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Factors Related to Volunteer Commitment in Church-Related Services

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Doctor of Social Work

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Marilyn Christian Nelson

Washington, D.C.

1997

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to the memory of my mother,
Avis Ela Christian Nelson,
Who exhibited voluntarism as a natural part of her lifestyle;
and in honor of my husband,
Dr. Robert L. Perry,
Who supported me throughout this project
and whose core values include voluntarism.

FACTORS RELATED TO VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT IN CHURCH-RELATED SERVICES

Marilyn Christian Nelson, D.S.W.

Director: Sr. M. Vincentia Josesph, D.S.W.

The volunteer movement has been strongly woven into the fabric of American society and embedded in the social work profession since its inception. With the development of the team concept and personnel shortages in the profession of social work, the contribution of volunteers has become increasingly important in social service agencies. Traditionally, volunteers have been involved in church-related social services, and in recent years social workers have developed social service programs (social ministries) in congregational and parish structures. The purpose of this study was to examine selected factors that influence volunteer commitment in church related services.

The theoretical framework for the study was exchange theory which provided a conceptual schema for examining volunteer commitment. Initiated by Homans (1961) and further developed by Blau (1964), exchange theory focuses on the costs and rewards inherent in all social relations and attempts to explain why people enter into specific social transactions. Things exchanged involve not only money but other commodities, including approval, esteem, compliance, love, and affection. Blau's work (1964) recognized reciprocity in exchanges, varying value of rewards, multiple goals and preferences, and social commitments which limit alternatives. This theoretical perspective provided an explanation of why people volunteer without economic returns and suggested factors related to volunteer attraction and to sustained commitment.

The study used a multivariate correlational mail survey design to determine the influences of selected factors on volunteer commitment. Subjects for the study were drawn from all active Baptist church members who have been involved in volunteer activities. They were randomly selected from 47 churches in Northern Virginia and Richmond, Virginia. The sample size was 562. The hypothesis was: The higher the rewards and the lower the costs in volunteering, the higher the level of volunteer commitment, when controlling for income, education, age, ethnicity, marital status, gender, and length of time as a volunteer. Rewards were operationalized to include (1) transpersonal, (2) personalistic - social fulfillment, personal fulfillment, and material, and (3) interactional - self-role congruence, relations with staff, clients and other volunteers, and organizational climate. Costs were operationalized as (1) environmental and (2) personal.

The study hypothesis was partially supported by the findings. It was predicted that the higher the rewards and the lower the costs, the higher the volunteer commitment. This prediction was supported only for these three rewards: interactional--self-role congruence, personalistic--personal fulfillment, and trans-personal rewards. These findings indicate that, in this study, the fit between the person and the volunteer role, transpersonal (altruistic and religious) rewards, and the experience of personal fulfillment in the role, are directly related to their level of commitment. Material rewards were negatively correlated with volunteer commitment (the dependent variable), although anticipated to have a positive association. Material rewards were of less concern to most of the respondents. They did not seek volunteer activity for material gain such as skill development or job opportunities. These variables explained 37.7% of the variance in volunteer commitment, and volunteer commitment in this study was high. iii

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and whose core values include voluntarism.

This dissertation was approved by Sr. M. Vincentia Joseph, D.S.W., as Director, and by Joseph Shields, Ph.D. and Sr. Ann Patrick Conrad, D.S.W., as Readers.

M. Vincentia Joseph DSW
Director

Joseph J. Shields Ph.D.
Reader

Sr. Ann P. Conrad, DSW
Reader

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VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT IN CHURCH-RELATED SETTINGS

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Commitment to volunteering has been strongly woven into the fabric of American society since the founding of the country. Since the beginning, the spirit in America has been one of lending a helping hand for the benefit of individuals and society as a whole. From volunteer fire departments, to the Red Cross, to helping in times of individual and family need, the volunteer spirit has been evident. In the early 19th century, de Tocqueville (1976, p.106-7) noted that the volunteer spirit distinguished America from other Western countries. Thus, the volunteer, one who freely contributes or donates time and service without recompense commensurate with the value of the service provided, has played a key role in the creation, development and provision of social services in both the public and the private sectors (Joseph & Conrad, 1982).

Volunteering has continued to be a major movement in American society. It is embedded in the beginnings of the profession of social work as originally represented in the formation of Charity Organization Societies and the Settlement House Movement. It was volunteers who implemented the missions of these organizations. Committees of volunteers, known as "friendly visitors" provided services which were instrumental in the growth of the field of social work. The profession of social work, in both its historical and contemporary practice, is concerned with the interaction between people and their social environment which affects the ability of people to accomplish their life's tasks, alleviate distress and realize their aspirations and values (Pincus & Minehan, 1973, p.9). This broad mission and the traditional responsiveness of the profession to changing social and economic conditions has led to an

expansion of roles. This expansion, coupled with serious personnel shortages, has generated a new staff team concept in which the volunteer plays an important role. Through various staffing arrangements, there has been a resurgence and renewal in volunteer involvement. However, the profession's interest in involving volunteers stems not only from personnel shortages but also from a recognition of the service contributions of the volunteer.

Traditionally, volunteers have been involved in church-related social service programs, often referred to as social ministries, and more recently professional social workers have provided leadership in developing these programs in parishes and church congregations. Volunteer recruitment and training have been integral to these service provisions. This research focuses on the volunteer in church-related settings, an area in which there has been minimal empirical research. More specifically, it examines factors related to volunteer commitment in church structures.

Background

The potential of volunteering was clearly demonstrated during World War II. Volunteers were in urgent demand for day care, recreation and health services as well as in community fact finding, fund raising, and coordinating activities. The eleven million volunteers pressed into service represented a broad cross section of class, creed, race, and age (Ellis & Noyes, 1990). Interest in the role of volunteers in a broad spectrum of service activities accelerated in the 1960s.

Volunteering was given official impetus at the national level when President Kennedy initiated the Peace Corps in 1961. Later, Vista, its domestic counterpart, was established in 1963. The Johnson Administration strengthened its status through the 1965-67 amendments to

the Social Security Act, mandating certain public agencies to utilize volunteers. President Nixon gave further official sanction to voluntarism through the initiation of the National Program for Voluntary Action (Joseph & Conrad, 1982). President Bush heightened the significance of volunteers in the late 1980s through his "Points of Light" program, which continues today as a private foundation. President Clinton has also emphasized the role of the volunteer through speeches and promotions and through the establishment of "AmeriCorps."

Volunteers have always been active in the life of the church. In the strictest sense, every church member is a volunteer, a contributor to the life and activity of the church body. In these settings, they are often referred to as "ministers." In the theological sense, the minister carries out an essential role of the Christian to be of service to the community. This direction, parallel with the resurgence of interest in the social mission of the church (the service role of the church in society), has brought many volunteers into roles of care and concern for those at all socioeconomic levels who are suffering either spiritually, emotionally, physically, or socially. With the complexities of social dysfunction, many are recognizing that good will is not the only factor in healing. In addition, special competencies and skills are needed (Joseph & Conrad, 1982, p.2). Thus, social work has become a dominant profession in developing services and preparing volunteers for these service roles.

"Voluntarism" is the generic term for all that is done voluntarily in a society. "To volunteer," as distinguished from "voluntarism," is to choose to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond one's basic obligations (Ellis & Noyes, 1990, p.4,5).

Volunteers engage in their activities for a number of reasons. The literature suggests that one of the underlying reasons for volunteering is a desire for social interaction--to make new friends, to be with people, to participate in interpersonal communication, to share experiences (Smith, 1966; Rosenblatt, 1966; Schwartz, 1984; Lerner, cited in O'Connell, 1983; Naylor, 1967).

Material reasons for volunteering, as reflected in the literature, include those factors that focus on personal gain of the volunteer--to make community contacts, to acquire the experience, to gain favor in the organization, to develop new skills, to improve one's job situation, and to test new career directions (Lammers, 1991; Chambre, 1987; Lerner in O'Connell, 1983). Many authors presented personal fulfillment as an underlying reason for volunteering. Included in this concept is the need to be needed and belong, experience personal self-expression and self-realization, gain prestige and gratification, experience personal satisfaction and enjoyment, and to compensate for the loss of roles in later adulthood or between jobs (Moore, 1961; Rosenblatt, 1966; Smith, 1966; Wilson, 1983; O'Connell, 1983; Chambre, 1987).

Few studies have been conducted on church-related volunteers. Wilson (1984) dealt with the mobilization of church volunteers; Ledwig (1991) emphasized using the mission statement to recruit church volunteers; and Lawson and Lawson (1987) designed a congregational workshop for training church volunteers. Vorassi (1976) found that the parish volunteer is likely to be female between the ages of 45 and 64, married, employed or retired, highly committed to her/his volunteer activities, involved in a number of volunteer groups other than those in the parish, engaged in volunteer service for over three years, and likely devotes from two to over four hours each week to her/his volunteer work. This study strongly suggests that church people often go into volunteering to meet the needs of others and to carry out the religious mandate to be of

service to others. She also found that volunteer satisfaction was significantly related to other-oriented need fulfillment rather than self-oriented need fulfillment.

There are, however, gaps in the literature, not only with respect to volunteers in social work, but also in church-related structures. Of particular interest here is the reward structure that provides motivation and aids in the retention of volunteers and the costs which might deter a person from volunteering. Since many churches not only carry out social service functions but hire social workers to direct such programs, this research is timely and should contribute essential knowledge to this important area.

The literature suggested three categories of rewards for volunteering which are used in this study: trans-personal rewards, personalistic rewards, and interactional rewards. The term "rewards" is commonly used in social exchange theory. Exchange theory attempts to explain why people enter into specific social relationships. It is concerned with transactions that occur in these relationships and the basis for these transactions, that is, rewards and reciprocal exchanges whose values vary from one social association to another.

Trans-personal rewards were conceptually defined as rewards which are beyond one's self, as one relates to religious and altruistic ideals, connectedness with God and humankind. Personalistic rewards were conceptually defined as characteristic of or related to a single individual in relation to the volunteer's material and self-fulfillment needs. Interactional rewards were conceptually defined as the aggregate of circumstances within the agency which caused the volunteer to feel valued, recognized and appreciated.

Problem Statement

Studies indicate that churches could not in the past and cannot in the future exist without the active involvement of volunteers, the "laity" (Wilson, 1983, p. 87). Church members continue to carry out most of the work of the congregation. Church programs, especially service-oriented programs, would collapse without the continued active involvement of the volunteer. These lay persons, often referred to as "lay ministers," are involved not only in the functioning of the congregation, such as teaching and ministering to the sick, but also in ministries to those with social and material needs. These social ministries are provided regardless of church affiliation. However, the author's experience in church-related social ministries indicates that volunteering in the church is waning. This is of concern because of the "graying" of many congregations and the involvement of younger church members in essential life tasks which require their time and energy. Thus, it is important to determine what motivates and retains the volunteer in the church setting.

Despite the interest of the professions and society at large in volunteering, as has been stated, little empirical research has been conducted by the social work profession in recruiting and developing volunteers to carry out important service roles. Similarly, despite the extensive activity of volunteers in religious and church-related organizations in social service functions and the involvement of professional social workers and members of related professions in these activities, there has been minimal substantive research on volunteers in these organizational settings. (Joseph & Conrad, 1982, p.5-8). This study, therefore, was designed to examine the role of the volunteer in church-related service programs, referred to as "social ministries." It examined those factors that influence volunteer involvement and retention in these structures.

With the continued cutback of public funds to social welfare programs, it can be expected that more responsibilities will be imposed upon the private sector. Thus, this research is timely for both the social work profession and the volunteer movement. It is particularly relevant for those programs which are under private auspices, such as religious and church-related social service programs.

Purpose of the Study

The literature suggests key factors that are associated with volunteer commitment; however, most of this literature is speculative and anecdotal. Serious empirical study of the reasons why people select the church setting as the structure in which to freely donate their time and talents in service-oriented activities is almost nonexistent. This research seeks to isolate those factors that significantly influence the choice to volunteer in the religious--church setting. It is concerned with volunteer commitment with a particular focus on the rewards and the costs of volunteering (to the volunteer and his/her family) that influence volunteer commitment.

Interest in the Problem

Concern of the researcher about the commitment of volunteers stems from both practice and research interests. As the director of a nonprofit social service agency sponsored by a religious organization, the investigator depended heavily upon volunteers for service provision. The tenure of volunteers ranged from one visit to many years of service. Earlier in her professional career, the author worked with volunteers who committed blocks of time solely to ministry projects promoted and run by the Baptist church-community. This often meant relocating for a period of weeks to years. This commitment of time and talents

was noteworthy, as these church members gave themselves to ministry assignments. This variation in volunteer involvement in providing services in the church structure raised questions about volunteer commitment.

In this work within the local church and denominational structures, the researcher has become profoundly aware of the different levels of commitment of church members. Most of the programs of the church would not function without the volunteer, the "lay minister." It has also become clear that the future of the church depends upon these committed volunteers. Many of these church programs are geared toward social ministries, providing valuable help to those in need. In noting the decline in volunteer commitment in some churches and some isolated cases of upsurge of commitment in other churches, the author began to wonder what influences retention. Why are some committed, while others are not? Answers to this question are important not only for the church, but for the social service agency, both public and private.

Research Question

This study sought to answer the following questions: What is the relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards (transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) for the volunteer? Is there a relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards (transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) for the volunteer? What is the relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the costs in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns)? Are these factors influenced by income, race, marital status, age, education, gender, and length of time as a volunteer?

Significance of the Research to Social Work

The little research on volunteering in the social work setting that is available has focused on rewards to the volunteer, yet each study was focused narrowly on only one or a limited number of categories of rewards. This study examined a broad spectrum of rewards which may appeal to the volunteer at the transpersonal, personal, and interactional levels. No previous research was located which took into account the costs of volunteering to the volunteer. This study considers those costs—both to the volunteer and the family—and the differences they make in volunteer commitment.

Historically, and up to the present moment, the social work profession has been presented with more problems than it has the resources to solve. Public and private agencies, including churches, seek to meet the many and varied needs of those whom they serve. Yet, personnel and material resources are in short supply. The committed volunteer continues to meet many of these needs which cannot be fully met by the profession.

This research contributes essential knowledge to social work and related professions, about the reasons people choose to volunteer. It builds on the knowledge base of the profession in providing important understandings of volunteer commitment which can be translated into practice models and educational models related to the role of the volunteer in social service functions. As practitioners advance their understanding of the needs of the volunteer and utilize their time and talents more fully, essential social services can be expanded to meet current and emerging needs of people.

Moreover, this study not only adds to the knowledge base of social work practice with the volunteer, it also tests many commonly held beliefs of social service agencies about

the strength of the commitment of volunteers. Importantly, from a theoretical perspective it adds to the knowledge base of exchange theory which seeks to understand the types of exchanges that take place among individuals, within systems, and between individuals and systems. These exchanges include both material and nonmaterial rewards experienced by the various actors in performance of a specific role.

Summary and Plan of Chapters

Literature suggests a number of reasons why volunteers become involved in helping others. There has been no empirical examination of the influence of these factors in combination on the volunteer movement or concerning the church-related volunteer in the helping professions as well as in church-related structures. Through the application of exchange theory, this study sought to ascertain why a person in the church/parish setting volunteers.

The following chapter contains a review of literature relevant to the study, and it presents the theoretical framework which forms the basis for this research. Literature pertaining to the central concepts is reviewed and the definitions and interrelationships among concepts are specified. Chapter III details the study methodology including hypotheses, the study instrument, the study population, the study scales, and data analysis. Chapter IV presents a description and interpretation of the findings related to the study hypotheses as well as a socio-demographic profile of the respondents. Tables are included to graphically explain selected data. Analyses of the bivariate and multivariate influences of the major study variables are presented. In Chapter V, a summary of the research is presented along with the recommendations stemming from the data. A copy of the entire questionnaire and the study scales are contained in the appendices, as well as the letters of transmittal and correspondence related to the research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Both the literature review and the theoretical framework are contained in this chapter. The literature review is organized around rewards: trans-personal, personalistic (including social fulfillment, material, and personal fulfillment), and interactional (including agency relations with staff, clients, and volunteers; self-role congruence; and climate) and costs, both environmental and personalistic, to the volunteer. The following section deals with volunteering, including volunteering in the church; then the theoretical framework is presented.

There is a growing body of literature concerning volunteering in America. Significant writings began to emerge in the mid 1960's. Harriet Naylor's seminal work in 1967, a book which provided a practical approach to work with volunteers, became the "Bible" for those working with volunteers. After Naylor's writings, there was a notable gap in the literature concerning volunteering until 1976 when Marlene Wilson focused attention once again on the importance of the volunteer with her well-known work on the effective management of volunteer programs. Since that time, through the extensive work of Wilson (1981, 1983, 1990) and others (Ellis, 1981, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1996, 1996; MacKenzie, 1990, 1993; O'Connell 1976, 1983, 1989; Vineyard, 1991, 1993), the contributions of volunteers have been recognized as valuable and even essential in many organizations. Although most of the writings on volunteers are speculative and anecdotal, scholarly literature is beginning to surface. The emergence of professional organizations focusing on volunteering, such as the Association of Volunteer Administration, attests to the serious regard for the volunteer.

Despite the growing interest in volunteer development in society and in the professions minimal empirical research is available that examines the factors that are associated with volunteer commitment and those that impede volunteer activity. This research is geared to bridge this gap. It particularly addresses the need for research on volunteers in social work and in church related settings, many of which employ social workers to develop and provide social service activities in their social ministries.

This literature review is organized around the rewards which motivate people to volunteer, categorized as: trans-personal, personalistic, and interactional. Trans-personal rewards include religious and altruistic factors. Personalistic rewards include social fulfillment, material rewards, and personal fulfillment. Interactional rewards include self-role congruence, agency relationships (with clients, staff and other volunteers), and organizational climate. Costs in volunteering were looked at in terms of personal costs and environmental costs. The general literature on volunteering is reviewed first, followed by the literature on volunteering in church-related settings. As stated in chapter one, the theoretical framework for the study drew from the literature on social exchange theory, which will be reviewed at the end of this chapter.

GENERAL LITERATURE ON VOLUNTEERING

Rewards

In the last decade there has been increasing literature on volunteering and the rewards associated with it. However, much of the literature is speculative or theoretical, and that which is empirical is largely exploratory-descriptive in nature. It is encouraging, however, to note that empirical studies are increasing.

In considering rewards for volunteering, a few authors have addressed the more general nature of rewards. Kouri, in her descriptive work, (1990, p.43-62) considered the steps in selecting a volunteer job. She identified the rewards one expects to receive as one of the steps in selecting a volunteer position. Intangible rewards included personal growth, the satisfaction of being needed, productive use of time, fulfillment of a long-held dream, a chance to repay for services received in the past, and the opportunity to bring joy to the lives of others. Lammers, as a result of a research project with a limited sample, (1991, p.140) found that people seek voluntary positions in part to find new skills. People stay in voluntary positions while they continue to train more formally and because they find intrinsic rewards in the work experience.

Reports of an interview survey conducted by Naylor (1967, p.60) revealed strong evidence that there should be more overt recognition of volunteers. According to Kouri (1990, p.43-62), one of the keys to the successful management of older volunteers is providing meaningful volunteer recognition. In her study on voluntarism and older adults, Kouri contended that recognition could take many forms, from awards and recognition events to informal acknowledgments, verbal expressions, and spontaneous compliments. According to her studies, criteria for formal volunteer awards should be thoughtfully planned and written into the agency's manual of operations. She stated that some supervisors view invitations to staff meetings and training events as a form of volunteer recognition, as well as a vehicle for communication, training, and team building. She found that for some, including volunteers in decision-making is a form of recognition. Her study concluded that satisfied volunteers become goodwill ambassadors for the agency, and they are active recruiters.

Trans-Personal Rewards

The literature, both theoretical and empirical, strongly supports trans-personal rewards for volunteering, such as altruism, benevolence, and the desire to serve. In Francies' volunteer needs profile (1983, p.19), a rigorous study comparing the needs of volunteers and non-volunteers, he found that one of the needs specific to volunteering in a social service setting was the need to express feelings of social responsibility. A study of a limited population by Henderson (1983, p.21) which examined gender differences found that women described volunteering as providing for interaction with others and as maintaining personal growth while men volunteered for altruistic reasons. In recruiting students to volunteer, Meisel (1989, p.39), as a result of observations from workshops and visits to campuses around the country, found that two underlying reasons for becoming involved in volunteer activity were the desire to make someone happy and one's religious faith. In an analysis of a 1988 Independent Sector Survey, Taylor (1990, p.84) found that regardless of awards, publicity and status, the primary benefits of volunteering were internal. "What's crucial is that service mentality," said Horace Deets, head of AARP, "a willingness to do whatever one can do given one's specific skills, ability and time available to be of assistance to others." (Taylor, 1990, p.82). In an exploratory community service survey (Ryan, 1990, p.31), college administrators who volunteered reported that they gained a better understanding of the world and the needs of society, while community and faculty volunteers reported they had learned more about their community and had gained a better understanding of specific issues or problems. The helping motive, benevolence, the realization that one person can make a difference, the desire to serve others (Schwartz, 1984, p.143, Lunsford, 1988, p.731, Kouri, 1990, p.ix, Lammers, 1991, p.126) were identified as strong

motivations for volunteering. This includes concern for others, caring, wanting to get involved, “opportunity to be of service to people less fortunate than me,” the need to do something about social problems, and to relieve feelings of concern about one’s good life, (Kouri, 1990, p.7,39). In a comprehensive examination of the recipients of the Daily Point of Light Awards, 99% of the people agreed that “it is important to help others,” and 96% indicated that they “felt compassion toward people in need” (Brudney & Willis, 1995, p.6). In a study which examined the relationship of volunteer motivations to volunteer behaviors, it was reported that one significant volunteer motivation was volunteering to allow for acting on deeply held beliefs, such as the importance of helping others (Mihalicz & Goh, 1996, p.20, 25). The Independent Sector survey, conducted by The Gallup Organization (1996, p.14), showed “positive motives and goals for their giving and volunteering: to give something back to society; to help others who had less; and to volunteer because they felt compassion toward people in need.” Ellis (1996, p.21), a frequent and experienced author in the field of voluntarism stated, “Some motives [for volunteering] are altruistic in that they involve a desire to help others, or philanthropic, in that they are for the public good.” According to Ellis (1996, p.23), reasons for volunteering included: to help someone, to do one’s share, to demonstrate commitment to a cause or belief, and to act on religious beliefs.

In a compilation of testimonials from volunteers with the Human Service Alliance who were involved in caring one-on-one for the ill and their families, the authors stated that the spirit of what they called the “new volunteer” was embodied by people who wanted to make a difference, or people who might be looking for purpose and meaning in life (Kilpatrick & Danzinger, 1996, p.12). “New volunteers” are people who aspire to give service “which is

better than money can buy.” It is their willingness to express--or to learn how to express--this kind of service that distinguishes them. They are not content with just thinking or talking about the virtues of service. They must do it. They are ready--and some have already begun--to make voluntary service an integral part of their lives. ‘New volunteers’ are people who give service which is better than money can buy and often receive something invaluable--a sense of meaning and purpose in life” (Kilpatrick & Danzinger, 1996, p.31). They recognize the value of hands-on service work and are prepared to assume higher and higher levels of responsibility in their volunteer work. According to Kilpatrick and Danzinger, contemporary religious leaders hold that adherents need to express their highest aspirations in active service to others in the community, and that love must be put into action. (Kilpatrick & Danzinger, 1996, p.116, 141).

The above studies lend important light to the importance of trans-personal rewards to the volunteer. However, religious reasons for volunteering were not nearly as well addressed as altruistic reasons for volunteering. None of these studies was conducted in the parish setting, which is the emphasis of this study.

Personalistic Rewards

Social Fulfillment Rewards

A number of studies have focused on the rewards that come from social fulfillment. In the empirical works of Francies, including his Volunteer Needs Profile (1983, p.18), he found one of the needs specific to volunteering in a social service setting to be the need for social contact. This included the need to get out of the house, make new friends, justify one’s existence and feel needed, alleviate loneliness, find a sense of belonging, be a part of something.

His prior studies provided evidence that social needs were among the three highest reasons for volunteering.

Lambert, Guberman and Morris' rigorous three-year demonstration project (1964, p.46-7) pointed to the fact that most potential recruits prefer tasks involving interpersonal communication rather than the performance of mechanical or physical feats. An early study by Smith (1966, p.261), in a condensed version of his PhD dissertation, led to the conclusion that people will tend to participate in formal voluntary organizations to the extent that they have proximity to or intercommunicate with the organization. In a questionnaire study involving 200 randomly selected 4-H volunteers conducted by Brinkley and Hawkins (1982, p.16), the most frequently cited reasons for volunteering were, in this order: to be with one's children, to help people, to associate with youth, to improve the community, to express one's caring and concern for others, and to meet other volunteers. Affiliation, defined as concern about their relationship to others, was established as being a more powerful motivation than either power or achievement. Lunsford (1988, p.731), in her speech concerning the state of volunteering, and Ryan (1990, p.31-2), through an exploratory university community service survey, cited the opportunity to make new friends as one of the rewards for volunteering. As a result, volunteers reported that they gained an increased awareness of, and sensitivity to, others. As one who has been a volunteer and worked with many volunteers, Varner (1994, p.7) became convinced that some volunteers seek adult companionship and social acceptability. In a study of help line crisis volunteers concerning the motivational needs behind volunteer work, Danoff and Kopel (1994, p.13) found that social needs were among the highest for volunteers, but not for paid workers.

In an interview survey of elderly volunteers by Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989, p.22), it was found that social reasons for volunteering included those that focused on providing social interactions for the volunteer--to make new friends, to get out and be with people. In this empirical study, the researchers found that those who lost spouses and friends must develop new personal relationships. Thus, they wanted to fill meaningful and responsible roles in society by helping others in need. One implication of the findings in the empirical study by Rosenblatt (1966, p.87) in which 250 persons ages 60-75 were interviewed concerning their interest in volunteer work was that the adjustment of older people may be improved if a suitable alternative for work such as social participation is available. Like the worker, the volunteer also gains social approval and esteem from others for her or his participation in a desirable activity. Activity theory, a major perspective in social gerontology, suggests that people adapt better to the aging process when they engage in role substitution (Chambre, 1987, p.21). Some of the reasons Ellis (1996, p.23) found as to why people volunteer were to get to know a new community or neighborhood, to be with people who were different from themselves, to do something with a friend or family member, to make new friends, and to be part of a team.

The studies concerning social fulfillment addressed social contact, belonging, affiliation, communication, meeting people, and making new friends. These components need to be studied in light of the parish setting, which is undertaken in this study.

Material Rewards

In an interview survey of volunteers, it was found that material reasons for volunteering focus on personal gain of the volunteer (Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). Lunsford (1988, p.731), in discussing the state of volunteering, pointed out that making community contacts, meeting

new people, developing business contacts and leads were motivators for the volunteer. In an exploratory university community service survey by Ryan (1990, p.31), it was found that volunteers valued the networks that were formed as a result of their involvement and that they cited increased knowledge and skills as another benefit of their participation. Through a questionnaire used to identify motivational needs of help line crisis volunteers by Danoff & Kopel (1994, p.15), it was found that people tended to use volunteer activity to develop business contacts and leads, advance their careers, establish networks with other community leads, gain status in the community, and enhance their image.

According to Francies' Volunteer Needs Profile (1983, p.19) and Morrow-Howell and Mui's (1989, p.22) interview study, the desire for new experience is one of the needs for volunteering in a social service setting. A review of the literature by Chambre (1987, p.24) revealed that some forms of volunteer activities actually improved a person's job situation either by having a positive impact on the nature of the job itself or by enabling a person to improve the job situation by developing social contacts which will be beneficial in a work situation. In Lammers' report of the findings of a study of 147 crisis telephone volunteers, it was found that many use volunteering as a training ground or a stepping stone to paid jobs. Observations by Hamann (1994, p.24) revealed that many employed individuals sought to advance their careers through volunteering. A successful volunteer program, according to Hamann, can provide special incentives for women just entering the work force. Varner's (1994, p.7) experiences showed that motivators for potential volunteers included desiring to develop talents as a means of upward progression and searching for a way to excel in something. Thompson and Golden (1989, p.76-7), in a study that included interviews with major corporations on payoffs for

volunteering, found that tangible rewards for volunteering included gaining new skills and developing greater expertise. Mihalicz and Goh's (1996, p.19) empirical study found significant "volunteering to develop skills, to open up job opportunities, or for contacts to assist in career development." However, Brudney and Willis' (1995, p.6) examination of recipients of the Daily Points of Light program revealed that few recipients indicated career interests. Ellis (1996, p.23) reported a number of material reasons why people volunteer: to gain leadership skills; for recognition; to explore a career; to keep skills alive; to get meals, transportation, or other benefits; to meet the boss's expectations; to learn something new; to gain status; and to gain access to services for themselves.

Henderson (1983, p.21), in a questionnaire survey of 200 randomly selected male and female volunteers in 4-H programs throughout Minnesota, found that men were somewhat more likely to volunteer than women because they liked the recognition they received. The motivational questionnaire by Danoff and Kopel (1994, p.15) revealed that some were looking to enhance their image and gain status in the community by volunteering.

Francies (1983, p.19) noted that some engage in volunteering in exchange for future help. One volunteer expressed this feeling: "Some day I may need help." It has been suggested that sophisticated recruitment of volunteers involves a realistic exchange of benefits between organization and volunteer (Hamann, 1994, p.23). A dual frame sampling method involving a telephone survey of 600 persons age 50-70 was conducted by Cann, Junk, & Fox (1995, p.15-23). They located persons who would be influenced to volunteer if they could "bank" their volunteer hours to use as a source of help when they need it. This idea of formalizing the

possibility of exchange of present for future volunteering presents an additional application of exchange theory for the volunteer.

The literature in this area has been steadily growing in recent years and suggests an important trend toward a desire for material rewards by volunteers. This has implications for service as well as recruitment. It also illustrates the social exchange that takes place in the activity of service volunteers. However, these studies did not address the importance (or lack of importance) of material rewards for the volunteer in the parish setting.

Personal Fulfillment Rewards

According to numerous studies and reports, personal growth is a significant need of the volunteer (Naylor, 1967, p.70-3, Francies, 1983, p.19, Henderson, 1983, p.23, Keaveney, Saltzman & Sullivan, 1991, p.27, Danoff & Kopel, 1994, p.14). Volunteering provides a means for self-actualization, for building self-esteem, and for self-expression and self-worth (Francies, 1983, p.18, Reisch & Wenocur cited in Schwartz, 1984, p.25, Chambre & Lowe, 1984, p.35, Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989, p.23, Ryan, 1990, p.31-2, Danoff & Kopel, 1994, p.14).

According to White's theory about need for competence and challenge (Fottler & Fottler, 1994, p.20), volunteers have a need to achieve competence and to be aroused by a new challenge.

Hackman's job design theory states that volunteers exhibit high growth needs which can best be met if their roles embody task variety, autonomy, significance, identity, and feedback (Fottler & Fottler, 1994, p.20). Danoff and Kopel's (1994, p.14) study revealed that volunteers usually have realistic needs for work experience. Ellis (1996, p.23) gave "to act out a fantasy" as a reason for volunteering. A significant finding in the study conducted by Mihalicz and Goh (1996, p.20,25) was that some volunteered "to enhance self-esteem by feeling needed and important."

Volunteering can decrease the feelings of role loss associated with old age, according to Chambre & Lowe (1984, p.35). In a report on "the joiners" Lerner (cited in O'Connell, 1983, p.84-8) discovered that for many American women, volunteering fills the emotional void of middle age, helping in the fight against loneliness and boredom. Reisch and Wenocur (cited in Schwartz, 1984, p.25) found that volunteering may fill gaps between jobs or in increasing non-work hours, may represent a way of maintaining self-esteem and active interests in retirement years, and may offer opportunities for self-actualization and personal growth. According to Chambre (1987, p.29), activity theory suggests that people who lack or who lose significant social roles, especially work and family roles, compensate for those losses by finding role substitutes. Older adults must compensate for the loss of roles in later adulthood and maintain a moderately active life-style (Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989, p.23). A respondent to Dobie's (1991, p.214) interview said he volunteered after retiring because he heard it was a way to retard senility. A study conducted by the City University of New York found one of the main motivations for volunteering to be a lack of fulfillment in one's own life. Age has been found to be linearly related to the desire "to be needed" through volunteering (Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989, p.23).

Brinkley and Hawkins (1982, p.16) conducted a study involving 200 randomly selected volunteers through which they ascertained that volunteers appreciated working with a respected community organization while making creative use of leisure time. Lunsford (1988, p.731) held that some find in volunteering a chance to do the things that one does best, while Lammers' empirical study (1991, p.125) confirmed that one reason people volunteer is to learn a new skill. Keaveney, Saltzman and Sullivan's (1991, p.27) article, which suggested viewing volunteers as

customers, reported that volunteers enjoyed seeing the result of their own work while providing a useful service.

Volunteers benefit from the recognition, prestige and gratification gained from the volunteer role (Lambert, Guberman & Morris, 1964, p.44-6; Wilson, 1983, p.28-37). Smith (1966, p.261-2), in his empirical study, discovered that volunteers have common interests or values with formal voluntary organization members. Naylor (1967, p.70-3) stated that some volunteers are seeking power in one form or another through their volunteer service, a power which is denied them in their other human relations. Some commentators have suggested that Americans are intense joiners because they need some way to alleviate the tensions and anxieties that arise in their competitive living (O'Connell, 1983, p.84-8). Others suggested that volunteering may prevent problems such as alcoholism, anomie, depression and spouse or child abuse (Reisch & Wenocur, cited in Schwartz 1984, p.25). Some volunteers talked about the sheer pleasure, the fun of participating in some type of community activity (Varner, 1994, p.5; Naylor, 1967, p.73).

An analysis of the data elicited from the experiences of more than 1700 women who were involved regularly in helping others revealed a "helper's calm" which was likened to relief from stress-related disorders (Luks, 1988, p.39-40). Following the helping, many of the women reported experiencing a greater calmness and enhanced self-worth. "Helper's calm" appears to be related to reduced emotional stress. Interestingly, altruism's pleasure does not appear to arise from donating money, no matter how important the cause, nor from volunteering without close personal contact.

The above studies found self-fulfillment to be an important motivator for the volunteer. Further studies need to be conducted to find out if this is also true in the parish setting.

Interactional Rewards

Agency Relationships: Relations with Staff, Clients and Volunteers

Research addressed the volunteer's working relationship with staff, clients, and other volunteers. According to the literature, the organizational setting for volunteer activity is an important variable in volunteer commitment. Volunteers have needs for building relationships with others, for contributing to valued goals, and for affiliating with an organization or its staff (Danoff & Kopel, 1994, p.14). Volunteers expect to be treated with respect, and they expect at least some feedback and recognition for the work that they provide (Keaveney, Saltzman & Sullivan, 1991, p.27; Varner, 1994, p.7). Volunteers are distinctly different from paid workers, in that they value different aspects of a job assignment (Danoff & Kopel, 1994, p.14). Reasons staff resist volunteers include a previous bad experience with volunteers, fear of loss of jobs, fear of decrease in service quality, lack of staff involvement in deciding how volunteers will be utilized, little involvement in the process of hiring volunteers, fear that volunteers are unreliable, fear that volunteers might do a better job than staff, lack of training in how to supervise and delegate to volunteers, and lack of a reward system (McClam & Spicuzza, 1994, p.48-50). Wilson (1994, p.18) identified steps toward a collaborative volunteer/staff team: focus on mission and clear objectives and action plans, provide participative/empowering leadership, utilize the strengths of all, develop creative problem-solving and decision-making skills, encourage and reward creativity and risk, evaluate the work of the team objectively and honestly, and create and maintain a healthy climate. Anecdotal reports (Kilpatrick & Danzinger,

1996, p.49, 83,97) found that volunteers inspired one another and that they found motivation in “group work--the high level of cooperation and cohesion.” Ellis (1996, p.73, 87, 190) pointed to the importance of understanding the volunteer/employee relationship. She stated, “the interrelationship of volunteers and salaried staff is the single biggest pitfall to volunteer program success, unless steps are taken early to encourage teamwork. She pointed out that almost no professional/academic training program prepares salaried staff to work with volunteers. Staff development, clarification of roles and commitment from top administration were identified as critical aspects to success in this area. These views were supported by the findings of a study on volunteer motivation in public schools (Harshfield, Peltier, Hill & Daugherty, 1996, p.11). This report found that maintaining communication with volunteers, developing staff commitment, and educating staff were critical variables related to volunteer motivation. Stallings (1996, p.29-47) detailed a training program designed to gain staff commitment to the volunteer program and to build staff competence in supervising volunteers. Her model included conducting a volunteer program assessment, gaining staff commitment to the volunteer program, building staff competence, and incorporating principles of adult learning in the training program.

Naylor (1967, p.105) emphasized that volunteers must never be exploited. She found that this may occur if they are pressured to work longer than expected or if they do not get to perform the contracted tasks. Her findings also revealed that another problem for nonprofit organizations was the over-reliance on “good” volunteers. According to a 1990 Gallup poll, the number one reason that volunteers cite for quitting is that they are “too busy” (Keaveney, Saltzman & Sullivan, 1991, p.28).

According to Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989, p.30). ex-volunteers suggested that better training, more contact among volunteers and agency staff, and more support were needed. They also believed another improvement would be a more careful screening of potential clients so that only those who were interested and favorable toward the volunteer would be assigned to a volunteer.

The self-help program conducted by Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989, p.30) allowed volunteers to have their social needs met in two different ways. They could call and visit their clients as much as they wanted, and they could visit with other volunteers at the training/support meetings. The volunteers seemed satisfied with the amount of social contact available through their assigned activities. None of those who left reported doing so because the program did not satisfy their social needs.

Although the literature addressed ways to cope with staff resistance to volunteers, the social needs of the volunteer, and possible ways volunteers inspire one another, most of the emphasis was placed on enhancing staff-volunteer relationships. There are few studies on volunteer-client relationships or on volunteer-volunteer relationships. This study addresses all three categories of volunteer relationships: staff, client, and other volunteers.

Self-Role Congruence

Self-role congruence stems from role theory. Role theory is “concerned with conceptualizing how different types of expectations are mediated by self-interpretations and evaluations and then circumscribed by role-playing skills in a way that a given style of role performance is evident” (Turner, 1991, p.417). In applying self-role congruence to role theory,

one would become conscious of how closely the style of one's role performance matches the expectations of the organization.

The literature addresses self-role congruence in a variety of ways. According to the literature, recruitment techniques must include an awareness of volunteer's motivations and expectations so as to provide a satisfying volunteer experience. Recruitment should be targeted to fill specific jobs, and these jobs must be available immediately (American Red Cross, 1995, p.69-70).

Naylor (1967, p.67) advised involving volunteers in selecting or designing their jobs. They may even improve program efficiency and effectiveness. She advised supervisors to be flexible in creating volunteer jobs to match skills and to use trial periods. She stated that the volunteer needs to feel that the goals and objectives arrived at are within reach and that they make sense to the volunteer. She found that the volunteer also needs to have some responsibilities that challenge, that are within range of his/her abilities and interest, that contribute toward reaching her/his assigned goal, in congruence with agency goals. Wilson (1983, p.53-8) advised asking nondirective questions in order to gather information about preferred skills. She advised using effective interview techniques. As an example, one might ask "What have you most enjoyed in previous paid and volunteer jobs?" rather than "What kind of work have you done in your previous jobs and volunteer positions?" Next, she advised determining which skills the potential volunteer prefers to use instead of placing the volunteer in a slot the agency wants to fill. After that, inquire about the potential volunteer's expectations of the job. She found that this helped in the matching process and can prevent future disappointments. Kouri (1990, p.71-9) found that one of the keys to successful management of

volunteers is matching volunteers and jobs. Then, determine which level of responsibility the volunteer wants.

Naylor (1967, p.90) and Schindler-Rainman, (cited in Schwartz, 1984, p.165-78) expressed concern about volunteer underutilization. Naylor felt that expectations should be realistic in terms of abilities, experience and time available. If the agency expects too much, it will lead to frustration and failure. If too little is expected, the volunteer will feel frustrated and underestimated. Schindler-Rainman stated that delegation is a gradual process, as the volunteer's readiness develops. He or she needs to know where help is available, which staff persons are competent and accessible, who are the experienced volunteers, what tools are available, and the ground rules for using them. Placement should utilize the volunteer's life experiences. Taylor (1990, p.84) found that one of the greatest tools for keeping volunteers is making sure they are busy and have significant jobs to perform. One volunteer coordinator noted, "many volunteers feel recognized if, after they've done a good job, you give them a harder job to do. Some feel recognized if they're asked to train other volunteers." Varner (1994, p.7) and Hamann (1994, p.25) both stated that the nonprofit organization's staff must match the individual volunteer's abilities, interests, and capabilities, as much as possible with the job to be done. Ellis (1996, p.11) stated that "the more creative, sophisticated, skilled, or fun the things you ask volunteers to do, the more you can expect to find volunteers who match. The point is to avoid inviting skillful people to become volunteers and then to underutilize them." Matching volunteer and job and developing appropriate volunteer assignments were significant factors in the Harshfield, Peltier, Hill and Daugherty (1996, p.11) study. Kilpatrick and Danziger (1996, p.117), after interviewing volunteers over a 10-year duration, stated: "For the

new volunteers, service is more than a moral obligation or a nice thing to do. It is the expression of a vital and essential part of who they are. It is something which allows the new volunteer to 'touch' and connect with that vital essence in others."

Naylor (1967, p.65) stated that for a volunteer to give her/his loyalty, she/he needs to feel that what she/he is doing has real purpose or contributes to human welfare--that its value extends beyond the personal. He or she also needs to see that progress is being made toward the goals which have been set, needs to be kept informed, and needs to have confidence in superiors.

The literature talked about matching volunteers and jobs, taking advantage of life experiences, and not underutilizing volunteers. It did not discuss matching the volunteer's interests with the mission of the organization, nor did it discuss living up to the expectations that the volunteer had in the beginning. These elements are addressed in this study, under the heading of volunteer self-role congruence.

Climate

For this study, climate was conceptually defined as a prevailing attitude of the agency toward the volunteer. Wilson (1983, p.37-41) defined climate as an atmosphere that determines how it feels to be there. She felt that it is important to assess the climate in the organization and the feelings people have about volunteering there. According to her, factors that affect climate include relationships, rewards, warmth/support, conflict, physical setting, identity, standards, creativity/risk, and expectations. Also involved in climate, according to Wilson, is interviewing and placing the volunteer. This includes follow-up, asking open-ended questions, and listening actively. Keaveney, Saltzman and Sullivan (1991, p.22) found that nonprofit organizations must

realize that if volunteer expectations are not in some way met, or exceeded, the volunteer experience will be judged as being of poor quality.

Although the literature considered how it feels for the volunteer to be working in the agency, about interviewing and placing the volunteer, and about meeting the expectations of the volunteer, it did not directly address the attitude of the agency toward the volunteer. The current study addresses the respect and the support which the agency gives to the volunteer.

Costs

Not until 1996 did literature address costs, both personal and environmental, to the volunteer. Ellis (1996, p.25-28) felt it was vitally important to consider what might stop someone from accepting an invitation to volunteer. Some deterrents she found were lack of public transportation; unavailable parking; prohibitive distances needed to get to the volunteer assignment; schedules which do not match the volunteer assignment; lack of time; and actual and hidden financial costs such as transportation, uniforms or appropriate clothing, meals, child care, and parking. The recruitment plan for the Virginia Department of Volunteerism (1996, p.15) includes asking the following questions concerning the volunteer: "What are their free hours in the week? How far will they have to travel to volunteer with us? How much can they afford to give to this program?" Since costs to the volunteer is a relatively new concept, it was addressed in this study and needs to be addressed in the future.

VOLUNTEERING IN THE CHURCH

Literature on volunteering in the church is scant. Vorassi (1976), in her empirical work on the needs of volunteers, found that the parish volunteer was likely to be female between the ages of 45 and 64, married, employed or retired, highly committed to her volunteer activities,

involved in a number of volunteer groups other than those in the parish, engaged in volunteer service for over three years, and devoting from two to over four hours each week to her volunteer work. She found that self-other needs were more significant than self-oriented needs in motivating the volunteer to provide service in the parish. Wilson (1983), who began her study of volunteers in the church-related setting, advocated understanding the individual parish volunteer and what motivates him or her to engage in volunteer service. Next, an understanding of the climate of the church and the factors that affect climate is essential. She emphasized the importance of respecting the volunteer as an adult learner who wants to participate actively in the learning process, and she also emphasized the importance of delegation and accountability. She held that the parish volunteer needs to be carefully interviewed and assigned, to receive training and supervision, to be involved in planning evaluation procedures, to receive recognition, to be regarded as a person of uniqueness, and to be accepted as a valued member of the team. Lawson and Lawson (1987, p.35-40) presented detailed plans for a congregational workshop emphasizing voluntarism in the church. The goals of the workshop were: to gain a clearer understanding of how the congregations's volunteers are recruited, oriented, trained, supported and recognized; to gain a deeper understanding of the principles and process of volunteer management; and to develop concrete steps to improve the involvement of volunteers in the congregations' ministry while at the same time more effectively calling forth, utilizing and nourishing the gifts of its members. Ledwig (1991, p.35-38) advocated using the church's mission statement to recruit church volunteers. He defined the mission statement as a statement of identity and purpose for a community of believers. Helping an organization to form its mission statement could be the first step to helping members become involved in the work of

their church. Thus, they share some common values and dreams for making a difference in the world. The study of volunteers in the parish setting is extremely limited.

Concepts which were not adequately addressed in the literature on church related volunteers or the general volunteer literature were volunteer-client relationships, volunteer-volunteer relationships, religious rewards for volunteering, agency support of the volunteer, self-role congruence, and costs to the volunteer. Along with this study, more studies need to be conducted in these areas.

Each of the studies cited in this chapter dealt with only one or two variables related to volunteer commitment, such as material rewards or self-role congruence. This study covers a much wider range of variables related to volunteer commitment, which provides a broader view of volunteer commitment. This study also made use of a much larger sample than did most of the studies in the literature review.

The largest gap in the literature was regarding the volunteer in the parish setting. This study seeks to fill that gap. The literature, however, was helpful in identifying and clarifying the study variables. It suggested the importance of the relationship between social exchanges in volunteer activities/services and volunteer commitment.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Several authors on voluntarism utilized exchange theory. Cahn (1994) and Cann, Junk and Fox (1995) discussed the "banking" of volunteer hours as an exchange. Others, such as Danoff and Kopel (1994), Fottler and Fottler (1994) and Francies emphasized exchange theory as

applicable to volunteer commitment. Most of the studies utilizing exchange theory were speculative in nature.

The theoretical framework for the study drew heavily from social exchange theory which provides a conceptual schema for examining volunteer commitment and retention and reflected important exchanges in volunteer activities. Study variables were drawn from the literature review and the experience of the researcher. Social exchange theory, as formulated by Homans (1961) and further developed by Blau (1964), is concerned with exchanges between persons. Exchange theory attempts to explain why people enter into specific social relationships. It is concerned with transactions that occur in these relationships and the basis for these transactions, that is, rewards and reciprocal exchanges whose values vary from one social association to another. This theoretical perspective can further our understanding of the volunteer and voluntarism. Its application to volunteer commitment is discussed below.

According to Homans (1961), people do not always attempt to maximize profits from social relationships; they seek only to make some profit in these exchanges. In terms of volunteers, they seem to need to realize some gain or benefit in exchange relations. Personal gains for the volunteer may include altruistic gains, social interaction gains, or material or personal fulfillment gains. He further stated that humans do not usually make either long-run or rational calculations in exchanges. For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that volunteers do not usually make either long-run or rational calculations in exchanges. They may volunteer simply because it feels like the right thing to do, because they feel good about it. Another proposition of exchange theory holds that things exchanged involve not only money but also other commodities including approval, esteem, compliance, love, affection, and other less

materialistic goods. Volunteers clearly are not seeking monetary exchange, but they need to realize some gain or benefit in exchanges. The things exchanged for the volunteer may be commodities such as approval, esteem, compliance, love, affection, and other less materialistic goods.

According to Homans' success proposition (1961), the frequency of reward for an action influences a person to perform that action more often. This suggests that for the volunteer, the more often her/his service is rewarded, the more likely she or he will perform that service. The reward could be in a variety of forms, such as formal recognition, the satisfaction of a job well done, and/or positive relationships with co-workers. Homans' value proposition states that the more valuable is the result of an action to the person, the more likely he or she will perform that action again. Thus, if the volunteer can see the difference (and this difference is of value to the volunteer) his or her action is making for an agency, in the lives of others, etc., the more likely he or she will perform that action. In developing his rationality proposition, Homans stated that in choosing among alternative actions, a person will choose that one for which (as perceived by her or him at the time) the value of the result, multiplied by the probability of getting that result, is greater. In applying this to the decision-making process of the volunteer, she or he will likely choose the volunteer assignment which results in the greatest value to the volunteer, multiplied by the probability of getting that result. In the absence of monetary compensation, the volunteer will be especially cognizant of time well spent and where that time will produce the most positive results.

According to Blau (1964), exchange theory is concerned with social associations involving the exchange of rewards whose value varies from one transaction to another without a

fixed market value and whose value cannot be expressed precisely in terms of a single, accepted medium of exchange. In light of this statement, exchanges in the volunteer relationship vary from one transaction to another, as perceived by the different significant others in their role-set. Blau (1964) recognized that, unlike the simple “economic man” of classical economics, humans rarely pursue one specific goal to the exclusion of all others. For the volunteer, she or he probably has in mind several goals which he or she would seek to fulfill through the volunteer process. Therefore, the motivation of volunteers to become involved and to stay involved in volunteering can become rather complex. Ascertaining the goals volunteers seek to meet through the volunteer assignment may take considerable study. Blau also states that humans are frequently inconsistent in their preferences. Thus, we might say that volunteers may want flexibility in choosing their volunteer assignments, and they may wish to change assignments fairly often. It seems important that organizations that involve volunteers be aware of these possibilities and build in flexibility in terms of volunteer assignments. Blau believed that humans virtually never have complete information on alternatives. In this regard, volunteers are probably not aware of all the volunteer options available to them. Nor are the volunteer settings aware of all the possible ways they might use volunteers. Blau’s study also states that humans are never free from social commitments limiting the available alternatives. This applies to volunteers in that they have commitments in their lives, such as family, job, church, school, clubs, etc., and in this study are conceptualized as costs in volunteering. These commitments limit their availability as volunteers.

This theoretical perspective suggests ways to enhance the understanding of why people volunteer when, in fact, there are no or limited economic returns. It was used in this study to

determine what rewards contributed to volunteer commitment and sustained the volunteers in continuing to donate their time and talents without monetary recompense to service in the church setting.

Summary

In summary, volunteer commitment was looked at in terms of rewards and costs. Rewards included trans-personal, personalistic, and interactional rewards. Trans-personal rewards included religious and altruistic factors. Personalistic rewards included social fulfillment, material, and personal fulfillment. Interactional rewards included self-role congruence; relationships with clients, staff, and other volunteers; and climate. Costs included environmental costs and personal costs. Exchange Theory provided the theoretical framework for considering why persons become involved in volunteering. This leads into Chapter III, which will present the study design, including the population and instrument for studying the current volunteer population.

CHAPTER III: THE STUDY METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to identify those factors that significantly influence the choice to volunteer in the religious--church setting. The research was concerned with volunteer commitment with a particular focus on the rewards and the costs of volunteering (to the volunteer and his/her family) that influence volunteer commitment. This chapter describes the methodology utilized in the research. Both the study population and sampling procedures are described. The major hypothesis formulated to guide the research is presented. Definitions of the variables and a description of the study instrument are presented along with a description of data collection procedures and the plan for statistical analysis.

The Research Question

As the literature review showed, there was very little documentation from an empirical research perspective on volunteer commitment, especially in church-related structures. Although the importance of volunteers is gaining a new significance in our society today, most of the literature is written from the perspective of the agency or entity for which the person volunteered. There is scant material from the perspective of the volunteer. The literature on rewards in volunteering is largely speculative, and there is almost no discussion of the costs of volunteering. Drawing on exchange theory, the researcher sought to determine significant costs and rewards in volunteering and how those related to volunteer commitment.

Further, the study sought to answer the following questions: In controlling for income, race, age, marital status, education, gender, and length of time as a volunteer will there be a direct positive relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards

(transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) for the volunteer? In controlling for income, education, age, marital status, gender, and length of time as a volunteer will there be a direct negative relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the cost in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns)?

The Study Hypothesis

Emerging from the literature review and the theoretical perspective, the major hypothesis which guided the study was:

The higher the rewards (transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) and the lower the costs in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns), the higher the level of volunteer commitment, when controlling for income, age, marital status, race, education, gender, and length of time as a volunteer.

Research Design

The overall design for this research of volunteer commitment in church-related services was a multivariate correlational design to determine the most important predictors of volunteer commitment. Data related to the study variables were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. The study respondents included adult women and men who were involved in volunteer activities.

The Study Population

The study population consisted of church volunteers from the Northern Virginia and Richmond, Virginia areas. In cooperation with the Southern Baptist Convention (a national agency of cooperating Baptist churches), state Baptist conventions divide their states into regional entities called associations. The state of Virginia is divided into 42 Baptist

associations. The number of churches in each association ranges from 15 to 110. The two Virginia associations selected for this study were the Mount Vernon Baptist Association (in Northern Virginia), with 110 churches, and the Richmond Baptist Association, with 69 churches. Fifty percent of the churches in these areas (55 from Northern Virginia and 35 from Richmond) were randomly selected from the directories. Letters were sent to the pastors of these churches requesting names of persons in their congregations who were or recently had been involved in volunteering within or outside the church at the time of the study. A total of 47 pastors or church staff members submitted 1108 names. Questionnaires were sent to all of these individuals. Criteria for participation in this study were based on the pastor's or staff member's knowledge of those within their congregations who were active volunteers, as defined by the study criteria--currently or recently involved in volunteering within or outside the church.

On January 5, 1996, 1108 questionnaires were sent to volunteers whose names were provided to the researcher. A report of the findings was offered to those interested in the study results. Of the 1108 questionnaires sent out, 628 were returned, an overall response rate of 56.7%. Of the 628 questionnaires, 25 were returned as undeliverable by the postal service, eight were returned because the addressee was deceased or disabled, and 9 indicated that they were not volunteers--a total of 66 unusable questionnaires. There were 562 usable questionnaires, a usable response rate of 50.7%.

The Study Instrument

A fifteen-page self-administered mail questionnaire was developed for the study. This method of data collection was selected because it permitted coverage of large populations and maximized anonymity. Also, it was economical to administer and was reliable to score. Initially

the questionnaire elicited identifying information about the respondent, such as age, gender, marital status, and work experience. It also asked questions concerning the person's past and present volunteer involvement, such as setting, length of time volunteered, and clientele. By design, the largest section of the questionnaire consisted of closed items constructed to elicit descriptive data on the respondents as well as precategorized scaled items to measure the major study variables (the study scales). A few open-ended items were included which sought additional data, such as recommendations for preparation for this volunteer position, the most difficult aspect of the volunteer work, and the greatest advantage of the volunteer work. These data were sought to provide further information which might be relevant to the focus of the study.

In order to assure face and content validity and in order to refine the scaling techniques and item construction, specificity and conciseness, a panel of experts, three social work professionals experienced in research, reviewed the instrument, and a pretest of the entire questionnaire was conducted. The comments of these experienced professionals helped in clarifying the wording and in strengthening both face and content validity. This critique resulted in a change of wording of some questions and in simplifying their content. It also aided in reducing the number of items. These professionals expressed much interest in the study and supported the importance of research in this area. Although they commented that the questionnaire was long, they felt that interest in the topic would motivate a favorable response.

The pretest of the study instrument, which followed the review by the panel of experts, provided further information which suggested modification and strengthened the instrument. On April 18, 1995, the questionnaire was given to thirty graduate students at the Baptist Theological

Seminary at Richmond, persons not included in the study sample, to pretest the study instrument. These students were currently or had previously been involved in volunteering. There was a 100% rate of return. Time required to complete the questionnaire was 25 to 60 minutes. The purpose of the pretest was to draw upon the responses of persons eligible for, but not included in the study population. A cover letter explained the purpose of the questionnaire and asked for input into the construction, design, clarity, and relevance of the questionnaire. A separate evaluation sheet was included to provide the feedback. Suggestions for item construction based on the actual experiences of the respondents were explicitly requested. See Appendix D for a copy of the cover letter to those involved in the pretest.

Reliability procedures (Cronbach's alpha) were carried out on all the study scales utilizing the pretest data. Reliability procedures helped to identify the strongest scale items which were retained. These coefficients on major scales from the pretest data ranged from .60 to .91, and were considered adequate for the purpose of this study. The pretest data were utilized to establish face and content validity.

The finalized instrument required approximately 20 to 30 minutes for completion. Personalized letters of transmittal explained the purpose of the research, its relevance to the profession at this time, and the importance of participation. (See Appendix A for the complete questionnaire and Appendix B for the letters of transmittal.) Confidentiality was assured by the assignment of numerical codes.

Broadly, the questionnaire included: (1) items formulated to discover the social and professional characteristics of the study population; and, (2) scaled items which operationalized the major study variables. Specifically, the questionnaire elicited information in the following

areas: (1) identifying information about the respondents; (2) information about the respondents' volunteer activity; (3) data about the organization or parish in which they volunteered; (4) information concerning the costs of volunteering; (5) information concerning their motivations for volunteering; and (6) information regarding volunteer commitment.

Human Subject Concerns

Participation in the study was voluntary. Personal information was not included in the questionnaire. Respondents were directed not to sign their names on any part of the questionnaire. Thus, confidentiality was assured. No known risks to participants were anticipated in completing the study instrument. Subjects were informed that there were no known risks associated with their participation.

Description of the Study Scales

All of the scales were originally constructed for the study based on the literature and the experience of the researcher. Response options were placed on an ordinal or ranking continuum from one through five (1-5), with 1 representing "do not agree" and 5 representing "strongly agree." For purposes of data analysis, however, the assumption of interval equality was accepted. In other words, it was assumed that the differences between each interval within a scale were equal. Thus, all items in a scale were given equal weight; that is, scale scores were calculated by summing the total responses to each item included in the scale. It is accepted that the value of this method outweighs any lack of precision that it implied.

After the study data were collected, reliability and validity procedures were conducted on all the study scales. The reliability coefficients, using Chronbach's Alpha, ranged from .76 to .92. Factor analysis procedures were conducted on the data to assume unidimensionality.

The Dependent Variable: Level of Volunteer Commitment

The dependent variable for this study was *Level of Volunteer Commitment*. Volunteer commitment was conceptualized as the degree to which a person values and finds volunteer activity an important element in her/his life. Level of volunteer commitment was operationalized by the Volunteer Commitment Scale, an 11-item scale to measure the value of volunteering and the probability of fulfilling that value. Reliability for this scale was .90. The 11 scale items are:

1. I feel everyone should volunteer.
2. I feel volunteering is an essential aspect of everyone's role.
3. I feel one should use her/his talents and skills for others.
4. I feel volunteering is an important part of a person's life.
5. I feel people should give at least some time in their lives to volunteering.
6. Volunteering helps create a better world.
7. Volunteering makes life better for all of us.
8. Volunteering helps give meaning to life.
9. It is my intention to continue to volunteer.
10. I feel that I will always volunteer in some capacity.
11. If circumstances permit (e.g., health, family obligations), I plan to continue to volunteer.

The Independent Variable Scales

The major independent variables, rewards (including trans-personal rewards, personalistic rewards, and interactional rewards) and costs (including personal and

environmental costs) in volunteering will now be discussed. The conceptual and operational definitions will be presented for each scale and respective reliability coefficients will be reported. Each scale was originally constructed for this study based on the literature review and the experience of the researcher. Each was developed on a five-point Likert-type scale.

Trans-Personal Rewards

Trans-Personal Rewards were conceptually defined as rewards which are beyond one's self, as one relates to religious and altruistic ideals, connectedness with God and humankind.

Trans-Personal Rewards included the dimensions of altruistic (volunteering for the purpose of meeting needs, providing a service, for someone else) and religious (serving God by helping others) rewards. The Trans-Personal Scale consisted of 10 items which measured the religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering. Reliability coefficient was .85. The 10 scale items are:

1. I was following the leadership of the Lord in sharing my spiritual gifts with others.
2. I feel God will repay me for my service to others.
3. I want to connect with God through my service to others.
4. When I serve others, I also serve my God.
5. Service is an important aspect of my religion.
6. I wanted to bring joy into the lives of others.
7. I experience joy when I help others.
8. I want to help make another's world better.
9. I wanted to help create a better world.
10. I wanted to help make life easier for someone else.

Personalistic Rewards

Personalistic Rewards (characteristic of or relating to a single individual), related to the volunteer's material and self-fulfillment needs. The Personalistic Inventory, including the concepts of furthering career goals, opportunities for personal growth and self expression, was divided into three scales: *Social Fulfillment Rewards*, *Material Rewards*, and *Personal Fulfillment Rewards*.

Social Fulfillment Rewards

Social Fulfillment Rewards were conceptually defined as providing meaningful social contacts and opportunities for relating with others. This was operationally defined through the Social Fulfillment Scale, a 6-item scale which measured a person's need to be around people.

Reliability coefficient was .90. The 6 scale items are:

1. I wanted to make new friends.
2. I wanted to be with people.
3. I wanted to be in a stimulating social environment.
4. I wanted to feel accepted and valued by others.
5. I wanted to be around interesting people.
6. I wanted to be with people I knew and enjoyed.

Material Rewards

Material Rewards were conceptually defined as focusing on financial or material gain of the volunteer. This was operationally defined through the Material Rewards Scale, a 7-item scale composed of factors which measured the desire to have personal needs met. Reliability coefficient was .83. The 7 scale items are:

1. I needed to meet influential people.
2. I needed practical experience.
3. I thought it would help me get ahead in a career.
4. I wanted to investigate new career possibilities.
5. I wanted to become known in the organization.
6. I wanted to learn new skills.
7. I wanted a chance to adapt my skills for use in paid jobs.

Personal Fulfillment Rewards

Personal Fulfillment Rewards were conceptually defined as meeting personal needs of the volunteer. This was operationally defined through the Personal Fulfillment Scale, a 7-item scale composed of factors which measured dimensions of a person's satisfaction in volunteering.

Reliability coefficient was .82. The 7 scale items are:

1. I feel good about doing it.
2. I wanted to do something meaningful with my free time.
3. I felt it would make me a better person.
4. It provides me an opportunity for self-expression.
5. It broadens my knowledge.
6. It develops my creative potential.
7. It provides an opportunity for personal growth.

Interactional Rewards

Interactional Rewards were conceptually defined as the aggregate of circumstances within the agency which caused the volunteer to feel valued, recognized and appreciated. The

Interactional Inventory measured the concepts of the role being respected, valued and supported by staff and clients and was studied through the following variables: *Self-Role Congruence*, *Relations with Staff*, *Relations with Clients*, *Relationships with Other Volunteers*, and *Climate*.

Self-Role Congruence

Self-Role Congruence was conceptually defined as how closely the volunteer felt his or her volunteer position utilized his or her talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's mission. This was operationally defined through the Self-Role Congruence Scale, an 11-item scale which measured how well the volunteer's position utilized her or his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's missions. Reliability coefficient was .91. The 11 scale items are:

1. I possess a variety of skills which the agency/church finds valuable.
2. My interests are congruent with church/agency goals.
3. The mission of the organization is congruent with my interests.
4. Considering volunteering as a life style, I am happy with it.
5. If I had to do it over again, I would volunteer.
6. Volunteering has lived up to the expectations I had when I began.
7. I would encourage others to volunteer.
8. Considering my volunteer work as a whole, I feel that it is in an area that is well suited to my talents.
9. Considering my volunteering as a whole, I like it very much.
10. I would encourage others to volunteer in this field of work.
11. I would say that my present volunteer position has lived up to the expectations I had when I began this work.

Relations with Staff

Relations with Staff was conceptually defined as the volunteer's working relationship with staff of the agency. This was operationally defined through the Agency Relationships with Staff Scale, a 4-item scale composed of factors which measured the satisfaction of the volunteer with her/his relations with staff at the agency. Reliability coefficient was .91. The 4 scale items are:

1. The staff is helpful to me.
2. The staff understands and appreciates my work and skills.
3. The staff works well together and with the volunteers.
4. The staff treats me as part of the team and involves me in decision-making.

Relations with Clients

Relations with Clients was conceptually defined as the volunteer's working relationship with clients of the agency. This was operationally defined through the Relationships with Clients Scale, a 5-item scale composed of factors which measured the satisfaction of the volunteer with her/his relations with clients at the agency. Reliability coefficient was .76. The 5 scale items are:

1. I feel very affirmed by the people I help in my volunteer work.
2. I feel appreciated by the people I help in my volunteer work.
3. I feel respected by the people I help in my volunteer work.
4. The people I am helping find my work beneficial.
5. The people I help in my volunteer assignment do not respect my decisions or ideas without checking with paid staff. (reverse coded)

Relations with Other Volunteers

Relationships with Other Volunteers was conceptually defined as the volunteer's relationships with other volunteers at the agency. This was operationally defined by the Volunteer Relationships Scale, a 4-item scale composed of factors which measure the level of involvement of the volunteer with other volunteers in the agency. Reliability coefficient was .79. The 4 scale items are:

1. One or more of the volunteers I work with have become good friends of mine.
2. I enjoy working with the other volunteers.
3. The volunteers solve problems together.
4. I am in regular contact, outside the work setting, with one or more of the volunteers I work with.

Climate

Climate was conceptually defined as a prevailing attitude of the agency toward the volunteer. It was operationally defined by the Climate Scale, a 7-item scale measuring the attitude of the agency toward the volunteer. Reliability coefficient was .88. The 7 scale items are:

1. My church/agency respects the role of the volunteer.
2. My church/agency places great emphasis on the volunteer.
3. My church/agency is very supportive of the volunteer.
4. The mission of the church/agency includes volunteer development.
5. In my view, the organization carries out its mission in its activities.
6. The mission of the church/agency supports volunteers.

7. The religious and humanistic values of the organization are reflected in the way volunteers, staff, and clients are treated.

Costs in Volunteering

Costs in Volunteering was conceptually defined as factors which could deter a person from volunteering. These were divided into *Personal Costs* and *Environmental Costs*.

Personal Costs

Personal Costs were conceptually defined as those concerns having to do with family, time, needs, skills, and attitude. This was operationally defined by the Personal Costs Scale, an 8-item scale composed of factors which measured personal costs in volunteering. Reliability coefficient was .89. The 8 scale items are:

1. In that "sandwich generation," caring for both elderly parents and for children.
2. Lack of confidence in own skills and talents.
3. The needs are so big; what difference can I make?
4. Child care needs.
5. Senior adult care needs.
6. The feeling that I have nothing to offer.
7. There are so many needs; I question that I can make a difference.
8. I do not have the skills needed for volunteering.

Environmental Costs

Environmental Costs were conceptually defined as those concerns having to do with safety, accessibility, and availability of transportation. This was operationally defined by the Environmental Costs Scale, a 6-item scale composed of factors which measured environmental

costs in volunteering. Reliability coefficient was .83. The 6 scale items are:

1. Driving through a dangerous neighborhood in order to volunteer.
2. The volunteer need is in a dangerous neighborhood.
3. Difficulty in commuting.
4. Commuting after dark.
5. Lack of knowledge about needs in the community.
6. No knowledge of service opportunities.

Control Variables

Control variables refer to variables that are “held constant in an attempt to further clarify the relationship between two other variables” (Rubin & Babbie, 1989, p.98). The control variables in this study included income, education, gender, length of time as a volunteer, race, age, and marital status

Preparation for Data Analysis

Preparation of the data for analysis began as soon as the questionnaires were received. All questionnaires were reviewed and edited. Missing data were minimal. Classification systems were refined for the purpose of coding the open-ended questions. These questions were of a factual nature and were readily coded by the researcher.

Plan of Analysis

The basic research design utilized in this study was a multivariate correlational design, specifically step-wise multiple regression. This procedure is used to analyze the relationship between the dependent or criterion variable and the predictors or independent variables. Multivariate analyses procedures indicated the extent to which the total variation in the

dependent variable could be explained by the independent variables acting together. This plan permitted the study of the simultaneous influence of the independent variables--trans-personal rewards, personalistic rewards, interactional rewards, and costs in volunteering on the dependent variable, volunteer commitment. The underlying assumption for the use of this design in the study was that no single factor, but a combination of factors, influence volunteer commitment. The study population was sufficiently large to utilize this research methodology.

Social characteristics of the population were analyzed by univariate statistics, such as simple frequencies and percentages, measures of central tendency and dispersion. The Pearson product-moment correlation was selected to test bi-variate relationships. A standardized computer program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), was utilized for all statistical analyses. The .05 level of significance was selected as the confidence interval for all statistical hypotheses testing.

Summary

The research plan developed for this study and the related statistical procedures sought to determine the relationships between the major independent variables--trans-personal rewards, personalistic rewards, interactional rewards, and costs in volunteering and the dependent variable, volunteer commitment. The following chapter will summarize, in narrative and tabular form, relevant social and professional characteristics of the volunteers who responded to this study. This is followed by the presentation of findings related to the study hypothesis.

CHAPTER IV

STUDY FINDINGS

This chapter summarizes the socio-demographic characteristics of the study respondents. It also presents the findings related to the study hypothesis. Descriptive information elicited from the respondents concerned their setting/s and the types of volunteer activity in which they participated. Data were collected concerning how the participants became involved in volunteering, the types of services they provided, the types of agreements made with their sponsoring churches or agencies, and information around their preparation for the services they provided.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis presented in chapter 3 predicted that the higher the rewards (transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) and the lower the cost in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns), the higher the level of volunteer commitment, when controlling for income, age, education, marital status, race, gender, and length of time as a volunteer. Further, the study sought to answer the following questions: In controlling for income, age, marital status, education, gender, race and length of time as a volunteer, will there be a direct positive relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards (transpersonal, personalistic, and interactional) for the volunteer? In controlling for income, marital status, gender, age, race, education and length of time as a volunteer, will there be a direct negative relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the cost in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns)? Stepwise multiple regression procedures were used to test the hypotheses.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The major socio-demographic characteristics examined in this study were: gender, age, education, marital status, family income, and ethnic background. Table IV.1 presents the data on these characteristics of the study participants. Five hundred sixty-two persons participated in the study.

Gender

Of the 562 subjects included in the study, 194 (34.6%) were male and 366 (65.1%) were female. Two did not respond to this question. These data are consistent with former studies that have shown that women constitute the largest number of volunteers (Moore, 1961, p.592-598; Stevens, 1993, p.9-13).

Age

The volunteers ranged in age from 19 to 84 years. There were almost equal numbers of respondents (approximately 20% each) from the following three age groups: 40-49, 50-59, 60-69. Sixteen percent were under age 40, and 18% were above age 69. This distribution reflects the common understanding that the larger population of volunteers comes from the late middle to older age group. This may be related to late middle age and older life cycle issues. Their children have probably left home, and they may have reached a time of financial security.

Education

The highest number of volunteers, 333 or 59.3%, had partial college or a college degree. An additional proportion, 16%, had never attended college, and 24.8% had done post graduate work.

Marital Status

Four hundred sixty or 82% of the respondents were married.

Income

As can be seen in Table IV.1, there was an almost equal percent (approximately 20%) of respondents in each of the following income brackets: \$20,000-\$39,999, \$40,000-\$59,999, and \$60,000-\$79,999, and close to 1/3 (29.9%) had incomes over \$80,000. Only 6.0% had incomes under \$20,000. Thus the volunteers in this study were largely from an affluent population, had attended college, were middle-aged, and were married.

Race

The ethnic background of almost the entire study population (N=532, 95.3%) was white. Only 26 or 4.7% were nonwhite (Asian American, Hispanic, American Indian, and African American). According to records of the Mount Vernon Baptist Association (in Northern Virginia) and the Richmond Baptist Association, the areas from which the sample was drawn, 16% of the membership of the Baptist churches is nonwhite. The churches with the largest African American populations did not respond to the request for names of volunteers. This may be due to the heavy workload of the pastors and their involvements in other Baptist conventions, such as the National Baptists and Progressive Baptists. These affiliations may influence their priorities. This is similar to the response of other minority and ethnic groups, who, from the experience of the author, seem to have extremely busy work schedules. The nonwhite volunteers, therefore, were under represented in this study.

TABLE IV.1 Selected Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Number	Percent
Gender N=560		
Male	194	34.6
Female	366	65.4
Age N=555		
Age 19-29	14	2.5
Age 30-39	75	13.5
Age 40-49	127	22.9
Age 50-59	128	23.1
Age 60-69	111	20.0
Age 70 and above	100	18.0
Educational Level N=562		
Grade School	4	.7
Partial High School	8	1.4
High School Diploma	78	13.9
Partial College	146	26.0
College Degree	187	33.3
Masters Degree	120	21.4
Doctorate	19	3.4
Marital Status N=561		
Married	460	82.0
Divorced	20	3.6
Single	33	5.9
Widowed	48	8.5
Income N=530		
\$0 - \$19,999	32	6.0
\$20,000 - \$39,999	103	19.4
\$40,000 - \$59,999	116	21.9
\$60,000 - \$79,999	121	22.8
\$80,000 - \$100,000	75	14.2
Over & 100,000	83	15.7
Ethnicity N=558		
White	532	95.3
Non-White	26	4.7

Organizational Affiliation

Respondents were asked to identify four organizations with which they were affiliated over the past five years. As Table IV.2 shows, the study participants were members of a variety of civic, church, or community organizations. Most of the respondents had been committee or board members and most held an office at some time. Many were also involved in providing a service. Because the sample came from churches, it would be expected, as was the case, that the respondents were affiliated with churches. In addition, over 19% of the sample were members of religious associations, groups of churches working together cooperatively. Other types of member organizations included common interest groups, particularly having to do with vocational and avocational interests; civic clubs and service organizations; those related to the arts; and others related to health; education, and children and youth. Those which fell in the "other" category related to work in prisons, political involvement, work with senior adults, and involvement in special events. Volunteer roles in the organization consisted of committee or board membership. Most of the study participants had held an office and had provided a service. Those who answered "other" simply stated that they had been volunteers.

TABLE IV.2 Organization Affiliation of Respondents During the Last Five Years

Member of Organization*	Number	Percent of Sample
Local Church	519	92.3
Religious Associations	111	19.6
Civic/Service Clubs	102	18.1
Common Interest	99	17.6
Schools, Tutoring	96	17.1
Children & Youth	78	13.9
Health, Well-Being	41	7.3
Arts	24	4.3
Ethnic Organizations	12	2.1
Secular Associations	11	2.0
Other	51	9.1
Organizational Role		
Committee, Bd. Member	441	78.5
Director, President	336	59.8
Officer other than Dir., Pres.	246	43.8
Service Provider	207	36.8
Other	25	4.4

*Respondents could select more than one category. Percent is calculated on the total N of 562.

Employment

As Table IV.3 shows, almost 60% of the respondents were employed. Of those employed, more than two-thirds were working full-time. About 40% of those who responded were retired. Of those who were employed or retired, the job titles varied. The respondents were asked to indicate the title of their job, the description, and the educational preparation they had for their work. Of the 416 who responded to this question, over 48% were white collar professional. These persons normally possessed a college and/or graduate degree and were involved in knowledge- or information-based work. This work included positions such as computer analyst, accountant, engineer, designer, copyright examiner, trainer, statistician,

therapist, counselor, musician, researcher, communications specialist, marketing specialist, scientist, analyst, consultant. Over 20% of the respondents indicated that their job titles involved clerical support, e.g., support services for the efficient running of an office or firm. This category included secretary, office assistant, clerk, receptionist. Their duties included accounting, billing, performing secretarial and receptionist duties. Nineteen percent of the sample indicated that they were in public service. Those individuals held jobs which were governmental or were for the general welfare of the local or wider community, e.g., fire fighter, soldier, doctor or nurse, educator, postal service worker, social worker, police person. Just under 10% were blue collar technicians. These persons normally were trained through a trade school, technical training, or on-the-job training. Their work was product-based and involved physical labor. They were involved in construction, contracting, farming, pet sitting, lumbering, cleaning, providing security, transporting, maintaining, delivering, repairing, manufacturing.

Thus, of the 60% of the respondents who were employed, two-thirds were working full-time. Almost half of the employed were white collar professionals, while others provided clerical support or were blue collar technicians.

TABLE IV.3 Employment Characteristics of the Respondents

Employed N=556	Number	Percent
Yes	323	58.1
No	233	41.9
Employment Status N=326		
Part-Time	99	30.4
Full-Time	227	69.6
Retired N=418		
Yes	169	40.4
No	249	59.6
Job Title N=463		
White Collar Professional	224	48.4
Clerical Support	96	20.7
Public Service	88	19.0
Blue Collar Technicians	42	9.2
Miscellaneous	13	2.7

Social Service Positions

Sixteen respondents or 3.5% had positions in social service other than those under governmental auspices. These were in community action, in church social service, mental health, victims assistance, and alcohol and drug abuse counseling.

Characteristics of Volunteer Roles and Settings

Respondents were asked to provide information about their current volunteer involvement. They were asked to indicate their primary volunteer setting. The data showed that the respondents served in a variety of settings. As can be seen in Table IV.4, over 80% of the study sample indicated that the local church was the primary setting for their volunteer activity. The remainder volunteered primarily in social service agencies, schools, religious associations,

hospitals, and city or county government. As can be seen in Table IV.4, the primary activities for the largest proportion of the respondents were in the area of church social and religious ministries. This included outreach, evangelism, work with senior and single adults, missions, and ministry including meals and housing. Over 19% were on committees, commissions, or councils. In the church, these are decision-making, as well as personal ministering groups. Education and tutoring were the primary volunteer activities for 17.1% of the respondents. Because the largest proportion of Christian education in the Baptist church takes place in Sunday School, this may indicate why a substantial number of volunteers were Sunday School teachers. Over 13% of the respondents were involved in social service outside the church. They engaged in food and clothing distribution, nutrition education, work with homeless and prisoners, patient care, emergency assistance, and disaster relief. Just over 8% worked with children or youth. This may have been through Sunday School, in church auxiliaries, or in secular organizations. Those working with music, sound, and the arts made up another 7.9%. Almost 6% volunteered in helping maintain and upgrade facilities. This included such things as repairing equipment, sewing, and buying supplies. The 12.1% which fell in the "other" category included support groups, clubs, and chaplaincy. As can be seen, over 80% of the volunteers were in church settings, while another 15% were in social service agencies, schools, hospitals, or government offices.

Those surveyed were asked to check the type of activity which best described their volunteer work. Most participants chose to list multiple involvements. There were 818 social service tasks performed. These included being a big brother or big sister; involvement in home visitation, mission action, clothing distribution, hospital visitation, emergency help, and help

with homeless shelters, tutoring, soup kitchens, prison ministry, youth center activities, senior day care, red cross, hospital auxiliaries, chaplaincy, refugee resettlement, hospice, drug prevention, and legal assistance. Three hundred-nineteen tasks of volunteers related to Christian education, teaching adults or children. Two hundred-twenty-one were involved in church auxiliaries, such as Woman's Missionary Union (a church organization which is involved in mission education and mission action) girl's, young women's, boy's, and young men's auxiliaries; Brotherhood (men's fellowship and mission action group). One hundred-fifty participated in choir or music programs. Fifty-six were helping in building and grounds maintenance. Fifty-four performed secretarial duties. Twenty-five worked with youth, and twenty-one worked with boy or girl scouts.

As Table IV.4 shows, almost two-thirds of the study population were involved in volunteer activity 10 years or more, and of that number, over one-third were involved 20 years or more, and less than one-fourth were volunteers for five years or less. Tenure for most of the volunteers in this study was lengthy, showing a high degree of stability in volunteer activity among the study sample.

TABLE IV.4 Volunteer Settings, Activities, and Years of Service

Primary Setting N=493	Number	Percent
Church	407	82.6
Social Service Agency	38	7.6
School	15	3.0
Religious Association	12	2.4
Hospital	11	2.3
City, County Government	10	2.1
Primary Activity N=455		
Church Social & Religious Ministries	74	16.3
Church Commission, Committee, Council Work	87	19.1
Education	78	17.1
Social Service	60	13.2
Children, Youth	38	8.4
The Arts	36	7.9
Maintenance of Facilities	27	5.9
Other	55	12.1
Years of Service N=470		
Less than 1 Year	1	.2
1 - 5	105	22.4
6 - 9	67	14.3
10 - 14	56	11.9
15 - 19	66	14.0
20 and Over	175	37.2

Combining local church, church association, and denominational work, everyone in the sample had volunteered in a religious setting at some time. Volunteers worked in a variety of other settings including social service agencies, hospitals, prisons, scouts, city or county governments, museum, military, and sorority or fraternity.

Precipitating Event for Volunteering

As shown in Table IV.5, when asked how the respondents became involved in volunteering, almost two-thirds were invited to volunteer, whereas almost one-third self-selected to volunteer. Those who self-selected indicated that it was their personal decision to volunteer. Some sought out the volunteer opportunity, while others had some free time to give. A small percentage volunteered because no one else was available. This finding has important implications for organizations seeking volunteers. In order to be involved, most volunteers must be personally asked to provide a service. This suggests the importance of recruitment strategies that emphasize reaching out to potential volunteers.

TABLE IV.5 Precipitating Event for Initial Involvement in Volunteering

Event*	Number	Percent
Was asked to volunteer	368	65.5
My personal decision	171	30.4
No one else available	13	2.3
Other	10	1.8

*Respondents could select more than one category. Percent is calculated on the total N of 562.

Contracts and Position Descriptions

According to Table IV.6, over two-thirds of the respondents had no volunteer position description, and over 96% had no written contract. Of the 27 who reported having a written contract, most were with the congregation, while a few were directly with the program in which they volunteered. Table IV.6 also indicates that one-third said they came to the volunteer position with training, and almost three-fourths felt they received adequate training on the job. Most felt that they were well prepared for their volunteer positions. It is the experience of the

TABLE IV.6 Selected Volunteer Job-Related Characteristics As Reported by the Respondents

Job Description N=543	Number	Percent
Yes	170	31.3
No	373	68.7
Written Contract N=556		
Yes	17	3.1
No	539	96.9
Type of Contract N=27		
With Congregation	12	44.5
With Program	5	18.5
With Supervisor	4	14.8
Other	6	22.2
Came With Training N=539		
Yes	181	32.2
No	358	63.7
Received Adequate Training on the Job N=531		
Yes	385	72.5
No	146	27.5
What Helped*		
Education	273	48.6
Work	291	51.8
Both	203	36.1
Other	300	53.3
Preparation for Position N=517		
Poorly Prepared	8	1.5
Fairly Prepared	43	8.3
Good	159	30.8
Very Good	212	41.0
Excellent	95	18.4

*Respondents could select more than one category. Percent is calculated on the total N of 562.

writer, as well as others in the field, that job descriptions and contracts are very important. They are important tools to clarify roles and responsibilities and to convey to the volunteer the seriousness of the service commitment. These data suggest that as churches involve volunteers, it is important that they give attention to both descriptions of positions and contracts. The volunteers indicated that elements in their background, such as education and work experience, contributed to their success as volunteers. Note that almost two-thirds had no training for the job at all, but almost three-fourths said they received adequate training as part of the volunteer assignment. This would lead one to believe that a good job is being done in training volunteers on the job after they have begun their assignment, which was the prevailing perception of the respondents.

Client socioeconomic Class

Over half of the respondents reported the socioeconomic class of those they served as mixed, with most clients coming from middle and upper middle class. Over 10% served clients of lower and lower middle socioeconomic class. Almost 80% of the localities served were urban or suburban. The large urban and suburban populations and the socioeconomic classes served were reflective of the locations of the churches surveyed.

Reimbursement

As shown in Table IV.7, those questioned were asked if they received any type of reimbursement for their volunteer activity. Just under 15%, or 80 persons, responded affirmatively. Most of those reimbursements were for supplies. Of those who were reimbursed for work done, they received a stipend for secretarial-type work. Those who reported being reimbursed for other purposes received free lab services, gifts, expenses paid as a trip sponsor,

and work uniforms. Twenty reported that satisfaction in helping others and from serving God was significant “reimbursement.”

TABLE IV.7 Forms of Reimbursement for Expenses and Work, As Reported by Volunteers

<u>Form of Reimbursement</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Reimbursed for Food N=562		
Yes	28	5.0
No	534	95.0
Reimbursed for Transportation N=562		
Yes	22	3.9
No	540	96.1
Reimbursed for Supplies N=562		
Yes	56	10.0
No	506	90.0
Reimbursed for Work Done N=562		
Yes	7	1.2
No	555	98.8
Reimbursed for Other Purpose N=562		
Yes	6	1.1
No	556	98.9

According to the results of this study, the typical volunteer was a white woman between the ages of forty and fifty-nine. She had a college degree, was married, and her household income was approximately \$65,000. She was a church member and probably also related to religious organizations on the associational or state level. In this study the volunteer was most likely to be a member of various committees in her church and had probably held an office in the church. Generally, she was employed full-time in a white collar professional job. The primary setting of her volunteer activity was the church, and she probably had volunteered 15-20 years,

her primary activity being that of educator or commission member. It is likely that she initially became involved in volunteering because she was asked specifically to do so. Her volunteer position most likely provided no job description or written contract, and she came without training. For the most part, her previous education and work experience proved helpful, and she believed that she received adequate training during her volunteer experience. The people she served in her volunteer position generally were middle, upper middle, or mixed class in a suburban locality. Most likely she had held previous volunteer positions, and she felt her preparation for the volunteer position as very good. Except for occasional supplies, she received no reimbursement for her volunteering, and she obviously did not participate in volunteering for any monetary gain. The possible reasons why she volunteered will be dealt with later in this study.

Following is a discussion of the findings related to the study hypothesis. Volunteer commitment is examined in relation to trans-personal rewards, personalistic rewards, interactional rewards, and costs in volunteering.

Findings Related to the Study Hypotheses

The beginning of Chapter 4 reported the demographic findings of the study. Through an examination of gender, age, educational level, marital status, income, and ethnicity, a profile of the study population emerged. Information was also gained concerning their organization affiliation and offices held in those organizations. Basic employment characteristics of respondents were identified, and data were gathered regarding their volunteer settings, activities, and years of service. In addition, respondents discussed selected issues related to volunteering. This provided valuable information about the respondents concerning their employment, organizational affiliation, and volunteer involvement. Next will be presented the statistical analysis related to the hypotheses testing. The analysis of the major study scales is presented first. This is followed by a presentation of the findings of the multivariate hypothesis.

The Dependent and Independent Variable Measures

Scale Statistics

An analysis of the statistics on the major dependent variable measure and the independent variables measures are presented below. A description of the study instrument with its scales and subscales was presented in Chapter 3, and the instrument itself is included in Appendix A. The scale mean, standard deviation, potential range, actual range, and alpha for the dependent variable scale and for the independent variable measures are reported in Table IV.8.

According to these findings, volunteer commitment, conceptualized as the degree to which a person values and finds volunteer activity an important element in her/his life, was high. For the most part, the respondents reported that volunteering created a better world and gave meaning to life. They planned to continue to volunteer and felt that everyone should volunteer.

According to the scale mean in Table IV.8, most participants were in general agreement (scale mean = 4.2) that volunteering was an important part of their lives and should be a part of the lives of others. They agreed that volunteering helps create a better world and helps give meaning to life.

Table IV.8 presents the independent variable measures. In examining this table, it can be seen that most of the study sample reported high levels of trans-personal rewards, which included both religious and altruistic. Trans-personal rewards (scale mean = 4.3) was conceptually defined as rewards which are beyond one's self, as one relates to religious (serving God by helping others) and altruistic (meeting needs, providing a service, for someone else) ideals.

The largest proportion of volunteers also experienced high levels of self-role congruence: a feeling that one's volunteer position utilized one's talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's mission (scale mean = 4.2), positive relationships with clients (scale mean = 4.2), and they responded positively to the organizational climate: attitude of the agency toward the volunteer (scale mean = 4.1). The participants were in less agreement that material rewards (focusing on financial or material gain of the volunteer) were motivational factors in their volunteerism; in fact, material rewards (scale mean = 1.7) and environmental costs: those concerns having to do with safety, accessibility, and availability of transportation (scale mean = 2.5) and personal costs--those concerns having to do with family, time, needs, skills, and attitude (scale mean = 2.0), factors which would deter a person from volunteering, were low.

The rewards with which participants were in most agreement were trans-personal rewards, self-role congruence, client relationships, and climate. Most felt strongly that volunteering provided opportunities to follow the leadership of the Lord and to bring joy into the lives of others. The largest proportion felt strongly that their skills were congruent with church/agency goals and were needed. Most felt it was important to be affirmed, appreciated and respected by the people they helped; and they felt that the church/agency was supportive of the volunteer.

The rewards which the participants somewhat agreed were important to them were personal fulfillment--meeting personal needs of the volunteer (scale mean = 3.6), staff relationships--the volunteer's working relationships with staff at the church/agency (scale mean = 3.8), and volunteer relationships--the volunteer's relationship with other volunteers at the church/agency (scale mean = 3.6). They were only somewhat concerned about their personal growth and self-expression and about relationships with staff and other volunteers.

Most participants agreed only moderately concerning the importance of social fulfillment: providing meaningful social contacts and opportunities for relating with others (scale mean = 2.8) and environmental costs: those concerns having to do with safety, accessibility, and availability of transportation (scale mean = 2.5). Needing to be with people and make new friends were not of great importance to the volunteer. Worry about dangers in the environment were not of great importance to the participants.

Participants generally did not agree that material rewards (scale mean = 1.7) or personal costs (scale mean = 2.0) were important to them. Through volunteering, they were not trying to meet influential people, get ahead in a career, or learn new skills. Nor were they concerned about personal and/or family needs which might deter them from volunteering.

TABLE IV.8 Summary Statistics of the Study Measures

Variable	Actual Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Mean	Actual Range	Alpha
<u>Dependent Variable</u> <u>Volunteer Commitment</u>	45.7	7.72	4.2	16-55	.90
<u>Trans-Personal Rewards</u>	38.5	5.18	4.3	9-45	.85
<u>Personalistic Rewards</u>					
Social Fulfillment	17.0	6.39	2.8	6-30	.90
Material	11.7	5.05	1.7	7-35	.83
Personal Fulfillment	25.1	5.7	3.6	7-35	.82
<u>Interactional Rewards</u>					
Self-Role Congruence	45.8	6.86	4.2	13-55	.92
Client Relationships	20.8	3.19	4.2	9-25	.76
Staff Relationships	15.1	3.79	3.8	4-20	.91
Volunteer Relationships	15.4	3.25	3.6	4-20	.79
Climate	29.0	4.77	4.1	10-35	.89
<u>Costs</u>					
Environmental Costs	15.2	5.93	2.5	6-30	.83
Personal Costs	15.7	7.03	2.0	8-37	.89

Bi-Variate Analysis

Bi-variate analyses, as well as multi-variate analyses, were used to analyze the study hypotheses. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was the statistical method used to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables. Bi-variate analysis was also utilized to determine the intercorrelations among independent variables. The legend for Tables IV. 9-12 follows. As shown in Table IV.9, the Pearson

Correlation Coefficients between volunteer commitment (the dependent variable) and the independent variables revealed the strongest correlation to be between volunteer commitment and the independent variable self-role congruence ($r = .577$), which was defined as how well the volunteer's position utilized her or his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's mission. This seemed to indicate that the committed volunteer agreed with the mission of the organization and felt that her/his expectations had been fulfilled in the volunteer assignment. This seems congruent with the actions and needs of the volunteer in the church setting, the focus of this study. The active church member normally feels a commitment to God and to the church, which can lead to volunteering in areas where he/she feels his/her gifts can be utilized.

Legend for Tables IV.9-12:

Trans-Personal Rewards	TP
Personalistic Rewards:	
Social Fulfillment	PSF
Material	PM
Personal Fulfillment	PPF
Interactional Rewards:	
Self-Role Congruence	SRC
Agency Relationships	
With Clients	ARC
With Staff	ARS
With Other Volunteers	ARV
Climate	CL
Costs in Volunteering:	
Environmental Costs	CE
Personal Costs	CP

Trans-personal rewards, both religious and altruistic ($r = .489$), and climate ($r = .442$) were also strongly correlated with volunteer commitment. This suggests that the committed volunteer was following the leadership of the Lord in serving others and experienced joy when helping others. It also indicates that the respect of the organization toward the volunteer

influences volunteer commitment; the higher the respect, the higher the commitment.

Material rewards (-.010) and personal costs (-.101) and environmental costs (-.043) were not statistically significantly related to volunteer commitment. Nor were the volunteers concerned about difficulty in commuting to get to the volunteer assignment. Personal or family problems did not significantly influence their volunteer commitment.

According to Table IV.9, intercorrelations between independent variables revealed that the highest correlation was between self-role congruence and relationships with clients with a correlation of .706. This indicates that in this study there is a strong relationship between suitability of the volunteer to his/her role and relationship with clients. The next highest correlation was between climate and self-role congruence with a correlation of .658. This suggests that there is a relation between the fit of the volunteer to her/his role and the attitude of the organization toward the volunteer. Climate also correlated strongly with relations with clients and relations with staff, suggesting that the volunteer's perception of the attitude of the organization toward the volunteer is related to the volunteer's relations with staff and clients. There were also strong correlations between self-role congruence and trans-personal rewards, suggesting there is a relation between the fit between the person and the role and the volunteer's relationship to God and joy in helping others. As can be seen in Table IV.10, there were significant correlations between other independent variables.

TABLE IV.9 Intercorrelations Between Independent Variables

	VC	TP	PSF	PM	PPF	SRC	ARC	ARS	ARV	CL	CE	CP
VC	1.000											
TP	.489**	1.000										
PSF	.216**	.222**	1.000									
PM	-.010	.071	.490**	1.000								
PPF	.431**	.432**	.506**	.350**	1.000							
SRC	.577**	.598**	.197**	-.009	.439**	1.000						
ARC	.413**	.438**	.144**	-.070	.385**	.706**	1.000					
ARS	.300**	.264**	.338**	.135**	.426**	.478**	.503**	1.000				
ARV	.335**	.353**	.201**	.057	.283**	.478**	.358**	.354**	1.000			
CL	.442**	.418**	.216**	-.019	.402**	.658**	.587**	.595**	.432**	1.000		
CE	-.043	-.040	.153**	.173**	.076	-.090*	-.027	.142**	-.059	.027	1.000	
CP	-.101*	-.016	.181**	.288**	.011	-.168**	-.112**	.076	-.098*	-.085*	.517**	1.000

*significant at >.05 level

**significant at >.01 level

TABLE IV.10 Multiple Regression Including All Independent Variables

I.V.	Step 1, Control Variables			Step 2, Rewards			Step 3, Costs		
	B	Beta	t	B	Beta	t	B	Beta	t
Gender	1.417	.090	1.820	-.674	-.043	-1.037	-.667	-.043	-.994
Age	-1.827	-.033	-.575	-2.938	-.054	-1.130	-2.852	-.052	-1.091
Educ	.347	.051	.983	-5.394	-.008	-.187	-6.335	-.009	-.218
Income	-5.517	-.011	-.192	-5.505	-.011	-.234	-6.137	-.012	-.258
Mar.Stat.	.179	.009	.169	.332	.017	.391	.337	.017	.395
TimeVol.	5.875	.108	1.951*	1.694	.031	.696	1.680	.031	.687
TP				.174	.118	2.361*	.175	.119	2.355*
PSF				4.418	.038	.775	4.627	.040	.807
PM				-.167	-.109	-2.353*	-.161	-.105	-2.214*
PPF				.271	.208	3.964**	.269	.206	3.911**
SRC				.444	.398	5.929**	.439	.393	5.783**
ARC				-6.119	-.026	-.470	-6.148	-.026	-.470
ARS				-.122	-.064	-1.217	-.116	-.060	-1.138
ARV				9.062	.040	.897	8.635	.038	.849
CL				.116	.074	1.264	.116	.074	1.269
CE							-8.858	-.007	-.152
CP							-1.632	-.015	-.310
Constant	Step 1	43.552		Step 2	13.503		Step 3	13.951	
R2	Step 1	.018		Step 2	.390		Step 3	.390	

*significant at >.05 level

**significant at >.001 level

The first step in Table IV.11 was to enter time volunteered, the only significant control variable, as shown in Table IV.10. Time volunteered became insignificant when it was the only control variable, accounting for only .7% of the variance in the dependent variable. The second step in Table IV.11 was to enter all independent variables classified as rewards. This increased the amount of variance explained in the dependent variable to 38.5%. The significant

independent variables were self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, trans-personal rewards and personal material rewards. The higher the self-role congruence, the higher the volunteer commitment. The same positive correlation was found true for personal fulfillment and trans-personal rewards. Personal material rewards were negatively correlated with the dependent variable. The third step involved adding the independent variables classified as costs, which led to almost no increase in the influence on the amount of variance in the dependent variable, from 38.5% to 38.6%.

TABLE IV.11 Multiple Regression Including Time Volunteered and All Independent Variables

	Step 1, Time Volunteered			Step 2, Rewards			Step 3, Costs		
	B	Beta	t	B	Beta	t	B	Beta	t
Time	4.364	.082	1.770	4.790	.009	.240	4.889	.009	.244
TP				.153	.102	2.134*	.153	.102	2.109*
PSI				5.567	.048	.997	5.842	.050	1.041
PM				-.145	-.094	-2.145*	-.138	-.090	-1.995*
PPF				.272	.206	4.127**	.273	.207	4.102**
SRC				.444	.396	6.101**	.439	.392	5.946**
ARC				-9.142	-.038	-.711	-9.361	-.039	-.726
ARS				-.132	-.067	-1.338	-.124	-.063	-1.246
ARV				.138	.060	1.406	.132	.058	1.334
CL				.110	.069	1.252	.114	.071	1.284
CE							-3.173	-.025	-.583
CP							-3.349	-.003	-.068
Constant	Step 1	45.126		Step 2	11.837		Step 3	12.415	
R2	Step 1	.007		Step 2	.385		Step3	.386	

*significant >.05 level **significant >.001 level

As a result of the calculations displayed in Tables IV.10 & 11, the most parsimonious model was determined. Table IV.12 displays this model. It involved entering all the significant independent variables, all of which fell in the rewards category. Costs were not significant in influencing the dependent variable volunteer commitment. As indicated in Table IV.12, the significant independent variables were self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, trans-personal and personal material rewards. The higher the self-role congruence, the higher the volunteer commitment, as was true for personal fulfillment and trans-personal rewards. Personal material rewards were negatively correlated with volunteer commitment. This last model identified the significant independent variables, which accounted for 37.7% of the variance in volunteer commitment.

TABLE IV. 12 Multiple Regression Including the Significant Independent Variables

	B	Beta	t
Self-Role Congruence	.419	.372	8.658**
Personal Fulfillment	.309	.226	5.556**
Trans-Personal	.263	.177	4.191**
Personal Material	-.151	-.099	-2.762*
R2	.377	Constant	12.136

*significant >.05 level

**significant >.001 level

Summary of Multivariate Findings

It was predicted that the higher the rewards and the lower the costs, the higher the volunteer commitment. This prediction was supported only for these three rewards: self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, and trans-personal rewards. Material rewards were negatively

correlated with volunteer commitment, although anticipated to be positively associated with volunteer commitment. Costs were not significant, nor were the control variables. Thus, the prediction that the costs of volunteering, such as transportation and family obligations, would negatively influence volunteer commitment was not supported by the findings. These findings strongly suggest that volunteers are engaged in volunteer services because the activity was suited to their talents and interests, provided for personal fulfillment, and was consistent with their altruistic values and religious beliefs. These data have important implications for both volunteer recruitment and retention.

Summary

The first section of chapter IV revealed information regarding the major socio-demographic characteristics of the volunteers. Information was also elicited regarding the activities and organizational settings of the volunteers and the preparation they had for their current volunteer position. There was an over representation of white women in the population when compared with church data and with the nation as a whole. Over two-thirds of the respondents were women, as compared to just over one-half nationwide and church wide. Ninety-five percent were white, as compared to approximately 80% nationwide and 77% in Virginia (Scan/US, 1995). Over 80% were married.

The volunteers ranged in age from 19 to 84 years with a median age of 54 years. Sixteen percent were under age 40, and 18% were above age 69, which suggests that churches should target younger persons as well as older persons for volunteer work. Close to 60% had partial college or a college degree, whereas 16% had never attended college, and 25% had done post graduate work. Incomes ranged from \$20,000 to \$79,999, while close to one-third had incomes

over \$80,000. Only 6.0% had incomes under \$20,000. The ethnic background of almost the entire study population was white. Thus, most of the volunteers in this study were white, were largely from an affluent population, had attended college, were middle-aged and were married.

Most volunteers became engaged in volunteering because they were asked to volunteer. This provides important information when one seeks to attract volunteers in service programs in both church and non-church related agencies. Most of the volunteers did not have job descriptions, nor did they have contracts, an area which should be given consideration by volunteer coordinators or directors in church-related volunteer programs.

The major predictors of volunteer commitment, which explained 37.7% of the variance, were self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, trans-personal rewards, and personal material rewards. Personal material rewards were negatively correlated with volunteer commitment, while the other significant independent variables were positively correlated with the dependent variable. The costs of volunteering were not significantly related to commitment, indicating that, in this population, the difficulties in carrying out the role, such as safety, commuting, and family concerns, were not significant deterrents to volunteering. Chapter 5 will examine implications of those findings and will suggest areas for further research.