunteer labor" to that of Brudney and Meijs, who define it as "a human-made, renewable resource that can be grown and recycled, and whose continuation and volume of flow can be influenced by human beings positively as well as negatively" (Brudney & Meijs, 2009, p. 564). From this perspective, the traditional tools of volunteer management should be revisited to ensure that they consider volunteering to be a regenerative resource, and to encourage the management of volunteer activities in a more sustainable way.

The main topics on which we have built the theoretical framework of our research are volunteer management and the measurement and accounting of volunteer work. These themes are supported by the literature and they are helpful to volunteer resource managers.

Volunteer Management

Traditional Approach

Traditional volunteer management tools to "develop a strong and diverse volunteer workforce" (pp. 264-278) are well described by Unger as follows (Unger, 1993): 1) *recruitment*; 2) *screening and placement*; 3) *orientation and training*; 4) *providing support and leadership for volunteers*; 5) *building employee/volunteer teams*; and 6) *recognition*.

Hager and Brudney similarly identify nine recommended practices for volunteer management related to both the retention of volunteers and to other organizational characteristics (Hager & Brudney, 2004b): 1) regular *supervision* and *communication* with volunteers; 2) *liability* coverage or *insurance* protection for volunteers; 3) *regular collection of information on volunteer numbers and hours; 4) screening procedures* to identify suitable volunteers; 5) *written policies* and *job descriptions* for volunteer involvement; 6) *recognition activities*, such as award ceremonies, for volunteers; 7) *annual measurement of the impacts of volunteers*; 8) *training* and *professional development* opportunities for

volunteers; and 9) *training for paid staff* in working with volunteers (p. 1). Hager and Brudney also identify "capacity" as another dimension of volunteer management that is important to consider. "Capacity" represents the "investment in a paid staff person who can spend a substantial portion of time on volunteer management duties" (Hager & Brudney, 2004a, p. 9).

Regenerative Approach

In a shift from the traditional approaches to volunteer management, the new regenerative approach (Brudney & Meijs, 2009) takes a more holistic view; it considers "volunteer energy" to be a natural, recyclable, and grow-able resource. Thus, conceptions of volunteer management have shifted (Brudney & Meijs, 2009, pp. 574-577):

1. *From* the focus on the organization [in the traditional approach] *to* the focus on the larger community (Anheier, 2000) "including a broad array of stakeholders" (Morrison & Salipante, 2007) [in the new approach];
2. *From* the concept of effectiveness as "impact on an organization's current needs" *to* effectiveness as "impact on current organizational needs and on the possibility to have impact on future needs" (Farmer & Fedor, 2001);
3. *From* the volunteering valuation as "replacement value," *to* the volunteering valuation as "life-time value" (Brown, 1999);
4. *From* a "short term" perspective on the role of volunteers (i.e., single/current assignment or event) *to* a "long term" perspective (prolonged interaction);
5. *From* the use of the "job descriptions for volunteer positions," *to* "volunteer involvement [that] emanates from the assets that volunteers possess, their preferred time availabilities, and the assignments that organizations envision to accommodate them;"
6. *From* a volunteering image as "the fit between the donation of time and organizational requirements," *to* a volunteering image as "negotiation between organization and volunteer to arrive at both realistic and satisfying work assignments that help organizations as well as yield volunteers the types of experiences that will invigorate the commons and renew the resource."

Table 1. From the traditional to the new approach of volunteer management

Traditional "Instrumental" approach	**New "Regenerative" approach**
Focus on the organization	Focus on the stakeholders
Effectiveness as impact on current organizational needs	Effectiveness as impact on current and future organizational needs
Volunteering valuation as replacement value	Volunteering valuation as life time value
Short term perspective on the role of volunteers	Long term perspective on the role of volunteers
Job description for volunteer positions	Volunteer involvement
Volunteering image as the fit between the donation of the time and organizational requirements	Volunteering image as negotiation between organization and volunteer

Source: Based on Brudney, & Meijs, 2009, p. 575.

Conceptions of Efficient and Effective Volunteer Management Organizations

The literature highlights different volunteer management indicators of organizational efficiency, but in general program costs are considered to be the most important indicator. A well-managed volunteer program will thus maintain the costs of managing volunteer activities at a low level with respect to the needed outputs (Hager & Brudney, 2005; Handy & Mook, 2010; Handy & Srinivasan, 2004); if organizations facilitate this, they are considered efficient.

Volunteer activities and programs generate different kind of costs (Unger, 1993, pp. 257-258): 1) *logistics*, such as costs for work spaces, supplies, materials, tools, equipment, desks, telephones, computers, postage, printing, telephone bills, etc.; 2) *benefits for volunteers*, such as coverage of meeting and travel expenses and other out of pocket expenses, such as parking, etc.; 3) *insurance*, such as costs for a special volunteer liability policy to cover staff responsible for managing volunteer activity; 4) *salaries and benefits for paid staff* who manage and provide support to volunteers; 5) *staff time and materials* for volunteer and professional training for staff working with volunteers; and 6) *volunteer recognition activities*, such as the costs of awards and formal recognition events.

It is also assumed that a well-managed volunteer program will satisfy the expectations of all internal and external stakeholders (Hyndman & McDonnell, 2009; Hyndman & McMahon, 2010); if they do so, they are considered effective. A stakeholder is any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of an organization's purpose (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & DeColle, 2010). In volunteer programs, internal stakeholders are those already committed to serving the program as volunteers and paid staff members; external stakeholders are those impacted by the volunteer work as clients, users, funders, supporters, donors, community members, government units, business partners, among others. Management techniques and principles can impact both internal and external stakeholders of a volunteer program (Gibson, 2000; Harrison & St. John, 1996) in the following ways:

1. *Recruitment* (Ellis, 2002)*, retention, and satisfaction of volunteers* (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001; Watson & Abzug, 2010), which can enhance the quality and the level of service, help the organization accomplish its mission, and impact levels of donations by volunteers to the programs in which they work (Unger, 1993);
2. *Satisfaction and inspiration of employees* working with volunteers (Hustinx, 2007; Unger, 1993); and
3. *Improved relationships with and satisfaction among other volunteer program stakeholders* that result in tangible and intangible benefits, such as greater awareness of the organization, new connections, and an enhanced organizational image, etc. (Unger, 1993).

Measurement of Volunteer Work

Nonprofit organizations that engage volunteers generally need to establish a record keeping system in order to monitor and track volunteer activity. Ideally, responsibility for maintaining volunteer records and reports is centralized within the organization (Unger, 1993).

The assessment of volunteer work can be very helpful to organizational decision making (Brudney, 1990): *for internal purposes* to provide appropriate recognition to participants and in building support for the program, and *for external*

purposes to convey to funders and stakeholders that the organization is receiving its "money's worth" from its investment in volunteers. To obtain this helpful information, program managers must strive both to develop an accurate record-keeping system, and to maintain a complete financial and social accounting system. The degree and quality of record keeping varies by organization, but general types of records are described below.

- *Standard reports and records* are made to keep track of volunteers that work in organizations (Unger, 1993) and include the following details: 1) basic contact information; 2) volunteer profiles (individual files on each volunteer); 3) type of service performed; 4) progress achieved; 5) special events (date of activities, role of volunteer, client served); 6) information on volunteers who leave the organization (exit interview); 7) trends in the level and nature of volunteer participation over time; and 8) volunteer retention.
- *Management records and reports* are related to the impact these volunteers have had on helping the organization achieve its goals (Day & Devlin, 1998; Unger, 1993). Details here include 1) the quality of volunteer services; 2) the true impact of volunteer participation on both individual volunteers and the organizations they serve; and 3) the number of clients satisfactorily served by volunteers (number of matches between volunteers and clients, number of successful matches).

Beyond the obvious usefulness of keeping of basic records, organizations can also use these records to develop estimates of the economic value of the volunteer services performed. To do so, the *number of hours volunteered* is needed. It is possible to use three "broad strategies" (Salamon et al., 2011, p. 225) to estimate the economic value of the volunteer work: 1) the replacement cost approach, 2) the opportunity cost approach, and 3) the social benefit approach (Mook, Handy et al., 2007). The approach chosen will depend upon the information that is considered most relevant for the agency and based on a preliminary cost-benefit analysis of generating that information.

The replacement cost and opportunity cost approaches focus on the value of the *inputs*, (i.e., the work provided by the volunteers). The social benefit approach is focused on the value added of the *output* activities (i.e., benefits derived from volunteer work). Each valuation approach can use either observed market proxies and/or declared market proxies to estimate the value of the activity: 1) the *replacement cost approach* can refer to the replacement wage (observed) or a supervisor judgment (declared) that would have been paid to the volunteer; 2) *the opportunity cost approach* can refer to an alternative-employment wage (observed) or a volunteer judgment (declared) of a wage forgone in order to volunteer; and 3) *the social benefit approach* can refer to costs of counterpart goods or services (observed) or a beneficiary judgment (declared).

In our study we consider the value of the volunteer from the organization's point of view, i.e., "what it would cost the organization to replace its volunteers with paid staff and continue the services currently provided by a volunteer" (Mook, Handy, et al., 2007, p. 510). Others have already considered the components of this replacement cost value.

There are different approaches to calculating the replacement cost value of volunteer work including (Mook & Quarter, 2003): 1) *a generalist approach* that uses the average hourly wage for non-management, non-agricultural workers; 2) *a specialist approach* "targets the value of a volunteer's

role to the market value of the exact task (p. 2); and 3) *a modified specialist approach* which "targets the rate for a volunteer task to the nonprofit organization and the general skill level of the volunteer task" (p. 3) when it is more practical than the specialist approach (Mook & Quarter, 2003).

The underlying hypothesis of the specialist replacement cost approach is that volunteers could be replaced by wage earners as perfect substitutes in terms of skills and productivity. This approach is thus the most specific, and therefore represents the optimal approach for a nonprofit organization hosting a broad range of volunteer tasks because it is "very precise and likely to result in the most accurate estimate" (p. 5). It does, however, require greater amounts of information and research to establish the appropriate market comparisons (Mook & Quarter, 2003). The question for anyone looking to assess the economic value of volunteer work inside an organization will therefore be: "*If our organization had to pay for this service, what would the hourly rate be?*" (Mook & Quarter, 2003, p. 1).

Once a system for collecting data and keeping financial records has been developed, and the value of the volunteers has been established, organizations can present it in financial (Cordery & Narraway, 2010; Macintosh, Bartel, & Snow, 1999) and social statements that can be shared with funders and policymakers (e.g. the "Expanded Value Added Statement") (Mook, Richmond, & Quarter, 2001; Richmond, Mook, & Quarter, 2003; Mook, Sousa et al., 2005; Mook, Quarter, & Richmond, 2007; and Mook, Handy, et al., 2007). This kind of social statement targets multiple stakeholders (Cordery & Baskerville, 2010; Mook & Quarter, 2006), consistent with the new regenerative approach to volunteer management (Brudney & Meijs, 2009).

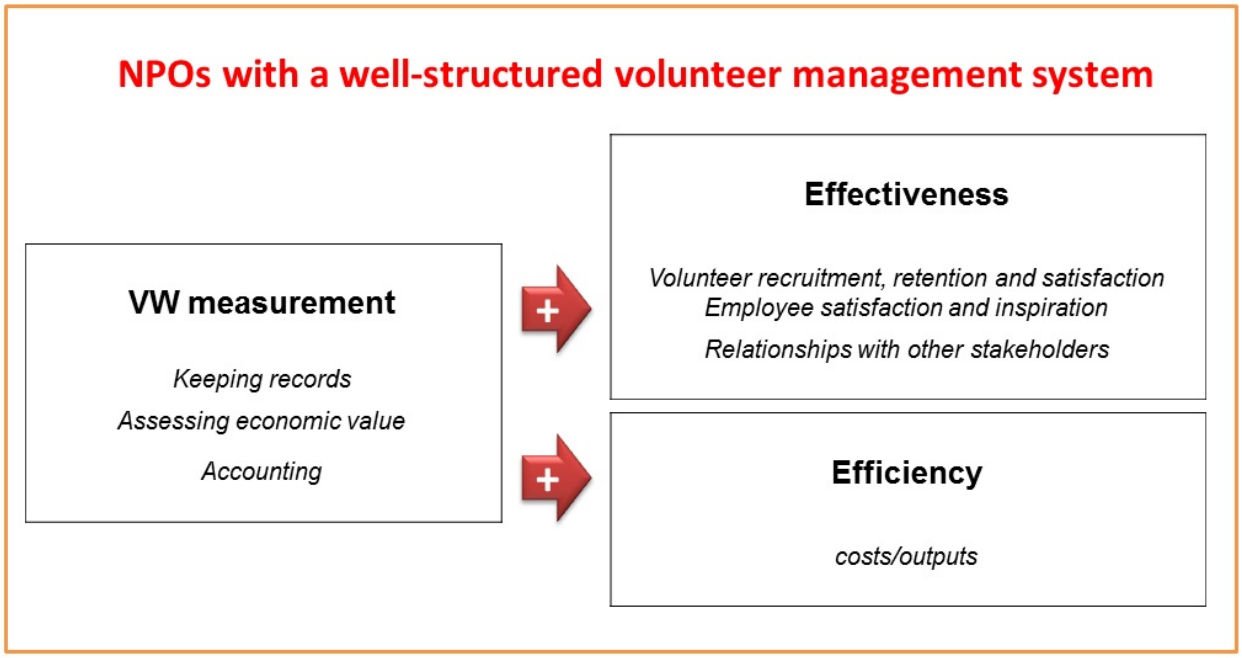
In the U.S., the value of volunteer work is generally not included in organizations' financial accounting statements (Mook, Handy & Quarter 2007; Mook & Quarter, 2003). According to the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB, 116/1993, 117/1993 and 136/1999), the value of volunteer services is a non-cash contribution (Larkin, 1993) that can be used on financial statements (including statements for internal and external purposes, grant proposals, and annual reports) only if a volunteer is performing a specialized skill for a nonprofit. The general rule to follow in determining if contributed services meet the FASB criteria for financial forms is to examine whether the organization would have purchased the services had not been donated by volunteers.

Hypotheses

With this study we would like to demonstrate that when a nonprofit organization measures the volunteer work it harnesses (keeps records, performs assessments, and undertakes accounting), the quality of that volunteer work is high, i.e., efficient and effective:

Hypothesis 1: If the nonprofit organization measures volunteer work (VW) then the volunteer activities and programs are efficient and effective.

Figure 1: The relationship between the measurement of volunteer work and the effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer programs and activities



The effectiveness of volunteer activities and programs means that the relationships with internal and external stakeholders are better managed and their satisfaction with the program is high.

We consider two dimensions of the "internal" effectiveness of volunteer work with the following outcomes:

1. A high level of volunteer recruitment, retention, and satisfaction; and
2. A high level of satisfaction and inspiration among employees working with volunteers.

Hypothesis 2: When organizations measure their volunteer work, its level of internal effectiveness is high.

The "external" effectiveness of the management of volunteer work relates to the relationships and satisfaction of other stakeholders, such as users and clients, funders, sponsors, donors, governments entities, business entities, community, etc.

Hypothesis 3: When organizations measure their volunteer work, its level of external effectiveness is high.

"Efficient" volunteer work means that the costs of organizing volunteer activities and programs are low with respect to the level of output created by the volunteer work (Moore, 1978). We assume that the measurement of volunteer work has a positive impact on the costs of volunteer activities and programs.

Hypothesis 4: When organizations measure their volunteer work, the volunteer program is more efficient.

Methods

Data and Sample

In this research, we conducted case studies (Yin, 2003) to explore the relationship between the measurement of volunteer work and the outcomes of volunteer activities and programs in contemporary U.S. nonprofit organizations. With a multiple case study design we attempted to answer the central questions of this study, as mentioned above:

- *How and why do nonprofit organizations measure volunteer work?*
- *What outcomes does this measurement produce in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of the volunteer work?*

Confirming the theory implied in our hypotheses would allow us to make an "analytic generalization" to other nonprofit organizations, and recommend that they measure their volunteer work within the context of a well-structured volunteer management system.

To carry out this case study, we collected and analyzed relevant data on four U.S. nonprofit organizations:

1. *Partners in Care Maryland* (PIC)—unit of the analysis is the agency;
2. *Associated Catholic Charities of Baltimore* (ACC)—units of the analysis are both the agency and the main divisions with a large number of volunteers in their programs;
3. *Jewish Community Services* (JCS)—unit of the analysis is the agency; and
4. *The Arc Baltimore of Baltimore* (ARC)—unit of the analysis is the agency.

In this multiple case study, each case was carefully selected so that it would predict similar results (a literal replication). In this step we preferred to not make any "theoretical" replications because there are a significant number of external conditions that produce variation in the phenomenon being studied (Yin, 2003) , such as the *dimensions* of the organizations (different sizes); *organizational field of activity* (different industries); and *organizational scope* (different geographical extensions).

The geographical context of the cases was the state of Maryland in the United States. The time boundaries of our analysis were the fiscal year 2010—all data collected refer to the year beginning on July 1st, 2009 and ending on June 30th, 2010.

We use multiple sources of evidence:

1. *Interviews* with the volunteer coordinator of the agency and/or the manager of volunteer programs and divisions;
2. *Analysis of archival records*, including records about the number of volunteers; number of new volunteers; rate of retention; hours volunteered; dollar value of volunteer activities; cost of volunteer services or programs (direct and indirect); findings of questionnaires on volunteer satisfaction and effectiveness of training activities for volunteers; etc.; and
3. *Analysis of documentation*, i.e., analysis of financial statements; annual reports; budgets for volunteer services or programs; business plans; questionnaires on volunteer satisfaction; questionnaires on volunteer training activity effectiveness; newsletters; and other documentation on the recruitment and management of volunteers and their costs; etc.

Our general strategy for analyzing these data was based on theoretical propositions. We considered only the "relevant" data, useful in verifying the hypotheses and propositions as defined by the existing literature. Specifically, the analytic technique we used was pattern matching (Yin, 2003) with nonequivalent variables as a pattern. Finally, we verified if the pattern based on the evidence gathered from our four cases of U.S. nonprofit organizations coincide with the predicted pattern based on the theory.

Data were collected in the autumn of 2011. Following data collection, interviewees reviewed the draft report and were asked to confirm the description we generated and to provide comments on the draft, which were considered in the

development of the case descriptions and the cross-case analysis provided below.

Measures and variables

We tested our hypothesis using the following empirical "variables":

- *Independent variables* related to the practice of volunteer work measurement, which can be described in terms of the following dimensions:
  1) keeping records (number of volunteers, hours volunteered, etc.);
  2) assessing economic value (replacement cost, opportunity cost, impact/benefits); and
  3) accounting statements and accountability (Form 990s, financial statements, annual reports, etc.).
- (Non-equivalent) *dependent variables* related to program outcomes in terms of their effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer management, which can be described as follows:
  1. The *effectiveness* of volunteer work including: a) internal effectiveness (volunteer recruitment, retention, satisfaction, and paid staff satisfaction and inspiration); and b) external effectiveness (stakeholder relationships and satisfaction); and
  2. The *efficiency* of volunteer work, or the costs of volunteer programs and activities (direct and indirect) with respect to the outputs.
- *Other variable*s that could impact the effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer programs and activities, including:
  1. General characteristics of the organization, such as geographical influence, dimension, age, classification, workers (volunteer/paid staff), funding (government/general public), fields of activity; and
  2. Other volunteer management practices and human resources used to manage volunteers, such as supervision and communication with volunteers, screening and matching volunteers to jobs, written policies and job descriptions for volunteers, negotiation with volunteers, recognition activities, orientation training and professional development for volunteers, training for paid staff in working with volunteers, liability coverage for volunteers, the volunteer manager or coordinator (paid or volunteer), other paid staff who work with volunteers (full- or part-time).

Data Collection and Description

Case Studies

Partners in Care Maryland (PIC) is a "time banking" nonprofit organization operating in four Maryland counties: Anne Arundel, Calvert, Talbot, and Frederick.

The Associated Catholic Charities of Baltimore (ACC) is a human and social service organization (Spring & Grimm, 2004) that "touches the lives of more than 160,000 Marylanders of all faiths, races, and circumstances each year through 80 programs across the state." Because ACC is a large organization, our case study considers both the agency as a whole and divisions within the agency where there is significant use of volunteer work. In particular, we focus on the "Community Services Division" which has a well-structured volunteer management system and a consolidated system for collecting data on volunteer work.

Jewish Community Services (JCS) is a consolidated human services nonprofit organization operating in the Baltimore Metropolitan area.

The Arc of Baltimore (ARC) is a nonprofit organization that provides "a comprehensive array of community-based

support services to men, women, and children" in Baltimore City and Baltimore County.

Table 2. General information on all NPOs in the study

General information	**PIC**[1]	**ACC**[2]	**JCS**[3]	**ARC**[4]
Geographical influence	county	state	city/county	city/county
Dimension	small	x-large	medium	large
Age	young	very old	very old	rel. old
Form	Corporation	Corporation	Corporation	Corporation
Classification	Charity.org.	Charity.org.	Charity.org.	Charity.org.
Workers (Volunteer/Paid staff)	>1	>1	>1	<1
Funds (Government/General Public)	<1	>1	<1 (=0)	>1
Number of Fields	1 (2 sub-cat.)	2 (3 sub-cat.)	3 (3 sub-cat.)	3 (3 sub-cat.)

[1] **PIC** is an independent charitable organization that was created as a corporation in 1993 (Ruling Year 1995). Under Federal tax law it is a tax-exempt organization [IRC § 501(c)3]. It receives a substantial part of its support from governmental sources (6% in the 2010 Fiscal Year) and the general public (52% from "other contribution" and 42% from "program services fees and other" in the 2010 Fiscal Year). Its Form 990 (2010) and other unaudited internal and external reports offer information that can give us an idea of the dimension and the extent of this organization: 1,389 members and 15 employees who work with PIC; $70,615 in gross assets and $8,802 in net assets; $864,244 in revenue and $970,921 in expenses. PIC uses volunteers in the following core programs: *Ride partners*, *Repair with care*, *The Boutique*, *The Lifeline*.

[2] **ACC** is an independent charitable organization that was created as a corporation in 1923 (Ruling Year 1946). Under Federal tax law it is a tax-exempt organization [IRC § 501(c)(3)]. It receives a substantial part of its support from governmental sources (77% in the 2010 Fiscal Year) and the general public (9% from "Contribution" and 14% from "Program Service Fees and other" in the 2010 Fiscal Year). Its form 990 (2010) offers information that can give us an idea of the dimensions and the extent of this organization: 15,000 volunteers and 2,399 employees who work with ACC; $142,847,651 in gross assets and $87,052,427 in net assets; $101,957,827 in revenues and $102,662,583 in expenses. ACC has three large Divisions that widely use volunteers: *Community Services*; *Lifetime Services*; and *Child and Family Services*. In particular, the Community Services Division has three volunteer programs for "People in Poverty" in the Our Daily Bread Employment Center (ODBEC) located in Baltimore city: *Meal service*; *Employment services*; and *Christopher's place employment academy*.

[3] **JCS** is an independent charitable organization that was created as a corporation. The original organization (JFS) was established in 1920 (Ruling Year 1951). The current agency was launched on July 1, 2008 through a consolidation of four existing social service agencies: Jewish Family Services, Jewish Vocational Services, and the Jewish Big Brother/Big Sister Leagues. Under Federal tax law it is a tax-exempt organization [IRC § 501(c)(3)]. JCS receives a substantial part of its support from the general public (21% from "Public Income" and 12% from "Client and Contact Fees," 17% grants from the "local Jewish community," in the 2010 Fiscal

Year) and the associated (50% from "The Associated Jewish Community Federation allocation," and 2% from "special funds and associated endowment" in the 2010 Fiscal Year). Its form 990 (2010) offers information that can give us an idea of the dimension and the extent of this organization: 500 volunteers and 252 employees who work with JCS; $5,207,756 in gross assets and $3,658,307 in net assets; $13,028,231 in revenues and $12,259,434 in expenses. JCS uses volunteers in the following main programs: *Outreach and Companionship services*; *Professional Pro bono services*; *Mentoring services*; *Creative and administrative services*; *Assistance for new Americans*.

[4] **The ARC** is an independent charitable organization that was created as a corporation in 1949 (Ruling Year 1954). Under Federal tax law it is a tax-exempt organization [IRC § 501(c)(3)]. The ARC receives a substantial part of its support from governmental sources (75% in the 2010 Fiscal Year) and the general public (23% from "Contracts and other revenue" and 2% from "Public support" in the 2010 Fiscal Year). Its form 990 (2010) offers information that can give us an idea of the dimension and the extent of this organization: 62 volunteers [This number is as a rough guide of the exact number of volunteers because it constantly changes]. The ARC has "interns" that work only for a semester as well as "groups of volunteers" that work only for one time. They have about 100 volunteers in a month (subject to change due to varying sizes of volunteer groups in any given month) and 1,671 employees who work with ARC; $29,888,280 in gross assets and $5,435,888 in net assets; $42,195,416 in revenues and $41,437,330 in expenses. ARC uses volunteers (and interns) in the following main programs and services: *Employment and Day Services*; *Community and Living Division*; *Family and Children Services Division*; *Quality Support Services*.

These four organizations are different in a number of ways:

1. *Geographical influence and scope*. Our case studies include one organization that works in selected Maryland counties (PIC), one organization that works across the state (ACC); and two organizations that work only in the metropolitan area of Baltimore (JCS and ARC);
2. *Dimension*, with respect to assets, annual revenues, and number of volunteers and employees. This case study involves a small organization (PIC), a medium organization (JCS), a large organization (ARC), and a very large organization (ACC);
3. *Age*. PIC is a young organization, the ARC is relatively old, and ACC and JCS are very well established;
4. *Ratio between volunteers and employees*. In three of the organizations, volunteers outnumber paid employees (PIC, ACC, JCS), while ARC employs more paid staff than volunteers;
5. *Weight of the government support* (i.e., the ratio between funds derived from government sources and those from the general public). In two organizations—ACC and ARC—government funding outpaces funds from private sources, while the opposite is true in the other two organizations (PIC and JCS);
6. *Industries*, i.e., the type and the number of fields in which the organization operates. PIC works in only the "human services" field, including two sub-categories in the NTEE classification (P80 and P81). ACC works in two fields: "human services" (P40 and P82) and "housing, shelter" (L41). JCS works in three fields: "human services" (P99), "employment, job related" (J21), and "religion, spiritual development" (X30). The ARC also works in three fields: "human services" (P82), "employment,

job related" (J22), and "public, society benefit" (W05). The human services field is thus common to all of the organizations examined, while the employment field is common only to JCS and the ARC. The sub-categories, however, are almost always different among the organizations.

Cross case analysis and findings

The measurement of volunteer work

Each organization analyzed in this study measures the volunteer work carried out on their behalf to some degree. They all keep some records of the volunteer work, assess the economic value of this work, and use this value in their accounting systems to some degree. Each organization has a different system and set of tools for keeping these records, however, and each uses a specific database and software suite. For example, the Community Services Division of ACC uses an application called ETO produced by Social Solutions and JCS uses software called "Volunteer Reporter."

Each organization keeps records on the *total number of volunteers* and the *total amount of hours volunteered*. The level of detail of these data differs among the organizations depending on the purposes of collecting data (internal or external) and the organizational structure of volunteer activities and services (programs, divisions, departments, and agency). PIC, a time banking organization, collects data on volunteer work "per occupations and skills;" the Community Services Division of ACC collects data "per programs" and "per occupations and skills;" and JCS collects data "per services and programs." In these three cases the job descriptions for nonpaid positions are clear and detailed so it is possible to establish the equivalent job classification or category. The ARC collects data on volunteer efforts "per department" (not per occupation and skills) because the ARC's budgeting system is structured around departments. Therefore, for internal purposes (i.e., management and control of the departments) it is more useful for this organization to have an information system that collects data about departments rather than about specific jobs.

Each organization measures the economic value of volunteer work using the generalist replacement cost approach. They all use the average hourly gross wage provided by U.S. Independent Sector ($22.32 for 2011); ARC is the only organization that sometimes uses a lower hourly wage of $10, which they "judged" right for assessing nonpaid work in Maryland [personal interview with the author]. This "declared" replacement cost value does not take into account the cost of benefits for the unpaid workers.

All of these organizations calculate the economic value of volunteer work for the same reasons: *internal* (management and control of volunteer work; comparing costs and benefits of volunteer services and programs; management and control of divisions or departments; measuring the performances of volunteer coordinators or managers) (Baber, Daniel, & Roberts, 2011); and *external* (fund-raising and grant reporting; marketing and public relations; volunteer recruiting; providing information for board members, funders, and supporters; etc.).

All report information about their volunteers' efforts in internal and external reports, albeit in different ways, but none feature these data in their official and audited financial statements, or in any detail in their annual reports. JCS does mention volunteering in the online version of their annual report, but does not report the economic value of the volunteer work and only mentions the number of hours volunteered in select volunteer program.

Table 3. The Measurement of volunteer work (all NPOs)

Volunteer work measurement	**PIC**	**ACC**	**JCS**	**ARC**
Record keeping	yes	yes	yes	yes
Assessing economic value	yes	yes	yes	yes
Accounting	yes	yes	yes	yes
Total score	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**

The effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer work

The outcomes of these measurement practices were found to be positive in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer work in each organization analyzed.

Though these organizations use different tools to evaluate the internal and external effectiveness of their volunteer program (surveys, focus groups, informal conversations, etc.), we consistently see: 1) a high level of recruitment, retention, and satisfaction of volunteers (the results of volunteer surveys and the high participation of volunteers confirm these data); 2) a high level of satisfaction and inspiration of paid staff working with the volunteers (the strong enthusiasm of interviewees confirms these data); and 3) strong relationships and high levels of satisfaction among other stakeholders (the role that these organizations have in the community and their strong and wide-ranging partnerships with private and public institutions confirm these data). Specific details about each organization are provided below:

PIC identifies both the number of new volunteers and the rate of retention. The satisfaction of volunteers and of employees who work with them is constantly monitored through informal conversations. They also monitor the satisfaction of the clients with formal surveys and informal checks (anecdotal evidence, written cards and letters, etc.).

ACC reports no problems recruiting volunteers. The retention and satisfaction of volunteers is constantly monitored by email surveys, on-site surveys, and scheduled focus groups. The relationships between volunteers and paid staff are deemed critical, and are well monitored to ensure a high level of satisfaction and productivity of the employees who work with unpaid workers. Relationships with other stakeholders, especially partners and supporters, are also well managed and report high levels of satisfaction.

JCS monitors the number new volunteers, the rate of retention, and the score of satisfaction among volunteers and paid staff in their annual planning system (TPM, Total Performance Management). They have also good relationships with different stakeholders, especially with clients and funders. Frequently, they make extensive follow up phone calls with clients and volunteers to gather additional information.

ARC consistently grows its ability to recruit new volunteers through their prominent online presence and use of social networking tools. The rate of retention varies by department, but in general is reported to be "pretty high." The level of satisfaction among volunteers and paid staff who work with them is also high, but is measured by each department in different way. In the last three years, reported relationships with stakeholders and their satisfaction has seen growth because they can "understand the value of the volunteer activities and match the information about the resources spent in the programs and the value created for the community" [personal interview with the author].

With regard to accounting for the cost of supporting volunteer programs, each organization has a different system for cost accounting and does not always separately identify the specific costs of volunteer programs and services. But in general, we have observed that the costs of supporting volunteer activities are rather low across the board with respect to the outputs achieved by the volunteers. Specific details about each organization are provided below:

PIC compares the costs for each volunteer program to the value of hours volunteered and to the value of the mileage accrued by the volunteers that drive as part of their volunteer activity, and calculate that PIC puts back $2 dollars into the community for every dollar spent.

ACC calculates the specific costs of running its volunteer programs by identifying specific items such as the salaries of volunteer managers and coordinators (insurance coverage for the volunteers is provided for the agency as a whole and it is not considered separately for the volunteer programs).

JCS compares the actual annual expenses of volunteer programs and services with the expenses that had been estimated in the annual budget for each program and service.

The ARC does not separately identify the specific costs of volunteer activities, but reports that they are "really low" with respect to the outputs of the volunteer programs [personal interview with author].

Table 4. The effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer work (all NPOs)

Outcomes	**PIC**	**ACC**	**JCS**	**ARC**
Internal effectiveness (volunteers and employees)	yes	yes	yes	yes
External effectiveness (stakeholders)	yes	yes	yes	yes
Efficiency (costs/outputs)	yes	yes	yes	yes
Total score	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**

The volunteer management structure

Each organization analyzed in this study has a well-structured system of volunteer management. Nearly all good practices of volunteer management have been adopted to different degrees with extraordinary orderliness and professionalism, including regular supervision and communication with volunteers; liability coverage or insurance protection for volunteers; screening and matching of volunteers to assignments; written policies and job descriptions for volunteers, recognition activities; annual measurement of impacts of volunteers; and training and professional development opportunities for volunteers. Each organization also has paid staff who can spend a substantial portion of their time on volunteer management duties.

The only aspect of volunteer management that was not a strong feature of any of the organizations studied is training for paid staff working with volunteers. The organizations often have meetings and focus groups for paid staff to review progress, but have not yet engaged in a plan to provide regular training for managers, coordinators, and other paid staff working with volunteers.

Table 5. The volunteer management structure (all NPOs)

Volunteer management structure	**PIC**	**ACC**	**JCS**	**ARC**
Supervision and communication with volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Screening and matching of volunteers to jobs	yes	yes	yes	yes
Written policies and job descriptions for volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Negotiation with volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Recognition activities	yes	yes	yes	yes
Orientation training and professional development for volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Training for paid staff in working with volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Liability coverage for volunteers	yes	yes	yes	yes
Volunteer manager or coordinator (paid or volunteer)	yes	yes	yes	yes
Other paid staff working with volunteers (full time or part-time)	yes	yes	yes	yes
Total score	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**

Discussion

The findings from this multiple case study demonstrate that there is a positive relationship between the measurement of volunteer work and the effectiveness and efficiency of the volunteer efforts. In particular, the of keeping records of volunteers and their activities, assessing the economic value of these efforts, and accounting for them in internal and external reports affects both the effectiveness and the efficiency of volunteer activities and programs.

Our model does not permit the reporting of results by degrees, i.e., the results are either positive or negative. Nevertheless, anecdotal evidence suggests that the differences between the four organizations are not minor. For instance, PIC and JCS have the most accurate database, and keep records of every single task performed by volunteers. JCS is the sole organization that reports information about its volunteers in its published Annual Report, and PIC is the sole organization that compares the economic value of its volunteers with the related costs of running the program to determine the "net-benefit" for the community. As a result, these two organizations seem to have a better awareness of the social value created by the volunteer programs than the other organizations in this study, and they also appear to better understand the sources of this value. For this reason, they seem better able to manage their volunteers, their paid staff and other stakeholders observe more effective results from their volunteer programs, and they appear to be better able to manage program costs to maximize the "net-benefits" of their volunteer programs.

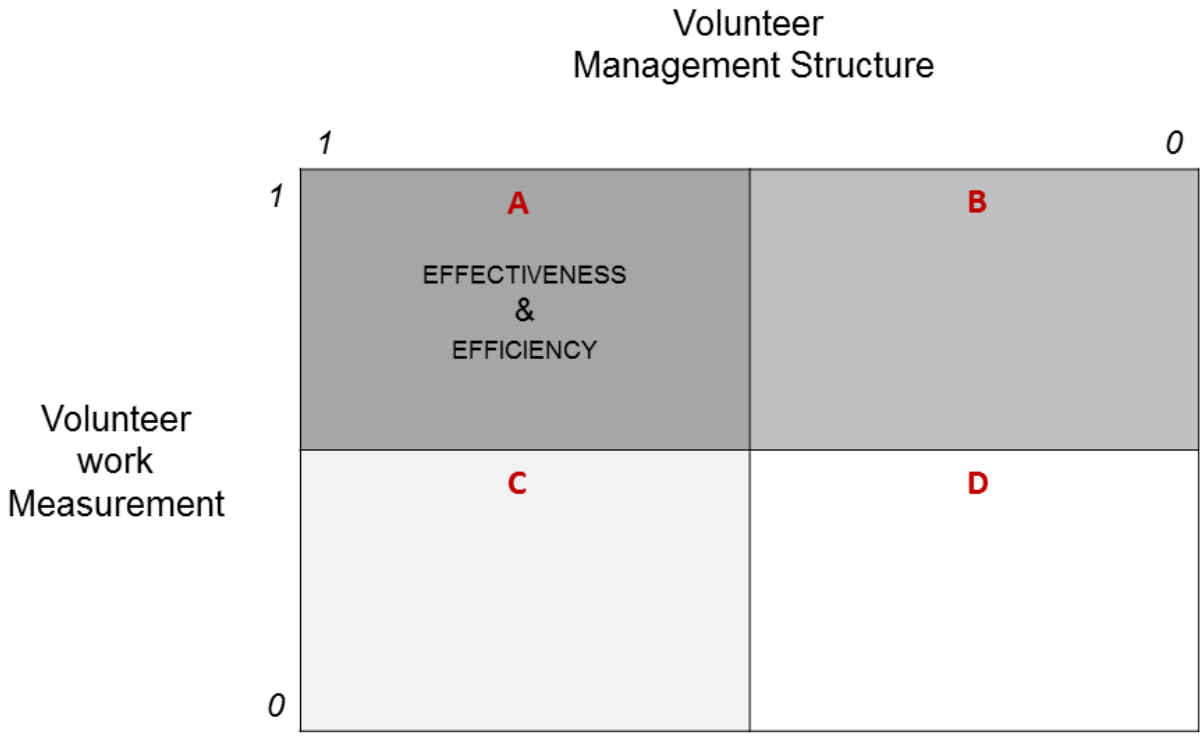
It would be interesting to further analyze how these results vary by the degree of measurement of the volunteer work. Our perception is that the more attention an organization pays to measuring its volunteer engagement, the more effective and efficient it becomes. However, proving this assumption would require that we also compare the outputs and outcomes of the volunteer work.

In this study, we replicated the first result obtained by the first organization examined, Partners in Care (PIC), that measures the economic value of volunteer work using a well-structured system of volunteer management and has positive outcomes in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of its volunteer programs.

Each organization is in quadrant A of the Matrix of Volunteer Measurement and Management (Figure 2), where all nonprofit

organizations that measure volunteer work using a well-structured system of volunteer management are located. In all of these four cases we have found: a high level of recruitment, retention, and satisfaction among volunteers and a high level of satisfaction and inspiration among the paid staff who work with volunteers (internal effectiveness); strong relationships with the other stakeholders such as clients and users, funders, supporters, donors, government and business units, and the larger community (external effectiveness); and low costs associated with the management of volunteers' activities with respect to the outputs produced (efficiency).

Figure 2. The Matrix of Volunteer Measurement and Management (VMM Matrix)



It would be interesting also to further study the outcomes of volunteer programs and activities that result in the last three cases identified by the matrix (theoretical replication): 1) where a nonprofit organization attempts to *measures volunteer work* in a context in which *the system of volunteer management is not structured* (Quadrant B); 2) where a nonprofit organization *does not measure volunteer work* in a context in which *the system of volunteer management is structured* (Quadrant C); and 3) where the nonprofit organization *does not measure volunteer work* in a context in which *the system of volunteer management is not structured* (Quadrant D).

A final aspect that is important to consider is the country in which the organizations operate (Gaskin, 1999). This study focuses on U.S. nonprofit organizations where the culture of accountability is consolidated and the "professionalization" and "bureaucratization" of the organizations are also relevant (Salamon, 1999). It would be

interesting to consider the findings of a similar study replicated in another country in which, for instance, the concept of volunteer work measurement is not as consolidated as in U.S.

Conclusions

The explorative analysis of the four nonprofit organizations from Maryland allows us to describe "*how*" they measure volunteer work; "*why*" they measure volunteer work; and "*which effects*" the measurement of volunteer work has in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of the volunteer programs.

The four organizations analyzed keep records of the number of volunteers and the number of hours volunteered, albeit at different levels of detail. The differences depend on the type of organization and its main characteristics, the complexity of the management control system, and the organizational structure. Each organization assesses the economic value of the volunteers using a generalist replacement cost approach and reports this information in non-audited and informal reports. These organizations calculate the economic value of their volunteer work both for internal purposes and external purposes.

In each of these four cases studies, the measurement of volunteer work positively impacts the effectiveness and efficiency of the volunteer activities and management, and the system of volunteer management is well structured in terms of other good volunteer manage practices including recruitment, screening, and placement; orientation and training; providing support and leadership for volunteers; building employee and volunteer teams; and recognition activities. Therefore, the results of our literal replication can be generalized only to other organizations that have similarly well-structured systems of volunteer management.

In conclusion, while the positive impacts of volunteer measurement on the management of volunteer programs is established, the nonprofit organizations analyzed in this study would likely continue to improve by adopting more specialized approaches to measuring the economic value of volunteer work. For example, the could gather more detailed information on the number of hours volunteered by occupations and skill level because our study demonstrates that more accurate volunteer work measurement systems produces positive effects in terms of the performance of volunteer programs and activities and presumes that these impacts improve with the degree of measurement. We also recommend that each organization give more attention to developing a social accounting system that considers information on volunteer work and allows them to include measures of the social value created by its volunteers in official statements and reports. This sort of "social accountability" appears to be very important, both in enhancing relationships with and satisfaction among all stakeholders (internal and external), and in identifying the social value generated by the agency and comparing its performance to other organizations.

In a further step, we may compare the results that each organization already calculates with the results obtained by using a specialist measurement approach, as is encouraged in the literature and in the ILO *Manual on the Measurement of Volunteer Work* (at the national level).

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Understanding How Age Affects the Relationships Between Well-Known Predictors of Volunteerism and the Duration and Intensity of Volunteering

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Abstract

Formal volunteering within the context of an organization represents a substantial social and economic contribution to the United States. Volunteerism has been explained by various theories including: functional, behaviorist, exchange, social resources, role identity, sustained volunteerism, and the three-stage model. Because volunteerism spans all ages, a developmental perspective is necessary since age ranges of the volunteers might affect various factors related to volunteer commitment. The study reported here investigated how age affects the relationship between predictors of volunteerism and the duration and intensity of volunteering among a sample of hospital volunteers, ages 18 and older, recruited from hospital volunteer programs of the Metropolitan Detroit area. Participants completed self-report measures assessing demographic characteristics, reasons to volunteer, satisfaction, role identity, and prosocial personality. Results revealed partial support for the hypotheses. Reasons to volunteer were more strongly correlated with intensity of volunteering than duration. Age groups of volunteers significantly differed in the duration of volunteering, the desire to gain career related experience and new learning experiences, and the personality characteristic of helpfulness. Years of education, the desire to gain career related experience, and age groups of volunteers was the most parsimonious model for predicting duration of volunteering. For predicting intensity, years of education, satisfaction, helpfulness, the desire to gain career related experience, age groups, and the interactions between age groups and education and satisfaction was the best model. Thus, volunteerism does appear to be affected by age with older volunteers volunteering for a longer duration than younger volunteers. The relationship between age and intensity of volunteering is mediated by the volunteers' level of satisfaction and years of education.

Key Words: volunteer commitment, reasons to volunteer, prosocial personality, age differences, hospital

Introduction

Formal volunteering within the context of an organization represents a substantial social and economic contribution to the United States. According to the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor and Statistics, approximately 63.4 million people, or 26.8% of the population, ages 16 or older, volunteered through or for an organization at least once between September 2008 and September 2009 (United States Department of Labor, 2010).

They provided 8.1 billion hours of service with an estimated dollar value of $169 billion worth of time.

Because of the great social and financial benefits from work by volunteers, recruitment and retention of volunteers is vital. Thus, it is important to understand the factors (i.e., personality characteristics, reasons to volunteer) that influence a person's choice to become and stay a volunteer (Elshaug & Metzer, 2001). The age of the volunteer may also play a key role in further understanding volunteerism (Boling, 2006). With a greater understanding of volunteers, volunteer organizations can design and implement recruitment campaigns and institutional activities targeted toward specific populations and towards retention efforts.

Volunteerism within the organizational context has been defined as long-term, planned, prosocial behaviors that benefit strangers (Penner, 2002). While researchers have posed many other definitions of volunteerism, Penner's definition seems to best describe volunteerism within the context of an organization and is of interest as it relates to this study. As there are many definitions of volunteerism, there are also many theories of volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998; Wilson, 2000; Smith, 1982; Smith, 1994; Jackson, Bachmeier, Wood, & Craft, 1995; Wilson & Musick, 1997; Grube & Piliavin, 1996; Piliavin & Callero, 1991; Penner, Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007) that have been studied.

Outcomes regarding volunteering have been studied by measuring duration (length of volunteer commitment) and intensity (number of hours volunteered each week) of volunteering. Factors that have been studied in relation to these outcomes have included the following: prosocial personality traits (Other Oriented Empathy and Helpfulness) (Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, & Freifeld, 1995); reasons to volunteer (values, understanding, social, career, protective, enhancement) (Clary et al., 1998), satisfaction, the development of a role identity (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005), educational level (Burke & Hall, 1986; Penner, 2002), age (Penner, 2002), and degree of religiousness (Penner, 2002).

Factors Affecting Length and Intensity of Volunteering

Studies assessing factors that affect length of volunteer commitment have produced mixed results. Some researchers have indicated that prosocial personality characteristics, satisfaction, and fulfillment of reasons to volunteer are positively related to volunteer longevity (Penner, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Porter & Steers, 1973; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Others (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Finkelstein, et al., 2005; Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003) have indicated they were unrelated to length of service. Other factors that have been shown to have a positive relationship with length of volunteer commitment have included the development of social networks/friendships (Omoto & Snyder, 1995), motivation (Omoto & Snyder, 1995), the development of a role identity (Finkelstein et al., 2005), education (Burke & Hall, 1986; Penner, 2002), age (Penner, 2002) and religion (Penner, 2002).

Studies assessing factors that affect amount of time spent volunteering have produced mixed results. Penner (2002) found that Other-Oriented Empathy and Helpfulness were positively and significantly related to time spent volunteering, while Davis et al. (2003) and Finkelstein et al. (2005) found no significant relationship between time spent volunteering and these characteristics. Time spent volunteering was positively related to satisfaction (Davis et al.; Finkelstein, 2008),

and with the fulfillment of two reasons to volunteer (Values – to express concern for others and Understanding – to acquire new learning experiences) (Finkelstein, 2008). Other factors that have been shown to have a positive relationship with the amount of time spent volunteering have included the development of a role identity (Finkelstein et al., 2005; Grube & Piliavin, 2000), education (Penner, 2002), and religion (Penner, 2002).

Review of the volunteer populations selected for the research studies above reveals that the researchers have studied primarily two populations, college students (Clary et al., 1998) and elderly volunteers (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008; Finkelstein et al., 2005). Or, they have not specified an age range of their volunteer populations (Davis et al., 2003; Penner, 2002; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Thus, conclusions about the relationship between the factors associated with volunteer intensity and duration are limited and may account for some of the conflicting results among the variables affecting duration and intensity of volunteering. Research studying the factors affecting intensity and duration of volunteerism needs to address age in an effort to resolve conflicting results. To understand how age relates to volunteerism, a developmental perspective is necessary.

Numerous theories of development have been proposed by writers and researchers. A theory that appears to be most applicable to the study of volunteerism is Elder's (1994) life course perspective of development, which emphasizes the social forces that shape the life course and its developmental consequences. Elder's theory suggests that there are roles and activities that individuals assume and abandon over the life course. They have various needs and purposes, including those related to the stage of life course, that they pursue through activities such as volunteerism. Their needs and purposes influence the meanings attached to the activities in which they participate, including their volunteer role, and the roles in which they engage. They may draw on different resources to accomplish certain roles or activities depending on their life stage. Thus, concerns relevant to the different stages of the life course influence the content of the volunteer process and the measures of interest researchers of volunteerism have studied.

Research has included reasons to volunteer (Boling, 2006), human social, cultural, and religious capital (Tang, 2006), number of hours volunteered (Tang, 2006), empowerment, satisfaction, burnout (Kulik, 2010), and intensity of volunteering (Omoto, Synder, & Martino, 2000). Overall, results of these studies have demonstrated that the age of volunteer has an impact on some aspects of volunteerism, but little research has focused on volunteer commitment.

Hypotheses

The present study investigated how age affects the prediction of duration and intensity of volunteering from satisfaction, prosocial personality, reasons to volunteer, role identity, educational level, and degree of religiousness. While the candidate predictors of volunteerism may not have simple positive relationships with duration and intensity of volunteering, it is predicted they will become significantly and positively related to the intensity and duration of volunteerism when age is considered. Volunteering was measured using two variables, duration and intensity of volunteering. Four age groups were considered as they reflect different stages of the life course. The following hypotheses were tested:

- Hypothesis 1: Duration and intensity of volunteering will be positively correlated.

- Hypothesis 2: Degree of religiousness, reasons to volunteer, satisfaction, years of education, role identity, and prosocial personality will be significantly and positively correlated with duration and intensity of volunteering.
- Hypothesis 3**:** Age groups of volunteers will differ in levels of volunteering (duration and intensity) and in the levels of the predictors of volunteering (degree of religiousness, reasons to volunteer, satisfaction, years of education, role identity, and prosocial personality).
- Hypothesis 4: A model predicting volunteering (duration and intensity) from the predictors of volunteering will be improved by incorporating age groups and the interactions of these predictors of volunteering with age.

Methods

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 144 volunteers who were recruited from the volunteer programs of major hospitals in the Detroit Metropolitan area. Eleven cases were removed due to missing data making the sample size for the data analyses 133 volunteers. Demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1. The areas of responsibility of the participants in their volunteer positions are presented in Table 2. Participants could choose one or more areas of responsibility. The percentages of participants who endorsed a particular area of responsibility are reported in Table 2.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Characteristic	n	%
Race		
African American	31	23.7
American Indian/Alaska Native/Native American	1	0.8
Asian	2	1.5
Caucasian	89	68.5
Other	7	5.5
Missing	3	
Ethnicity		
Non-Hispanic or Non-Latino	53	65.4
Hispanic	2	3.0
Latino	1	1.2
European	18	22.0
Middle Eastern	2	2.4
Other	5	6.0
Missing	52	
Personal income ($)		
0 – 5,000	36	35.3
5,001 – 15,000	18	17.7
15,001 – 25,000	18	17.7
25,001 – 35,000	7	6.9

35,001 – 45,000	8	7.8
45,001 – 100,000	11	10.7
100,001+	4	3.9
Missing	31	
Family income ($)		
0 – 5,000	12	11.4
5,001 – 15,000	10	9.5
15,001 – 25,000	12	11.4
25,001 – 35,000	10	9.5
35,001 – 45,000	11	10.5
45,001 – 100,000	32	130.6
100,001+	18	17.1
Missing	28	
Highest level of education completed		
Some high school	2	1.5
High school diploma	25	19.2
Some college	32	24.6
2-Year college (e.g., AA)	16	12.3
4-Year college (e.g., BA, BS)	26	20.0
Some graduate school	6	4.6
Graduate degree (e.g., Master's, Ph.D.)	22	17.0
Professional degree (e.g., J.D., M.D.)	1	0.8
Missing	3	
Marital status		
Never married	47	35.9
Divorced	14	10.6
Cohabitating	2	1.5
Married	53	40.5
Widowed	15	11.5
Missing	2	
Employment status		
Full-time (35 hours or more per week)	12	9.2
Part-time (less than 35 hours per week)	17	13.1
Homemaker	4	3.1
Unemployed	17	13.0
Retired	54	41.0
Disabled	2	1.5
Full-time student	12	9.2
Full-time student and part-time employment	8	6.0
Other	5	3.9
Missing	2	

Table 2. Areas of Responsibility of the Participants

Areas of Responsibility	n	%
Direct service contact with recipients of services	109	83.2
Clerical (e.g., filing, answer phones, mailings)	35	26.7
Cleaning	30	22.9
Maintenance	7	5.3
Coordinator of special events	10	7.6
Community outreach and education	9	6.9
Fundraising	9	6.9
Volunteer coordinator	7	5.3
Other	27	20.6

Recruitment of subjects to participate in a study investigating the factors affecting volunteerism occurred via placement of advertisement brochures in the volunteer offices, newsletters, and/or via announcements about the study at the volunteer meetings. To encourage participation in the study, participants who completed the questionnaires could opt to enter their name into a lottery to win a gift card ($5 to 20) from a retail store The volunteer programs were provided with the information sheets, surveys, lottery entry slips, and boxes to collect the surveys and entry slips.

Measures

Volunteers completed self-report questionnaires that consisted of the following areas: demographics information (age, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, educational level, religious affiliation, degree of religiousness, employment status, and past and present history of volunteering, duration (i.e., number of days, months, and/or years) and intensity (i.e., number of hours per week spent volunteering)); reasons to volunteer (Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI)) (Clary et al., 1998); prosocial personality characteristics (Prosocial Personality Battery (PSB)) (Penner et al., 1995); satisfaction (Clary et el., 1998); and role identity (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin (1987).

Results

Hypothesis 1 concerned the relationship between duration and intensity of volunteering which was tested by computing the bivariate correlation between these two variables. Duration (months) of volunteer service was not significantly correlated with intensity of volunteering (number of hours volunteered per week) with a small negative correlation of -.168 ($p = .053$). The hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 assessed the degree of relationship between degree of religiousness, reasons to volunteer, satisfaction, years of education, role identity, prosocial personality, and the duration and intensity of volunteering. This hypothesis was tested by computing the bivariate correlations and was partially supported. Table 3 displays these correlations.

Table 3. Correlations of Intensity and Duration of Volunteering with Degree of Religiousness, Reasons to Volunteer, Satisfaction, Years of Education, Role Identity, and Prosocial Personality

	Duration (months)			Intensity (hours)		
Measure	r	sig.	N	r	sig.	n
Religiousness	.055	.536	130	-.175*	.047	130
Reasons to volunteer						
Values	.011	.899	133	.031	.726	133
Understanding	-.088	.312	133	.264**	.002	133
Social	.042	.631	133	.247**	.004	133
Career	-.395**	.000	133	.372***	.000	133
Protective	-.095	.277	133	.165	.057	133
Enhancement	-.024	.780	133	.216*	.013	133
Satisfaction	.051	.565	132	-.172*	.049	132
Years of education	.380***	.000	130	-.247**	.005	130
Role identity	.158	.070	133	-.158	.069	133
Prosocial personality						
Other-oriented empathy	.024	.789	132	.037	.667	132
Helpfulness	-.026	.771	132	-.004	.613	132

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Duration of volunteering was significantly and negatively correlated with the desire to gain career related experience (career) but not significantly correlated with the other reasons to volunteer. Duration of volunteering was significantly and positively correlated with years of education, but was not significantly correlated with the other predictors.

Intensity of volunteering was significantly and positively correlated with the following reasons to volunteer: acquire new learning experiences (understanding), strengthen social relationships (social), gain career related experience *(*career), and grow/develop psychologically (enhancement). Intensity was not significantly correlated with the desire to express concern for others (values) or reduce negative feelings about oneself/address personal problems (protective). Intensity of volunteering was significantly correlated with degree of religiousness, satisfaction, and years of education, but was not significantly correlated with role identity, other-oriented empathy, and helpfulness.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that age groups of volunteers would differ in levels of volunteering (duration and intensity) and in the levels of the predictors of volunteering. Age groups were not distributed as expected. The age ranges for the four age groups were modified to the following to ensure there were enough participants per age group to conduct group comparisons: 18 to 39, 40 to 59, 60 to 69, and 70 plus years, with 36, 35, 37, and 25 participants respectively.

This hypothesis was tested by conducting an ANOVA using the modified age grouping categories. This procedure was done one time for each of the predictors and levels of volunteering. There was some support for this hypothesis. Table 4 displays

the means, standard deviations, and one-way analyses of variance for the effects of age group on the intensity and duration of volunteering and the predictors of volunteering. Table 5 displays the results of post hoc tests for significant ANOVAs. Age groups of volunteers had a significant impact on the duration (months) of volunteering, years of education of the volunteers, career and understanding reasons for volunteering, and on the prosocial personality characteristic of helpfulness.

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) for Effects of Age Group on Intensity and Duration of Volunteering and on the Predictors of Volunteering

	18-39		40-59		60-69		70+		ANOVA
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Duration (months)	15.72	26.62	26.00	39.70	47.97	69.78	152.48	107.30	26.277***
Intensity (hours)	8.93	10.72	12.84	13.71	7.42	6.45	7.72	4.49	2.212
Religiousness	3.22	1.33	3.11	1.34	3.76	0.85	3.56	1.04	2.210
Satisfaction	35.78	6.94	37.35	6.58	37.30	8.47	38.60	4.06	0.862
Role identity	19.77	4.31	21.50	3.12	20.59	5.91	22.44	2.80	2.138
Years of education	14.44	2.87	14.50	2.82	15.80	3.78	16.72	4.30	3.039*
Reasons to Volunteer									
Values	29.61	6.85	30.34	4.11	29.36	5.01	28.88	6.76	0.351
Career	25.42	9.04	18.89	10.49	11.86	9.31	8.23	7.77	21.412***
Understanding	28.36	6.38	26.74	5.67	22.55	7.48	23.46	7.63	5.597***
Social	17.33	8.24	16.38	7.11	15.55	7.64	17.76	7.07	0.549
Protective	19.50	6.78	18.70	6.98	17.00	7.93	16.84	7.19	1.065
	23.61	6.90	22.68	7.83	22.73	7.85	22.44	6.67	0.16
Enhancement									
Prosocial personality									
Other-oriented empathy	77.13	17.08	73.13	12.08	77.60	13.49	76.75	9.83	0.784
Helpfulness	38.26	7.83	33.68	4.97	35.28	5.87	36.19	5.42	3.391*

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001

Table 5. Effects of Age Group on the Intensity and Duration of Volunteering and on the Predictors of Volunteering

	18-39 (1)		40-59 (2)		60-69 (3)		70+ (4)	
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Duration (months)	15.72	26.62	26.00	39.70	47.97	69.78	152.48	107.30
Years of education	14.44	2.87	14.50	2.82	15.80	3.78	16.72	4.30
Reasons to Volunteer								
Career	25.42	9.04	18.89	10.49	11.86	9.31	8.23	7.77
Understanding	28.36	6.38	26.74	5.67	22.55	7.48	23.46	7.63
Prosocial Personality								
Helpfulness	38.26	7.83	33.68	4.97	35.28	5.87	36.19	5.42

Note. The numbers in parentheses in column heads refer to the numbers used for illustrating significant age group differences in the post hoc tests. For duration of service, significant age group differences were found for the following groups: 4 > 3, 4 > 2, and 4 > 1. For years of education, post hoc tests revealed no significant differences. For the reason to volunteer of career, significant age group differences were found for the following groups: 1 > 2, 1 > 3, 1 > 4, 2 > 3, and 2 > 4. For the reason to volunteer of understanding, significant age group differences were found for the following groups: 1 > 3, and 1 > 4. For the prosocial personality characteristic of helpfulness, significant age group differences were found for the following groups: 1 > 2.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that a model predicting volunteering (duration and intensity) from the predictors of volunteering would be improved by incorporating age groups and the interactions of these predictors of volunteering with age group. It was tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Variables were entered in blocks. In the first block, the six predictors (degree of religiousness, reasons to volunteer (6), satisfaction, years of education, role identity, and prosocial personality (2)) of volunteering were entered. In the second block, age group was entered. In the third block, the interactions of age group and the predictors of volunteering were entered. The hierarchical multiple regression procedure was done two times, once to predict duration of volunteering, and the second to predict intensity of volunteering. This hypothesis was partially supported.

Table 6 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the predictors and outcome variable of duration of volunteer service. Only the predictors that were significantly correlated ($p < .10$, two-tailed) with duration of volunteering (see Table 6) were included in the analyses and are reported in the table. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for predicting duration of volunteering are displayed in Table 7. An overall model of fifteen predictors (years of education, desire to gain career related experience (career), role identity, age groups (3), interaction of age groups and predictors (9)) significantly predicted duration of volunteering, $R^2 = .472$, $F(15, 114) = 6.797$, $p < .001$. This model accounted for 47.2% of the variance in duration of volunteering. Significant predictors were years of education, the desire to gain career related experience (career), and age groups.

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Duration of Volunteering and the Predictor Variables of Volunteering (N = 128)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
Duration (months)	53.04	80.76	.396***	-.381***	.155[a]
Predictor variable					
1. Years of education	15.30	3.52	--	-.369***	.119
2. Career	16.59	11.20		--	-.197*
3. Role identity	21.00	4.38			--

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. [a]p < .10

Note. Age group was analyzed using three dummy variables. Dummy variables were coded as 0's and 1s. The oldest age group of volunteers (70 plus years) was the reference group. Dummy variable 1 compares the oldest age group to the 18 to 39 year-old age group. Dummy variable 2 compares the oldest age group to the 40 to 59 year-old age group. Dummy variable 3 compares the oldest age group to the 60 to 69 year-old age group.

Table 7. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Duration of Volunteering with the Predictor Variables of Volunteering

Step and predictor variable	R^2	$\triangle R^2$	$\triangle F$	β	F
Step 1	.224	.224	12.131***		
Years of education				.271**	
Career				.278***	
Role identity				.077	
Step 2	.443	.219	16.086***		
Dummy variable 1				-.526***	
Dummy variable 2				-.586***	
Dummy variable 3				-.628***	
Step 3	.472	.029	.705		
Dummy variable 1 X Years of education				-.481	
Dummy variable 2 X Years of education				-.688	
Dummy variable 3 X Years of education				-.363	
Dummy variable 1 X Career				.148	
Dummy variable 2 X Career				.165	
Dummy variable 3 X Career				.405	
Dummy variable 1 X Role identity				.066	
Dummy variable 2 X Role identity				-.158	
Dummy variable 3 X Role identity				.017	
Full Model	.472				6.797***

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

When the hierarchical multiple regression was formulated to predict intensity of volunteer service, a model of thirty nine predictors would be required. Because the sample size was not sufficient for a regression with thirty nine predictors, only the predictor variables with beta weights in Step 2 of the analysis that approached significance ($p < .1$) were included in the analysis. This resulted in the model being reduced to four predictors (years of education, satisfaction, prosocial personality characteristic of helpfulness, and the desire to gain career related experience (career)).

Table 8 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the four predictors and outcome variable of intensity of volunteer service. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression for predicting intensity of volunteering using the four predictors are displayed in Table 9. An overall model of nineteen predictors (years of education, satisfaction, prosocial personality characteristic of helpfulness, desire to gain career related experience (career), age groups (3), and interaction of age groups and predictors (12)) significantly predicted intensity of volunteering. Significant predictors were years of education, satisfaction, helpfulness, career, age groups for dummy variable 3 (age group 60-69 vs. age group 70 plus), the interaction between dummy variable 2 (age group 40-59 vs. age group 70 plus) and years of education, and the interaction between dummy variable 2 (age group 40-59 vs. age group 70 plus) and satisfaction.

To further understand this model and the interactions that had significant beta weights, correlations between intensity of volunteering and years of education and satisfaction were conducted for each age group. Since the interactions of the predictors with significant beta weights were only with dummy variable 2 (age group 40-59 vs. age group 70 plus), this means that the relationship between the years of education and hours volunteering is not the same for the 70 plus age group as it is for the 40 to 59 age group. The same is true for the relationship between satisfaction and hours of volunteering for the two age groups. The correlation between years of education and intensity of volunteering is moderate and negative ($r = -.389$) for the 40 to 59 age group and is very small and negative ($r = -.060$) for the 70 plus age group. The correlation between satisfaction and intensity of volunteering is moderate and negative ($r = -.365$) for the 40 to 59 age group and is very small and positive ($r = .066$) for the 70 plus age group.

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Intensity of Volunteering and the Four Predictor Variables of Volunteering (N = 128)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
Intensity (hours per week)	9.08	9.90	-.242**	-.189*	-.064	.348***
Predictor variable						
1. Years of education	15.30	3.52	--	-.022	-.180*	-.359***
2. Satisfaction	37.06	6.95		--	-.250*	-.047
3. Helpfulness	35.76	6.40			--	.170
4. Career	16.59	11.20				--

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 9. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Intensity of Volunteering with the Four Predictors Variables of Volunteering

Step and predictor variable	R^2	$\triangle R^2$	$\triangle F$	β	F
Step 1	.206	.206	8.058***		
Years of education				-.173*	
Satisfaction				-.229**	
Helpfulness				-.205*	
Career				.310***	
Step 2	.259	.053	2.862*		
Dummy variable 1				-.155	
Dummy variable 2				-.048	
Dummy variable 3				-.301*	
Step 3	.399	.140	2.109*		
Dummy variable 1 X Years of education				-.347	
Dummy variable 2 X Years of education				-1.303**	
Dummy variable 3 X Years of education				-.284	
Dummy variable 1 X Satisfaction				-.044	
Dummy variable 2 X Satisfaction				-1.530[a]	
Dummy variable 3 X Satisfaction				-.637	
Dummy variable 1 X Helpfulness				-.028	
Dummy variable 2 X Helpfulness				-.611	
Dummy variable 3 X Helpfulness				-.270	
Dummy variable 1 X Career				-.115	
Dummy variable 2 X Career				.249	
Dummy variable 3 X Career				-.229	
Full Model	.399				3.801***

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. [a]p = .084.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate how age affected the relationships between volunteerism (duration and intensity) and the well-known predictors of volunteerism (satisfaction, prosocial personality, reasons to volunteer, role identity, educational level, and degree of religiousness). Connections in the literature regarding volunteerism have suggested that the age of the volunteer may play an important role in how the predictors of volunteerism affect the intensity and duration of volunteering. There was partial support for the proposed hypotheses.

With regard to the prediction of the duration of volunteering, the most common factors that played a role in how long someone will volunteer were age, years of education, and the desire to gain career related experience. As the years of education and age of the volunteer increased, so did the duration of commitment. As the desires to gain career related experience of the volunteers increased, the duration of commitment decreased. Satisfaction with volunteering and other reasons to volunteer did not appear to affect the duration of volunteer commitment as has been suggested previously by researchers. This is likely due to the poor Michigan economy and the high unemployment rates. Obtaining job skills and experience were likely more important to this volunteer sample than other

factors that are normally and more strongly related to the prediction of the duration of volunteering.

With regard to the prediction of the intensity of volunteering, the number of hours a person volunteered each week was strongly and positively related to whether or not they were able to satisfy their reasons to volunteer. The most common reasons to volunteer were to acquire new learning experiences, gain career experience, enhance social relationships, and/or to grow and develop psychologically. Intensity of volunteering was found to have a significant inverse relationship with satisfaction. A qualitative review of the comments from volunteers regarding what they might like to see improved in their volunteer program revealed that participants often requested increased responsibilities and roles and better utilization of their skill sets. It is possible participants may have increased or decreased the number of hours they volunteered each week to maintain an adequate level satisfaction in their volunteer role.

Regarding the relationship between age and the intensity of volunteering, this relationship appeared to be mediated by the volunteers' level of satisfaction and years of education. When volunteers were older, their intensity of volunteering did not appear to be affected by satisfaction level and years of education. However, when volunteers were younger, intensity appeared to decrease when satisfaction and years of education increased.

Clinical and Practice Implications

Results of the research impact both the volunteers and the volunteer organizations. One of the major reasons individuals choose to volunteer appears to be related to the desire to gain career related experience regardless of age of the volunteer. Thus, volunteer programs might want to consider incorporating career related skills training programs into the volunteer positions and market their programs in a way that suggests career training as an option in the volunteer position. Because the relationship between satisfaction with one's volunteer role and intensity of commitment appears important, volunteer programs may want to regularly assess volunteer satisfaction in their roles and make changes as needed to their program. They may also want to consider allowing volunteers to carry varied responsibilities and incorporate social activities into their programs. For potential volunteers considering making a commitment to a volunteer position, it might be helpful for them to assess the match between their reasons to volunteer and whether or not the potential organizations can meet their reasons to volunteer. This may have an impact on the duration and intensity of their volunteer commitment.

In summary, the type of volunteer who is going to be able to commit to a long duration of volunteering is one who is older, well educated, and not motivated to volunteer to gain career related experience. The type of volunteer who will volunteer the most number of hours per week is one who is less educated, has several reasons to volunteer, specifically oriented towards learning new skills, is capable of tolerating the distress of others well, and is easily satisfied.

Limitations and Future Research

Generalizability of the results is limited to volunteers in the hospital setting. Future research might consider including hospital volunteers and individuals who volunteer in other health settings (clinics/doctors offices). Sample size was limited among participant age groups. A larger sample may allow for more precise multivariate comparisons to be made among age groups of volunteers. The continuous

rise in unemployment and the poor Michigan economy may have contributed to the career motive being significant in the prediction of volunteering across all hypotheses. Individuals may partly be seeking volunteer positions to gain career related experience.

Because of the cross-sectional research design, in which different groups of participants are compared at one point in time, the findings do not provide a basis for definitive conclusions of cause and effect. The results from this research added to the knowledge that age affects the relationships between the well-known predictors of volunteering and the duration and intensity of volunteering. But, in order to show that differences in the predictors of volunteering across the life cycle are a function of age differences, longitudinal research is needed in the future.

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Leadership, Management Practices, and Volunteer Retention

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Abstract

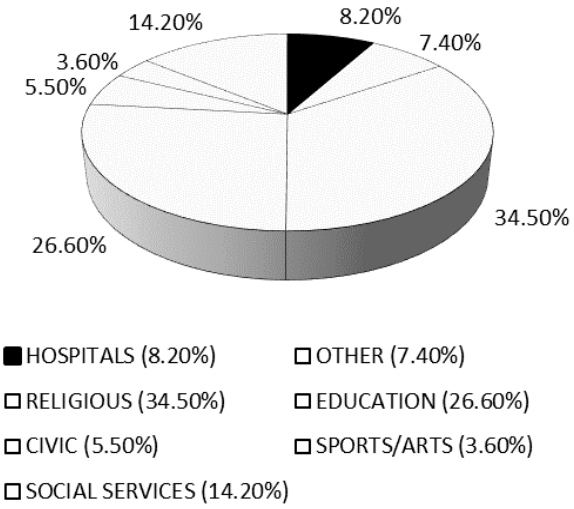
This qualitative research reported here delved into 12 hospital volunteers' perceptions of their lived experiences and their view of how those experiences affected their tendency to continue to come back to work year in and year out. The objective of the study was to arrive at an improved understanding of why the retention rate was much better at the Northwest Florida hospital than it was for volunteers at nonprofits nationally. The researcher used interviews and analyzed data according to a modified van Kaam method. The researchers also identify recommendations for management policies and leadership practices relative to the retention proclivity of volunteers.

Key Words: retention, volunteers, leadership, satisfaction, engagement

Introduction

This research concerned the lived experiences of volunteers relative to the disparity between retention rates of volunteers at a Northwest Florida Hospital and the national volunteer retention average. Dissatisfaction results in the failure of more than 36% of new volunteers to return the second year (CNCS, 2013). Department of Labor (2013) reported Americans volunteer 7.85 billion hours per year of their time to various types of organizations. As represented in Figure 1 American volunteer hours are divided among various types of organizations. Hospitals, at 8.20% of the total, benefit by 643,700,000 hours.

Figure 1. Distribution of annual volunteer labor hours among organizations (Department of Labor, 2013).



The hospital utilizes 260 volunteers in 18 different areas. Volunteers are tasked to stock supplies for nurses in patients' rooms, administer palliative social care to families, act as Communion servers, assist in the Post Anesthesia Care Unit, staff the various welcome and information desks, and drive the courtesy car in the parking area. Tasks are well-defined by means of specific job descriptions. This research examined the lived experiences of volunteers at the hospital relative to retention proclivity, management policies, and leadership practices.

Compared to the national average of 64% retention rate for nonprofit organizations (CNCS, 2013), the hospital has a retention rate of 95%, according to volunteer resource manager (VRM). The reason for this 31% difference in retention rate between the national average of nonprofits and the hospital may be attributable to management practices and the employment of a full-time transformational VRM. This qualitative study of 12 volunteers out of the total of approximately 260 volunteers at the hospital used interviews to acquire data that provided an understanding of lived experiences of volunteers relative to retention proclivity. The intent of the research was to gain better understanding of factors that lead volunteers to return year after year at a greater rate than the national average for volunteers.

A principal research question guided the interview process and analysis procedures: What are the reasons that volunteers repeatedly return to work at the hospital year in and year out? Two interview questions supported the principal question to add clarity for the participants:

(a) What policies of the organization influence the retention of volunteers?

(b) What leadership practices at the VRM level and at the volunteer level influence the retention of volunteers?

Each of the interview questions was accompanied by several ancillary, trigger questions to further prompt responses to the open-ended interview questions.

Background

CNCS (2013) listed nine practices conducive to good management of volunteers. These practices include regular supervision and communication with volunteers, liability protection or insurance coverage for volunteers, regular collection of information on volunteers and volunteer hours, and screening procedures to match volunteers to tasks. CNCS (2013) also included written policies and job descriptions for volunteer involvement, recognition activities such as award ceremonies for volunteers, annual measurement of impact of volunteers, training and professional development opportunities for volunteers, and training for paid staff including the VRM. CNCS (2013) explained that not every organization should adopt all the recommended practices, but organizations should tailor the practices to the needs of the nonprofit.

Lakshmi (2010) said engagement measures the involvement of a person with the job and the organization. To engage volunteers Lakshmi (2010) said managers should communicate their expectations to the volunteer and provide feedback, provide meaningful work that suits the talents of the volunteer and that provides satisfaction, and build confidence in the volunteer. Recognition is very important to prevent excessive turnover of personnel (Iqbal, 2010). Iqbal (2010) found that poor communication in the form of isolation from management and management looking down on the workers as second-class citizens resulted in 123% annual job turnover rate.

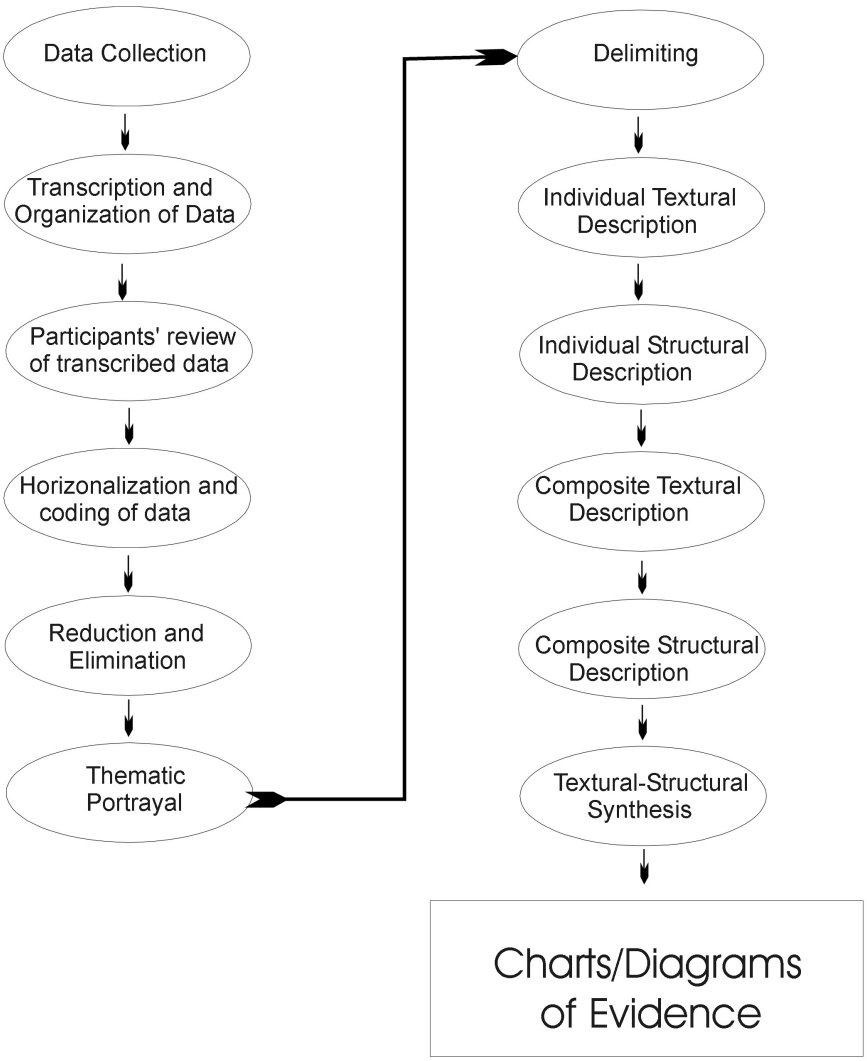
Theoretical Framework

Bass & Bass (2008) explained that a transformational leader motivates followers by changing the emphasis of followers' concerns from those of security and belonging to those of achievement and self-actualization. Bass and Bass (2008) posited transformational leadership raises the maturity of followers and boosts their concern for other people. Transformational leadership and its resultant activities can enhance job satisfaction and retention (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Method

To identify themes and categories pertinent to the study, the researcher used the Moustakas, (1994) modified van Kaam technique of analysis of data that follows the collection of data and consists of nine distinctive steps: horizonalization, reduction and elimination, thematic portrayal, delimiting, creating individual textural descriptions, creating individual structural descriptions, creating composite textural descriptiond, creating composite structural descriptions, and writing a textural-structural synthesis (See Figure 2).

Figure 2. Data analysis process according to the Moustakas (1994) method.



Instrumentation

Two instruments designed for this study facilitated the gathering of data (Weeks, Swerissen, & Belfrage, 2007). The first instrument was a volunteer demographic survey composed of seven questions. Included in the demographic survey were questions pertaining to gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, education level, previous experience at volunteering in other organizations, and volunteer hours worked per week. The demographic study was used to query data establishing potential relationships. The second instrument was a set of 11 management policy-related and 16 leadership practices-related trigger questions designed to keep interviews on track.

Data Collection and Analysis

The research involved an extended interview data collection technique. This was an informal process (Moustakas, 1994) that was similar to a conversation in which the researcher became an instrument of data collection. The process included data collection by digital recorder, electronic transcription, participant review of the transcripts, and coding of the data. The researcher used Nvivo10 software to classify, sort, and arrange data for in-depth analysis (QSR International, 2012).

Findings

Demographic Data

The researcher gathered demographic data under pseudonyms using a survey that was filled out by each participant. Table 1 shows the participants' demographic data. The data were used to ensure that participants were representative of the central tendency of the population of 260 volunteers at the hospital. The researcher also used demographic data to make comparisons between responses of participants in different demographic categories.

Table 1
Demographic Data of Participants in the Study

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	Education	Ethnicity	Hour per Week	Marital Status	Previous Experience
Grace	60-70	F	12 yrs	Caucasian	4	S	2 yrs
Angela	60-70	F	14 yrs	Caucasian	12	M	2 yrs
Crystal	60-70	F	14 yrs	Caucasian	4	S	2 yrs
Gerry	60-70	F	14 yrs	Caucasian	8	M	2 yrs
Alice	40-50	F	16 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	2 yrs
Misty	70+	F	16 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	5 yrs
Ruth	60-70	F	16 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	2 yrs
Hannah	50-60	F	18 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	2 yrs
Mark	70+	M	16 yrs	Caucasian	8	M	8 yrs
Mike	70+	M	18 yrs	Caucasian	4	S	2 yrs
Robert	60-70	M	18 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	2 yrs
Joseph	70+	M	18 yrs	Caucasian	4	M	2 yrs

Results of Thematic Analysis

Coding data to nodes, node analysis, and keyword frequency analysis led the researcher to identify themes in the current study. Six themes, in the perception of participants, led to positive influence on their individual and collective retention proclivity. The themes were altruism, leadership, recognition, relationships, responsibility, and cultural variation. Table 2 shows the frequency of occurrence of major themes by study participant pseudonym.

Table 2
Frequency of Occurrence of Major Themes by Study Participant Pseudonym

Pseudonym	Major Themes					
	Altruism	Leadership	Recognition	Relationships	Responsibility	Cultural Variation
Alice	*	*	*	*	*	*
Angela	*	*	*	*	*	*
Crystal	*	*	*	*	*	*
Gerry	*	*	*	*	*	*
Grace	*	*	*	*	*	*
Hannah	*	*	*	*	*	*
Joseph	*	*	*		*	
Mark	*	*	*		*	*
Mike	*	*	*	*	*	*
Misty	*	*	*	*	*	*
Robert	*	*	*	*	*	*
Ruth	*	*	*	*	*	
Legend: * = Major theme found at participant node represented by a pseudonym.						

Altruism Theme. All 12 of the participants perceived that their retention proclivity was driven extensively by altruistic motivation. Some expressed personal motivation, such as feelings, for this altruism. Other expressed religious conviction. All expressed a desire to help others, to be concerned about the welfare of other human beings as contributing strongly to their retention proclivity.

Leadership Theme. All 12 of participants recognized leadership factors that directly and positively affected their retention proclivity. Among these factors were values shared with the leader, keeping things open and above board, community support, having written policies and procedures, and learning new things. Also included were matching volunteers to tasks, initial and recurring task training, support of the leader in providing communication, allowing the volunteer to work alone, treating the volunteer as a person, caring about what the volunteer thinks, ethics, and good relationship with the leader.

The VRM provided support in times of crisis, knew volunteer motivation, and encouraged an atmosphere of caring. Management up to the CEO openly recognizes that volunteers save time and money that the hospital can use to give greater care to more people. The participants generally felt it was important for retention proclivity that the VRM be able to unite the volunteers behind the vision and the mission of the hospital.

Recognition Theme. All 12 of participants perceived that recognition, especially by staff workers in their various departments, had a positive effect on their retention proclivity. The recognition expressed by upper management on a daily basis as well as at the annual dinner also had a positive impact. Likewise, the effect of peer recognition in the community positively affected retention proclivity.

Relationship Theme. Ten of twelve participants reported that relationships at the hospital positively affected their retention proclivity. These relationships included those with patients, hospital staff, the VRM, and other volunteers. A few volunteers actively sought out relationships as a motive for volunteering.

Responsibility Theme. All 12 of participants identified the responsibility theme in their interviews. Factors that influenced responsibility and ownership of the tasks involved in volunteering include feelings of competence on the job facilitated by initial and recurring training, written procedures, new procedures for new equipment, and proper updates. Also emphasized were matching tasks to people, dedication to the mission of the hospital, liability insurance for volunteers, and a duty to human kind. Some volunteers continued in the same or like function after they retired from regular work, thus enabling the hospital to take advantage of their professional expertise.

Cultural Variation Theme. Ten out of twelve participants commented on some element of cultural variation. An element of cultural variation was identified when it demonstrated an effect on retention proclivity attributable to differences in relations with the staff from one area or department to another. The participants were divided on whether staff training would improve conditions.

Discussion and Recommendations

Eleven management policy factors and sixteen leadership factors impacting retention proclivity were named as attributes in the NVivo10 classification data sheet. Within the major themes, the participants identified their perception of factors that affected their retention proclivity. The participants explained in-depth their feelings within the themes. The themes carried implications for leadership and management.

Implications of Altruism Major Theme Findings. Twelve out of twelve participants perceived that their retention proclivity was driven extensively by altruistic motivation. Hospital volunteers consistently reported that they wanted very little in return for their service, often not more than a simple, 'thank you.' The implication of this finding as it pertains to retention proclivity is that more emphasis should be placed on properly addressing the need for recognizing the contribution of volunteers as opposed to providing other comforts and perks.

Implications of Leadership Major Theme Findings. Each of the participants recognized leadership factors that directly and positively affected their retention proclivity. These factors included values shared with the leader who reportedly demonstrated all four characteristics of transformational leadership: intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, individualized influence (attributed), and individualized influence behavior.

Organizational culture, satisfaction, and motivation enhanced the chances for personnel retention and included keeping things open and ethically above board, community support, having written policies and procedures, and learning new things. Also included were matching volunteers to tasks, initial and recurring task training, support of the leader in providing

communication, allowing the volunteer to work alone, treating the volunteer as a person, caring about what the volunteer thinks, ethics, good relationship with the leader, leader support in times of crisis, knowing volunteer motivation, and encouraging an atmosphere of caring.

As explained by Gill, Mathur, Sharma and Bhutani (2011), the epitome of transformational leadership is the degree to which leaders encourage followers to buy into the decision making process using their own judgment, and the degree to which leaders show appreciation for good work. In this way the hospital VRM reportedly was able to unite the volunteers behind the mission and vision of the hospital. The implication of this finding is that, even if an organization cannot afford to hire a full–time professional VRM, the organization should ensure they put someone in place who is knowledgeable about the task of leading the organization's volunteers.

Implications of Recognition Major Theme Findings. The participants unanimously perceived that recognition, especially by staff workers in their various departments, had a positive effect on their retention proclivity. The recognition expressed by upper management on a daily basis as well as at the annual dinner also had a positive impact. Because this theme occurred unanimously in the participants' data it would be wise to take it under advisement when attempting to mediate retention proclivity. Also, because it aligns with the concerns of cultural variation, it appears to positively indicate training for paid staff on how to interface with volunteers, especially in high-stress work areas like the ER.

Implications of Relationships Major Theme Findings. Ten of twelve participants reported that relationships at the hospital positively affected their retention proclivity. Because the desire to form relationships is as a personal motivational factor, it would seem reasonable to screen for such a factor and to place the volunteer in a task (Ellis, 2010) in which that personal motivator could be fulfilled.

Implications of Responsibility Major Theme Findings. Each of the 12 of participants identified the responsibility theme in their interviews. Some volunteers continued in the same or like function after they retired from regular work. This enabled the hospital to take advantage of their professional expertise. Some volunteers placed an emphasis on ethical behavior on the part of staff as a condition of retention proclivity. Not all organizations have the luxury of picking and choosing between persons who volunteer. However, when the opportunity does present itself screening should be performed not only to fit the person to the job (Ellis, 2010), but to acquire those volunteers with desirable characteristic for retention proclivity.

Implications of Cultural Variation Major Theme Findings. Ten out of twelve participants commented on some element of cultural variation as defined herein. Essentially, they all perceived that some places are easier to work than others but not all felt stressed. This appears to validate the finding of Sharma and Devi (2011) that unless perceived as stressful by workers, workplace conditions and work do not necessarily lead to personal stress. One finding of Sharma and Devi (2011) was that extroverted persons tend to feel less stress in the work environment. The obvious implication of this information is that, should a VRM have knowledge of a high stress environment (as opposed to other places to put a volunteer who is susceptible to work stress) volunteers should be screened for factors that could lead to stress.

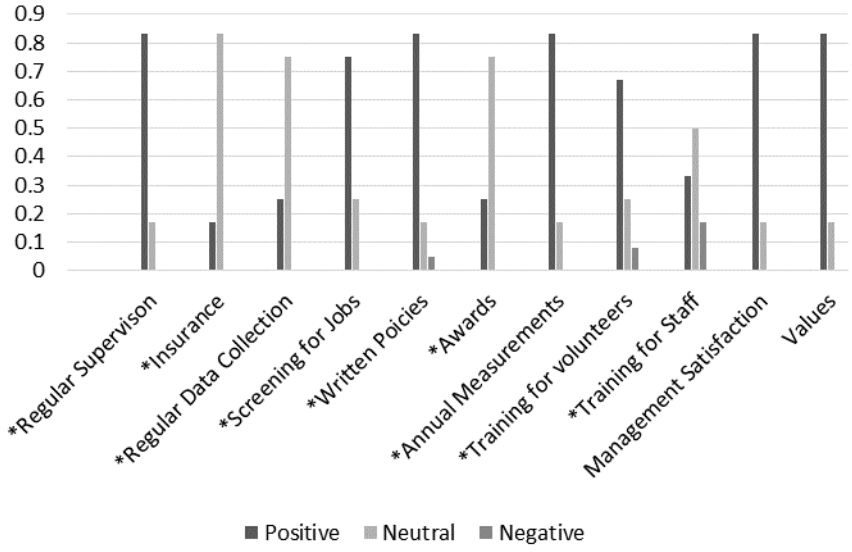
Answer to Research Question. The analysis of the data, findings, and implications did not appear to definitively

answer the research question: What are the reasons that volunteers repeatedly return to work at the hospital year in and year out? However, useful themes and suggestions did emerge and the objective of further understanding was satisfied. The study yielded recommendations for management and leadership practices.

Limitations on Generalizability of the Study. The study yielded recommendations for management and leadership practices as well as recommendations for further research based on the reporting of the perceptions of the participants' reflexivity to their contextual situation. However, because of the limited number and similarity of the demographics of the participants in this study proper generalization of the findings is very limited. Therefore, any derived specific recommendations are restricted to the hospital in Northwest Florida unless further investigation is conducted to assess their applicability.

Recommended Management Policies and Leadership Practices. In addition to those recommended by CNCS (2013), a review of the literature revealed 18 policies and practices recommended in various studies for the improvement of retention proclivity. These additional items are divided into recommended management factors (2) and leadership factors (16). The perceptions of participants (N=12) by percentages for each of the 11 CNCS identified and 2 other management factors as they influence retention proclivity are displayed at Figure 3.

Figure 3. The perceptions of participants for each management policy factor.

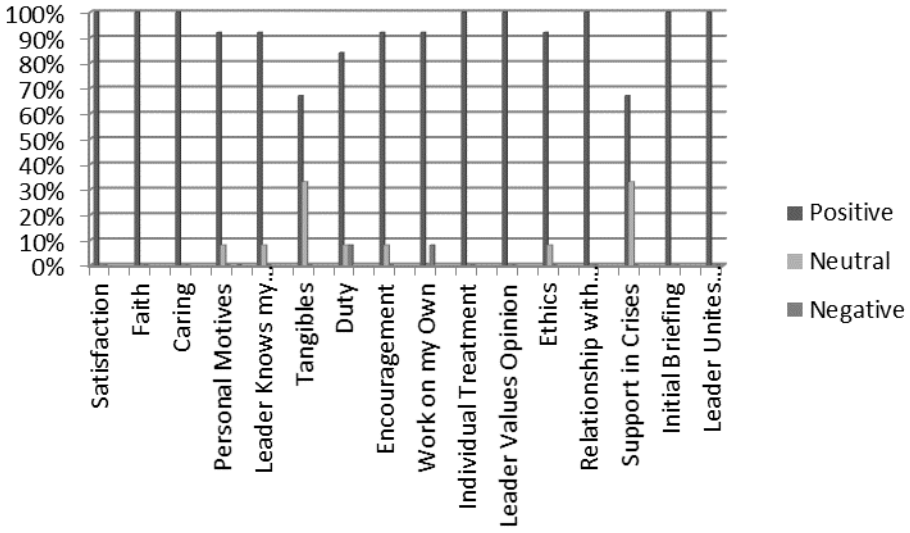


* Indicates policy recommended by CNCS (2013)

The insurance factor and the regular data collection factor show low interest in the perception of participants because, as identified by CNCS (2013), these are primarily for the benefit of the organization. The awards factor scored low because the participants were expressly altruistic and only incidentally interested in awards. The staff training factor elicited mixed responses.

The perceptions of participants (N=12) by percentages for each of the 16 leadership factors as it influences retention proclivity are displayed at Figure 4.

Figure 4. The perceptions of participants for each leadership factor.



The very high emphasis on these leadership factors as affecting retention proclivity in the perception of the participants in this study warrants a close examination by any organization using volunteers. That is not to say that this study recommends that adoption of any policy or practice by an organization without careful consideration of possible outcomes.

Of particular note is that leadership practices in the hospital in this study are attuned to the various aspects of transformational leadership. It should be noted that the leadership of the hospital (VRM) does not take a preventative approach (putting out fires) to precluding reasons why volunteers leave. Essential for the nurturing of retention proclivity is the proactive approach to leadership in which the recommended management policies and leadership practices are collectively treated as a systemically normal way of doing business.

Spink (2011) postulated that volunteer engagement creates a feeling of positivity and community involvement and may form the basis of a new paradigm in volunteerism. Management can provide a vision of this new paradigm by selecting a transformational VRM.

Management should support the transformational VRM with empowerment to selectively implement the management policies and leadership practices defined herein (See Figures 3 and 4), depending on the organizational characteristics such as size and structure. Volunteers should be seen less as a group of unskilled workers doing menial tasks and more as engaged members of the organization on a par with staff. The staff and the volunteers can change fundamentally from being on two separate teams, each with its own mission, to one team with the same vision and mission.

A primary responsibility of the VRM is to unite the volunteers behind the mission and vision of the organization. This is key to their acceptance as team members by paid staff. Tosey, Visser, and Saunders (2011) cautioned that this road to success is not easily traveled and should not be taken lightly. Management support up to the CEO was implemental in the process.

Recommendations for further study. Considering the high dollar values of volunteer labor (8 billion man-hours annually), sponsors of social sciences research can consider projects to study organizations and their volunteer retention rates before and after implementation of policies and practices contained herein for the development of empirical data. Ownership in the organization, adopting the organization, and nurturing it can be studied as a possible motivator for retention proclivity. Studies investigating the interface and relationships between full-tine staff and volunteers could be useful.

Some research could be done on volunteering while still young. Volunteering changes people for the better and the benefits to the young are largely unknown. Some studies suggest that young people only volunteer for school credit. Quantitative studies might be undertaken to discover if longevity is enhanced by volunteering and the relationships created through volunteering.

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Challenges in Volunteer Resource Management

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Abstract

Volunteers represent both an invaluable resource and a unique set of challenges to nonprofit organizations large and small. The study reported here was designed to investigate the top challenges in volunteer resource management as identified by a variety of stakeholders at diverse nonprofit organizations. Identifying meaningful volunteer roles, recruiting a sufficient number of volunteers, and recruiting volunteers with particular skill sets were reported as the three top challenges. Some differences between larger and smaller organizations in terms of both recruitment and management challenges were indicated. In addition, identified challenges varied based on the organizational role of the respondent.

Key Words: volunteer resource management, executive directors, nonprofit staff, nonprofit management

Introduction

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) more than 64 million Americans volunteered with a wide variety of educational, religious, environmental, health, arts, and human service, and public-society benefit organizations (Blackwood, Roeger, & Pettijohn, 2012). Given the sheer number of volunteers, the diversity of the roles they fill, the plethora of causes served, and the variety in terms of size, budget, and service delivery models of nonprofit organizations, it is difficult to define one clear set of volunteer engagement challenges faced by all nonprofits. Broadly speaking, the most common issues are often described as being related to volunteer recruitment and management. In their analysis of nearly 3,000 nonprofit organizations, Hager and Brudney (2004) found that recruiting a sufficient quantity of volunteers was an issue for almost 70% of all nonprofit respondents, while the lack of funding available to support the administration of volunteer programs was the challenge most commonly listed as a "big problem" by the respondents. This study also found that organizations investing in their volunteer programs were likely to see higher levels of net benefit from these programs.

However, a more nuanced understanding about the specific ways in which volunteer recruitment and management present challenges to different types of nonprofits could help to identify

ways to address and overcome typical barriers.

A number of studies look at volunteer motivation as a key consideration for recruitment. Clary et al. (1998) identified six motivators for volunteering: expressing personal values, learning and practicing new skills, connecting with others, advancing in one's career, guarding one's self-image, and enhancing one's happiness. In a study of credit union volunteers, Ward and McKillop (2011) noted that altruism was the strongest motivator, followed by interest in the work, enjoyment of the experience, and social contact. However, as Yanay and Yanay (2008) suggest, the motivations that drive a volunteer to begin volunteering can differ from those required to sustain continued volunteering, and an organization with successful recruiting techniques may still be stymied by low volunteer retention rates.

Despite a hypothesis that recruitment would be a smaller issue for larger organizations, Hager and Brudney (2004) demonstrated that organizational size was in fact veiling other factors that explained differences in recruiting challenges. In their final model, they found that organizational size did not affect volunteer recruitment. Differences were instead explained by the volunteer intensiveness (defined as the volunteer experience in terms of number of hours expected of a given volunteer as well as the number of volunteers involved overall) and diversity of volunteer opportunities. Interestingly, higher volunteer intensiveness and lower diversity of volunteer opportunities both correlated with lower levels of recruitment challenge.

The research also suggests that volunteer management challenges shift over the life cycle of a volunteer's engagement with an organization, and too much focus on recruitment and not enough on retention may mask inadequacies in volunteer management (Brudney & Meijs, 2009). As areas of nonprofit function that are inherently interrelated, what might be seen generally as a recruitment challenge may in fact be a volunteer management issue and vice versa. In some ways, then, volunteer recruitment and volunteer management can be seen as flip sides of the same coin.

Given the diversity of the volunteer corps and the organizations they serve, recruiting and managing volunteers and volunteer programs requires creativity (Ellis, 1999). Previous studies on volunteer recruitment and management challenges have been limited to a given mission realm, such as mental health services (Gidron, 1979) or ecological issues (Leslie, Velez, & Bonar, 2004), or a specific demographic group such as volunteer executives (Fenn Jr, 1971) or volunteers over the age of 75 (Shmotkin, Blumstein, & Modan, 2003). While their findings prove interesting, their narrow focus limits applicability.

This study sought to capture information from a diverse set of stakeholders about the issues facing professionals working with volunteers in organizations of varying size. Our three basic research questions were:

- What are the most prevalent challenges in volunteer resource management?
- Does the list of top challenges change with the size of the organization?
- Does the list of top challenges change based on the primary position of the respondent?

This paper focuses primarily on the first two research questions, with some suggestions for additional areas of future research that address the broader overall goals of the study.

Methodology

Over a six-month period in 2010, a convenience sample of 1,265 unique

respondents completed a brief survey designed to identify critical challenges in volunteer engagement. Survey respondents were motivated to complete the survey by the opportunity to download a complimentary copy of a report entitled *Strategic volunteer engagement: A guide for nonprofit and public sector leaders* (Rehnborg, Bailey, Moore, & Sinatra, 2009), which summarized findings from a UPS Foundation Volunteer Impact Fund study examining nonprofit executive leadership support of volunteer engagement. The availability of the free download was promoted widely through a variety of web resources, including EnergizeInc.com, VolunteerToday.com, the OneStar Foundation, the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service, and others.

Potential downloaders were asked to complete a ten-question survey which included basic demographic information about organizational size as measured by budget, number of full-time employees or equivalents (FTEs), and number of volunteers engaged. Information on the mission focus of the nonprofit organizations was not collected. To complete the survey, respondents identified their top three volunteer management challenges from a 15-item list.

Analysis

Participants

E-mail addresses provided by respondents were used as unique identifiers. The original data set of 1,307 responses was reduced to 1,265 by this process. Respondents were then grouped according to their affiliation of primary position: nonprofit staff, educator, student, or volunteer. For respondents who selected more than one role, their affiliation was included with the first category indicated aligned with the above order. Thus, a respondent who indicated that s/he was nonprofit staff as well as an educator was included in the nonprofit staff group, while a respondent who indicated that s/he was both an educator and a volunteer would be considered an educator. Roughly 20% of the respondents selected more than one designation. Using this method, of the 1,265 respondents, 952 identified themselves as nonprofit staff and professionals. The remainder consisted of educators (168), students (61), and volunteers (67).

Organizational size characteristics

Of the 1,265 unique respondents, 884 completed all of the survey questions regarding the three measures of organizational size used in this study: annual budget, number of paid FTEs, and number of volunteers engaged by the organization.

Of the 1,136 respondents who provided a budget size for their organization, 46% indicated an annual budget of over $750,000. A reasonably even distribution of respondents populated the remaining four budget categories. The number of FTEs scale captured at least 8% of the respondents in each category, with 27% of the respondents in the largest category of more than 51 FTEs. The volunteer count scale was the smoothest distribution, with at least 11 percent of the respondents selecting each of the six categories, and 19% of the responses in the top category of over 500 volunteers engaged.

There was a very strong correlation between number of employees and budget of organization, as well as between number of volunteers and budget of organization. Neither of these relationships is surprising: one would assume that larger organizations would have larger numbers of staff on payroll and, possibly, utilize larger numbers of volunteers.

In accordance with our assumptions, we also found that larger organizations

engaged more volunteers, with a statistically significant Pearson's Chi-Square result of 199.262. While we were testing at $p <= 0.05$, our results were significant at a $p<0.001$ level.

Table 1. Number of Volunteers Engaged By Annual Budget

Number of volunteers used by the organization (respondents in category)	Budget under $50,000	$50,000 - $149,999	$150,000 - $299,999	$300,000 - $749,999	Budget over $750,000
0-25 vols (162)	38%	15%	14%	16%	18%
26-50 vols (114)	25%	17%	13%	12%	33%
51-100 vols (104)	16%	14%	9%	23%	38%
101-250 vols (160)	6%	12%	15%	18%	50%
251-500 (119)	11%	7%	13%	16%	54%
Over 500 vols (225)	3%	7%	6%	10%	74%
COUNT (884)	**135**	**101**	**98**	**134**	**416**
% of total	**15%**	**11%**	**11%**	**15%**	**47%**

As can be seen in Table 2, most respondents were affiliated with organizations engaging over 500 volunteers and over 50 salaried FTEs. The responses from smaller organizations were well-distributed across the smaller categories. This suggests that the segmentation cutoffs selected divided the respondents from smaller organizations well, and indicates a need for more categories on the larger end of the scale in future studies.

Table 2. Number of Volunteers Engaged by Number of Salaried FTEs

	Number of Salaried FTEs					
	0	1-3	4-10	11-20	21-50	Over 50
0-25 vols	29%	31%	16%	9%	7%	9%
26-50 vols	18%	26%	20%	9%	13%	15%
51-100 vols	7%	25%	22%	12%	13%	21%
101-250 vols	5%	20%	23%	12%	16%	25%
251-500 vols	8%	19%	18%	11%	12%	33%
Over 500 vols	2%	9%	16%	4%	12%	58%
Total	**11%**	**20%**	**19%**	**9%**	**12%**	**30%**

Challenges overall

The core of the survey focused on the central challenges experienced in volunteer resource management. As indicated in the table that follows, a broad array of potential responses was offered. The issues included both recruitment- and retention-focused questions to gain a sense of the weighting of issues in these two areas in practice. Respondents were asked to select up to three of the challenges listed.

Table 3. Top 3 Identified Challenges Overall

What are your greatest challenges in working with volunteers? (Select up to three):
1 Developing a wide range of meaningful roles for volunteers with limited schedules
2 Interviewing and screening volunteers
3 Finding good service opportunities for the volunteers we have
4 Recruiting a sufficient number of qualified volunteers
5 Recruiting a diverse volunteer corps
6 Managing more volunteers than we know what to do with
7 Finding volunteers with the 'right' skills and talents for our organization
8 Training and supervising volunteers
9 Performing criminal reference or other background checks on prospective volunteers
10 Managing volunteers/staff relations issues
11 Securing reliable participation from volunteers
12 Dealing with low or poor volunteer performance
13 Collecting data to demonstrate the value of our volunteer initiatives
14 Training our staff to work effectively with volunteers
15 Funding our volunteer program

Some respondents selected fewer or more than three challenges. The results below include all of the respondents' selections weighted equally, regardless of the number of challenges the respondent selected. The three most common responses to the question, "What are your greatest challenges in working with volunteers?" are provided in Table 4.

Table 4. Top 3 Identified Challenges

What are your greatest challenges in working with volunteers?	
Developing a wide range of meaningful roles for volunteers with limited schedules	38%
Recruiting a sufficient number of volunteers	34%
Finding volunteers with the right skills for our organization	32%

These findings indicate that volunteer resource management issues focus on both supply and demand—finding and matching volunteers with meaningful opportunities that suit their schedules and skillsets present ongoing challenges.

Challenges by organizational size and respondent group

As previously discussed, we measured "size" through three different scoping variables: number of FTEs, total budget, and total number of volunteers engaged. We then analyzed the responses about key volunteer management challenges

through independent t-tests, comparing those respondents who identified a given issue as a key challenge against the remainder of the respondents. These findings are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. Top Challenges by Organizational Size as Measured by Budget, Number of FTEs, and Number of Volunteers Engaged

	Budget	FTEs	Vols
Training our staff to work effectively with volunteers	***	***	***
Recruiting a sufficient number of volunteers	***	***	***
Managing volunteers/staff relations issues	**	***	**
Recruiting a diverse volunteer corps	**	**	***

This analysis indicated that training staff to work effectively with volunteers is a significant challenge to larger organizations, as measured by all three metrics (number of FTEs, organizational budget, and number of volunteers engaged). The difference is most pronounced when measuring organizational size by number of employees, although it is statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level (***) for all three scoping metrics.

Recruiting a sufficient number of qualified volunteers is a bigger challenge for smaller organizations, as measured by all three scoping metrics, than for their larger counterparts. The gap is largest when measuring organization size by the number of volunteers engaged, though the finding is statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level (***) for all three scoping metrics.

Managing volunteer / staff relations is a greater challenge for larger organizations. This result is significant at the $p<0.01$ (**) level for all three scoping metrics and is most pronounced when measuring organizations by number of FTEs by which metric it is significant at the $p<0.001$ (***) level.

Recruiting a diverse volunteer corps is a greater challenge for larger organizations by all three scoping metrics at the $p<0.01$ level (**), though the difference is most pronounced for organizations engaging more volunteers; for this scoping metric, the finding was significant at the $p<0.001$ (***) level.

We also conducted a preliminary analysis to see whether the list of top challenges was different by respondent group (nonprofit staff, educators, students, volunteers). Due to the lack of previous applicable studies, we operated from a hypothesis that there would be no differences between these groups. Overall, we discovered that nonprofit staff members have different views from educators and students and that volunteers agree with each group on some challenges. Nonprofit staff focused on challenges around recruitment, retention, and support of volunteer programs. Volunteers were interested in working with a sufficient number of reliable fellow volunteers. The numbers of responses from educators (168) and students

(61) were smaller and will be examined in future research.

Discussion

Determining how to sculpt an experience that will be meaningful both for the volunteer and the organization within the constraints of the nonprofit's schedule and the volunteer's schedule represents a critical challenge to nonprofit organizations of all sizes and has implications for both recruitment and retention. While recruiting a sufficient quantity of volunteers was a higher priority for smaller organizations, it was still a key challenge for more than a third of the respondents. Regardless of size, finding enough volunteers is an issue for most nonprofit organizations. Skill-specific recruiting is a more central issue for smaller organizations, but nearly one out of every three respondents viewed this as a critical challenge: our findings show that this is a key issue even at larger nonprofit organizations.

Two of our four findings around organizational size involved the relationship between volunteers and paid staff. The challenge upon which large and small organizations differed most was the challenge of training staff to work with volunteers effectively. For larger organizations, especially as measured by number of employees, this training is a vital issue. The importance of training is echoed by a third finding focused on the challenge of managing relationships between paid staff and volunteers. Large organizations may be able to mitigate the challenge of managing these relationships by addressing the need for training for both volunteers and paid staff.

Our other two differences in challenges based on organizational size involve recruitment. The findings suggest that smaller organizations focus on quantity, while larger organizations focus on diversity. This seems a logical progression: as an organization gains the ability to recruit and retain a sufficient number of volunteers, the next challenge is to target the specific traits they seek when searching for volunteers. Recruitment of volunteers with specific skills was also a more important challenge for smaller organizations as measured by budget and by number of paid staff, though the finding was not as statistically significant as the results summarized above. This also seems logical: in an organization using a handful of volunteers, the loss of a single volunteer would diminish the volunteer workforce by a far greater fraction than in an organization with hundreds of engaged volunteers. Recruiting a diverse volunteer corps was a bigger challenge for to organizations using larger numbers of volunteers than to smaller organizations. We posit that larger organizations may have a greater capacity to target certain groups, while smaller organizations may be less adept at this form of recruitment. These findings suggest that volunteer recruitment may follow a hierarchy of need reminiscent of Maslow (1943): first, we find enough volunteers, then we worry about finding the right volunteers.

Finally, though we were pleased to see that larger organizations engage more volunteers, we recognize that these larger organizations were more likely to utilize a sufficiently large volunteer population to cause volunteer resource management to be a relevant concern for one or more staff members. As a result, larger organizations were more likely to have staff engaged enough in volunteer resource management to be actively seeking resources such as the complimentary copy of the volunteer management guide to support their work. As a result, we are hesitant to assume that our findings are reflective of the industry as a

whole; rather, this may be an example of the bias of our sample.

Limitations and Areas for Future Study

In a future study, we would include additional larger categories for the number of volunteers, the number of FTE staff, and organization budget. Almost half of our respondents worked for organizations with annual budgets over $750,000, our highest delimiter, and most worked in organizations with more than 50 staff and more than 500 volunteers As a result, we lost some granularity in our analysis. The break points for number of FTEs and number of volunteers engaged, however, yielded much smoother distributions of respondents.

When examining the relationship between number of volunteers and number of FTEs, we found that organizations utilizing volunteers seem to have between 5-10 volunteers per FTE on average. This is a very rough approximation, but appears to be supported by our data. This is another area in which further research would be appropriate and welcomed. We also suggest that further testing on the overall correlation of budget size relative to number of volunteers utilized would be an intriguing addition to the field.

Given that the selection of respondents was based on the promotion of the *Strategic Volunteer Engagement Guide*, there was likely a bias towards people who were already interested in volunteer resource management issues or who were connected to someone with an interest in volunteer resource management who shared the link with them.

For all three scoping metrics (budget, number of FTEs, and number of volunteers engaged) the assumption of equal variance was violated for respondents who stated that "finding good opportunities for our current volunteers" was a key challenge. This suggests that the respondents who see this as a key challenge are different from the bulk of the respondents in some statistically recognizable way. Identifying this difference is left to future research projects.

Conclusion

In this study, we sought to identify key challenges in volunteer resource management across a spectrum of nonprofit organizations. Additionally, we took at preliminary look at how challenges vary across nonprofit organizations of different sizes that work with varying numbers of volunteers. This information will serve to inform the work of volunteer resource managers, support the efforts of intermediaries such as nonprofit capacity building and volunteer resource organizations, aid researchers exploring volunteer engagement, and help funders and grantmakers better understand some of the challenges faced by grantee organizations.

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