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SOCIAL EXCHANGE: AN ASSESSMENT OF ITS ROLE IN SUCCESSFUL VOLUNTEER/SALARIED STAFF PARTNERSHIPS

by

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G. MOTIVATION

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(ABSTRACT)

Managers of nonprofit voluntary associations are seeking volunteers to work with salaried staff in the delivery of human services as government agencies reduce or eliminate support for programs. Competition among organizations to attract and retain talented volunteers is increasingly a problem. One of the ways organizations are increasing the effectiveness of their programs is to recruit management volunteers to work at all levels of program development and delivery.

The specific purpose of this study was to analyze factors affecting the motivation of individuals to accept and remain in a management-level, volunteer job similar to that being performed by a salaried manager. This was done by conducting ten in-depth case studies of pairs of salaried and volunteer managers working together as a management team at the top administrative level of a national nonprofit human service organization.

Data collection for the study was done through the ethnographic interview process. A structured method for carrying out analytic induction was used to perform the data analysis. One major cultural theme and patterns of related minor themes emerged from the dimensions of similarity

and contrast across the ten cases and the three different management sites at which data were collected.

Key motivational factors identified in each of the case studies corroborate the importance of certain theoretical variables identified in Blau's theory of social exchange for attracting and retaining volunteers to management-level jobs. However, these theories did not fully explain the interaction of certain variables to create a pattern of high satisfaction for both partners in certain cases.

Other factors that contributed to the level of expressed satisfaction in the partnerships were related to certain aspects of the management style of the salaried manager, self-esteem of the volunteer manager, organizational climate of the management site and the cultural traditions of volunteerism within each of the three geographic regions in which the sites were located. These factors that created satisfaction with the salaried and volunteer managers are important because of the relationship indicated in the research literature between motivation, job satisfaction and organizational productivity.

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Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

In this country, 84.7 million Americans (52% of the adult population) volunteered between March 1980 and March 1981, and contributed over $67.8 billion dollars worth of services. By 1985 the number of American adults who volunteered had declined to 82.2 million. Yet the average annual number of hours that volunteers worked had increased by 32%, and the estimated dollar value of services figured by the same formula as the 1981 survey had increased to $101.2 billion (Independent Sector, 1986). Managers of nonprofit organizations and leaders of voluntary associations are looking for even more volunteers to deliver numerous human service programs as federal and state governments cut or eliminate support for them (Salamon, 1984). Social analysts predict that the trend toward more reliance on local self-help organizations, as opposed to heavy reliance on governmental agencies, to solve local community problems and meet social needs is likely to continue for some time (Naisbett, 1982).

Competition for volunteers to carry out the work of these organizations is becoming a problem (Vizza, Allen, & Keller, 1986). Existing research literature on organizational structure and development indicates there are certain kinds of social exchange, in terms of extrinsic benefits or intrinsic rewards, that represent a critical variable in the continuing participation of members in an organization. There is evidence that the effects of these different forms of social exchange as motivators for participation vary according to the interaction of certain behavioral characteristics of the individual member and situational characteristics

within an organizational environment (Blau, 1964; Cook & Emerson, 1984; Evans, 1970; Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1984; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Robbins, 1984).

Statement of the Problem

There has been little research to examine the motivational effects of various kinds of social exchange on volunteers as a specific type of member within a given organizational environment. Nor have various kinds of social exchange been related to specific behavioral characteristics of volunteers. Research done thus far to explain volunteer motivation has been almost exclusively survey research in which data gathering has been forced into pre-set categories that would seem to grow logically from theories used to explain the phenomenon.

Blau (1964) and Etzioni (1975) have pointed out that in the case of salaried staff members of an organization money is exchanged for compliance to those in authority and power positions in order to accomplish organizational goals. But in voluntary associations, certain kinds of social exchange that ultimately lead to feelings of social approval and personal obligation take the place of monetary rewards in motivating people to comply with the leaders and participate in the accomplishment of organizational goals. While the research literature demonstrates that many volunteers list the desire to help others as a central motivation for volunteer work, there is evidence that other factors, such as various facets of job content and job context, influence the desire to do volunteer work (Gidron, 1983; Grieshop, 1985; Watts & Edwards, 1983). Miller (1984) found that certain individuals whose salaried employment lacked opportunities for

"growth need satisfaction" frequently became involved in volunteer work that they believed provided for this need.

Several theories have been adapted from the fields of sociology and applied psychology to explain the motivation of volunteers (Moore, 1985). Four basic theories of human motivation have provided the framework for expansion into at least seven other general theories that have been applied specifically to motivation to do volunteer work. One theory frequently discussed in the volunteer literature as a framework for designing both job content and context is that of human motivation developed by David McClelland (1985) and his associates. This theory is the outgrowth of a 40 year program of research into understanding and measuring the force of four broad categories of needs that influence behavioral outcomes of individuals. The concepts of three of these categories (positive affiliation needs, positive achievement needs, and positive power needs), described in detail by McClelland, represent various types of social exchange. Peter Blau (1964), whose social exchange theory reflects the early work of George C. Homans (1974), supports McClelland's concepts. When McClelland's theory is closely examined, one might argue that it also embraces most of the major concepts in other theories that have been drawn upon to explain volunteer motivation.

In addition to McClelland's theory, Frederick Herzberg's hygiene theory (Vineyard, 1981) is used often to explain how the absence of certain aspects of "good" supervision can be demotivating to the volunteer in performance of a job. A third theory used frequently as the theoretical underpinning in studies dealing with volunteer motivation is Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Moore & Anderson, 1985). Together, these three

theories appear to explain the literature that practitioners (administrators of volunteer programs) have developed to guide program planning and management for volunteer systems.

Because there is increasing competition for the present pool of volunteers, administrators of volunteers and leaders of voluntary associations need to increase their knowledge about strategies that are effective in attracting and retaining volunteers. This study was designed to generate knowledge useful for attracting and retaining volunteers in management-level positions.

Purpose of the Study

The specific purpose of this study was to analyze factors affecting the motivation of individuals to accept a management-level volunteer job and remain in it for a specific time commitment. This purpose was achieved by conducting ten in-depth case studies of salaried and volunteer staff persons who perform similar jobs as a management team for a national voluntary association. (See Appendix A for comparison of the job descriptions of the volunteer and salaried managers.) The study is oriented by the concept that although individual perceptions are central to an understanding of the phenomenon, these perceptions are meaningful only when placed in context. Specifically, individuals' experiences, aspirations, and sense of need fulfillment on the job must be set in the context of the organization, personal beliefs, norms that are both internal and external to the organization, and pressures from significant others. The objectives of the study were to:

1. synthesize extant literature with regards to human motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational context;

2. develop an interview instrument based on the research questions and theoretical framework suggested by the literature;

3. set up an interview schedule for both in-person and telephone interviews with participants in the study;

4. collect data relating to social exchange, job content, organizational context, and job satisfaction of the sample, and;

5. analyze the relationship between the dependent variable, volunteer/salaried staff work motivation, and the independent variables revealed by the case studies.

The study was designed to address three broad research questions that are appropriate to the case study form of naturalistic inquiry:

1. Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to volunteers, in the performance of a management-level job?

2. Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a management-level job related to certain aspects of job content and job context that are affected by the planning and supervision carried out by salaried staff?

3. What are the practical implications suggested by the findings for the supervision and management of volunteers who perform management-level jobs?

Significance of the Study

The report of the President's Task Force on Private Sector Initiatives indicates that government and local leaders are publicly recognizing that volunteers have always played, and must continue increasingly to play, a critical role in meeting certain of America's societal needs if life is to be meaningful and decent in communities (Shanahan, 1982). Yet efforts of the many competing organizations to attract and retain volunteers to accomplish program goals are increasingly fraught with difficulties (Eisenberg, 1983; Wheeler, 1986).

The size of the nonprofit sector which delivers these programs is immense (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1986; Salamon, 1984). If religious organizations and agencies primarily serving their members (such as professional associations) are excluded and only the service organizations operating for the public's benefit are considered, the size of the sector is still great. The Internal Revenue Service lists 375,000 such organizations in its Master File. Salamon (1984) states, "These organizations are not only numerous, they are also a major economic force." In 1982, the nonprofit service sector reported expenditures of $131 billion and employed approximately 6.5 million people. When the federal government began to propose substantial budget cuts in 1981, it was providing 41% of the funding for the nonprofit human-service organizations.

Starting in 1982 and continuing to 1987, the federal government has reduced significantly its financial support to the nonprofit sector (Eisenberg, 1982; Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1986). If organizations within the nonprofit sector are to maintain the present level of services, they must find new sources of funding, increase the efficiency of program delivery, and increase participation of volunteers. The nonprofit sector is already heavily dependent upon volunteers. In 1984, volunteers provided services equivalent to 4.7 million full-time employees. The new needs of the sector, due to funding cuts, are placing a heavy demand on the present pool of volunteers.

The for-profit corporates are shifting priorities to meet the needs of the human-service sector faster than the foundations that have traditionally provided assistance (Salamon, 1984). In addition to financial resources, they are providing human and material resources. Employees who are

being encouraged to volunteer their services expect good program management and the effective use of their time and talents (Vizza, Allen, & Keller, 1986). One of the ways this expectation is being met is through development of management-level volunteers who work with salaried staff to develop an understanding of effective roles for volunteers and to create linkages for communication with volunteers between all supervisory levels of complex organizations (Johnson, 1986; NOAH, 1983).

Maximizing the potential for attracting and retaining of volunteers could produce a dramatic impact on the quality of life in communities for many Americans. As Joselyn (1976) observes:

> If the U.S. is indeed, as advocates for the voluntary society predict, moving towards a society where a substantial part of the social services and programs is staffed by volunteers who work alongside paid staff, we must aim to understand how it is possible to sustain such a partnership. (p. 26)

To gain such an understanding calls for social research that can address specifically this problem. If volunteer administrators can develop strategies to design the content and context of volunteer jobs so that they provide the social exchange that individuals need, it may be possible to increase the potential for attracting and retaining volunteers. This, in turn, could increase the cadre of volunteers willing to work in partnership with salaried staff to solve pressing community problems and deliver human services.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was confined to examining in-depth the relationship between selected variables which affect volunteer motivation within one

major national organization that uses volunteers to perform the same job tasks as salaried staff members.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of case study research should be generalized with caution to other populations with very similar characteristics. The value of such a study is that it allows for consideration of the explanatory value of theories currently in vogue and the generation of postulates useful as working hypotheses to be tested with a much broader population in further research.

Definitions Used in the Study

Case study: the study of a bounded system (the case) which features descriptions that are complex, holistic, and involve a myriad of interrelated variables; data that are likely to be gathered at least partly by personal observation, and a writing style that is similar to a narrative (Stake, 1978, p. 5).

Hygiene factors: the factors which Herzberg (1974) identified as demotivating if not attended to by those who provide program management and supervision for the workers. They include provision of clear policies, administrative supervision, satisfying working conditions, positive interpersonal relations, status, security, and remuneration or, in the case of volunteers, extrinsic rewards.

Informant: a person who provides information relevant to the situation and concepts under study and is "native" to the "cultural scene" being explored (Spradley, 1979, p. 25).

Job content: the tasks, duties and activities that the individual is expected to carry out in the performance of the job (Gidron, 1983, p. 22).

Job context: those elements of the organizational climate that affect both performance on the job and job satisfaction (Gidron, 1983, p. 22).

Job dissatisfaction: the expression of dissatisfaction over aspects of the job that lead to frustration or are troublesome in carrying out the job content.

Job satisfaction: the expression of satisfaction with the opportunity to meet a variety of individual needs through performing the job.

Naturalistic inquiry: an inductive approach that documents "slice-of-life" episodes in "natural" language, with minimal investigator manipulation of the study setting and no prior determination of outcomes (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 78).

Social exchange: "actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others and that cease when these expected reactions are not forthcoming" (Blau, 1964, p. 6). The nature of the exchange may range from intrinsic rewards, such as the opportunity to utilize certain talents and skills, to those exchanges between associates primarily concerned with extrinsic benefits, such as giving public recognition and status in return for a service rendered.

SMD: SMD stands for the salaried managing director that is one member of the two person management team that constitutes the unit of analysis for the case studies.

Successful volunteer/salaried staff partnership: a volunteer/salaried staff management team in which the volunteer has averaged at least 15 hours per week on the job and fulfilled a three- year term (defined for the purpose of this study).

Triangulation: the process of checking data against other sources so that the researcher can guard against the accusation that the findings of a study lack credibility due to the use of a single method, a single data source, a single investigator's bias, or the use of a single theory to interpret a single set of data (Patton, 1980, p. 108).

VMD: VMD stands for the volunteer managing director who serves as a volunteer counterpart to the salaried managing director (SMD) in the two person management team that constitutes the unit of analysis for the case studies.

Volunteer: a person who chooses "to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond what is necessary to one's physical well-being" (Ellis & Noyes, 1978, p. 10).

Overview of the Presentation

This study is divided into six chapters. In the present chapter, the rationale for the study has been discussed. Chapter II reviews the

literature relating to motivation theory, job satisfaction, the motivation of volunteers, and organizational context, and presents the research questions to be answered by the study. Chapter III discusses the case study method, selection of the sample, and the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data, as well as methodological issues associated with the case study method. Chapter IV provides a description of the case study units and the three sites in which the data collection was carried out. Chapter V discusses the data analysis and findings in the form of patterns and associated themes contributing to the satisfactions and dissatisfactions of the salaried managers and volunteer managers in the ten partnerships and presents data related to the research questions. Chapter VI summarizes the study, provides interpretations and conclusions related to the research questions, and presents recommendations for further research.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides a conceptual background for questions addressed by the study, as well as the theoretical basis for the research design. The review of literature focuses on: 1) an historical perspective of volunteerism in the United States, 2) theories dealing with human behavior and motivation, 3) specific theories used to explain volunteer motivation, 4) research and theory on motivation to perform both paid and volunteer work, 5) the relationship of motivation, job satisfaction and organizational productivity, and 6) the development of secondary research questions based on four major theories and several minor themes, frequently cited in the research literature, to explain volunteer motivation.

An Historical Perspective of Volunteerism

One of the unique aspects of American culture has been the voluntary association, from colonial times to the present. The early settlers drew up a social agreement known as the Mayflower Compact of 1620, an agreement which represented an expression of the Pilgrims' commitment in the New World to voluntary cooperation for the achievement of mutual goals (Wright, 1955). Throughout the Colonial Period and early 1800s, men and women of all classes served in volunteer capacities to formulate policy and plan and deliver a variety of human services, ranging from education and health care to community governance (Tocqueville, 1954; Ellis & Noyes, 1978).

During the 19th century, upper-class men from the newly emerging commercial class took over powerful roles on volunteer boards, action which allowed them to control economic growth and development in communities (Hall, 1975). The women of the leisure class became "benevolent" service volunteers caring for the sick and needy and promoting the arts, activities which helped them access social power in the community (Brumberg, 1982).

As the century progressed, women began to educate one another about how to become serious advocates for social reform. Throughout the latter half of the 1800s, they responded to the social problems brought on by the rapid urbanization and immigration that accompanied development of the Industrial Revolution in America. They became a powerful voice for national and local policy changes for the delivery of health care and social services through their informal social networks with the male policy and decision makers (Blum, et. al., 1968; Duffy, 1968).

Between the 1880s and 1915, there was a dramatic decline in infant mortality and an increase in life span due to the efforts of volunteers and political reformers to improve housing, water supplies, sanitation, sewerage, and child labor laws (Blum et al., Rothman, 1978; 1968; Steinfels, 1982). During this period, a history of cooperation and interdependence developed between government and the voluntary/non-profit sector to participate in the delivery of human services (Salamon, 1984).

Shortly after the turn of the century, the influential roles of volunteers (particularly women) were turned over to the many newly-emerging professionals. As the 20th century progressed, volunteerism continued to wane in terms of the significance of its role in community life and the shaping of public policy (Romanofsky, 1973).

When President Nixon took office in 1969, he made a special plea to the voluntary sector to assist government agencies in meeting the increasing demands for social services at the same time that government deficits were spiraling. He established an office of Voluntary Action to assist the voluntary and private sector initiatives and held up volunteerism as an answer to many of the pressing domestic problems of the nation (Joselyn, 1976). As a result of the President's initiative, there came a subsequent effort to reshape volunteerism into the semblance of a profession in order to appeal to both men and women to continue in the volunteer tradition.

Within the past 15 years, a marked resurgence of volunteer efforts at all levels of government has tapped the participation of males, females, minorities and all social classes (Harman, 1973; Kurtz & Burrows, 1971; Lind, 1975; Mutual Benefit Life, 1983; Reisch & Wenocur, 1984; VOLUNTEER, 1982). Grass roots self-help organizations and citizen participation in the development of public policy have become a way of life.

The private (for-profit) corporate sector has also become involved in volunteer work (Bere, 1982). In 1985 over 600 major corporations sponsored structured activities to involve their workers in community service volunteering. Likewise, small, newly-emerging service businesses became heavily involved. Corporate volunteering in 1985 was estimated at 50 million hours of community service. The participation spanned virtually all industries. Employees are involved in health, education, and cultural activities. They work with neighborhood groups, hospitals, and recreation centers. They raise money, sit on governing boards, provide management assistance, and help provide direct human services. Over the past 10 years, corporations have become a primary source of volunteers for nonprofit

organizations. Some employees get release time from their jobs, while others serve on their own time. In many instances, employees are able to use their volunteer time to obtain cash grants for the organizations they serve (Vizza, Allen, & Keller, 1986).

As the United States moves from an industrial to a post-industrial era, the delivery of human services becomes a crucial aspect of life in communities (Ferguson, 1980; Naisbett, 1982; Schindler-Rainman, 1982; Yankelovich, 1981). Delivery of human services, however, cannot be done entirely by government agencies and private sector (for- profit) enterprises, nor by the voluntary sector alone (Langton, 1980). There is a need for the three sectors to work in effective partnerships to meet pressing human-service needs (Salamon, 1984; Warren & Warren, 1985). To accomplish this, managers in all three sectors need to know how to attract and retain talented, committed volunteers.

In order to maximize the potential of volunteer/salaried staff partnerships, more needs to be known about the administration of volunteer programs. Recognition of this need is reflected in the mounting effort to have people view the field of volunteer administration as a profession. In the fall of 1984, the Association for Volunteer Administration, a national organization, sanctioned a certification procedure for administrators of volunteer programs. Skillingstad (1981) contends that over the past fifteen years "a heretofore unknown professional field has emerged into a full-blown career opportunity with degree programs, various associations, and a growing body of literature" (p. 5). While there is a considerable body of prescriptive literature, Stubblefield and Miles (1985) report that there is little research describing the practitioners in volunteer administration. In

the following sections, research and theory are presented to provide a theoretical framework for the design of a study intended to describe salaried and volunteer practitioners at the national management-level of a voluntary association.

Theories of Human Behavior and Motivation

Organized effort (i.e., getting work done through and with others) requires motivating interdependent effort. Contemporary theories of organizational behavior place motivation at the core of management (Robbins, 1984). To understand the complex phenomenon of motivation, one should review the theories of behavior commonly used to explain motivation, particularly work motivation within an organizational setting.

There is no commonly accepted definition of motivation; however, the definition developed by Pinder (1984) will be used for the purposes of this study. Pinder has drawn on the work of some of the most prominent writers in the field of work motivation to arrive at the following definition as cited in Moore (1985):

> ...A set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being to initiate work related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration. (p. 4)

Several characteristics of this definition common to other frequently cited definitions are: 1) motivation, as energy, is goal "directed or purposive", 2) motivation is derived from complex sources, 3) motivation is a feedback process involving a chain of events and, 4) the motives which cause motivation cannot be seen, only inferred, and may or may not be consciously apparent to the individual who is motivated by them. Several basic theories of human motivation, widely accepted in the field of organizational

psychology, have been used to develop theories specific to volunteer motivation. This section will present a brief discussion of these theories.

Need theories. Some of the first theories of human behavior were based on the belief that humans behaved in response to primary drives necessary for physiological survival (Klein, 1982; McClelland, 1985). As the study of psychology progressed, researchers learned that people are attracted to many outcomes that do not relate to physical survival. These became known as needs. In other words, an outcome which has attraction potential for an individual can be expressed as a need. Murray (1938) and Maslow (1943, 1970) were pioneers in research and development of need theories. Their work was based on the assumption that identification of an individual's active needs and outcomes to satisfy the needs is indeed possible.

Within the field of organizational psychology, motivation is often viewed as "the willingness to do something and is conditioned by this action's ability to satisfy some need for the individual"...A need means "a physiological or psychological deficiency that makes certain outcomes appear attractive" (Robbins, 1984, p. 27). Motivated employees are viewed as being in a state of tension created by a need. To reduce this tension, they engage in an activity that has potential outcome for satisfying the need.

Maslow (1970) developed a hierarchy of needs based on their relative strengths. The hierarchy, in ascending order of importance, consists of five need categories: physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, and self-actualization. While there is much controversy about research findings relating to Maslow's theory (Alderfer, 1972), the literature in both volunteerism and organizational development is heavily influenced by it

(Knowles, 1972; Robbins, 1984; Vineyard, 1981; Wilson, 1976). This theory will be described in greater detail in a later section.

Three needs theory. David McClelland and others have proposed a needs theory that has borne the test of research (Atkinson & Raynor, 1978; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; McClelland, 1970, 1975, 1985). According to Robbins (1984), this theory and the following human-motivation theories represent the "state of the art" in explaining employee motivation. This theory is based on the premise that three major relevant motives or needs are present in work-place situations:

1. **The need for achievement** - the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.
2. **The need for power** - the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise.
3. **The need for affiliation** - the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

A full discussion of this theory will appear in a later section. It has importance for this study because it provides a theoretical basis for much of the literature, workshops and training seminars in the field of volunteerism.

Goal setting theory. A second major theory used to explain work motivation is goal setting theory (Robbins, 1984). It is based on the premise that an inner state of disequilibrium results in the setting of a goal, the achievement of which is expected to restore balance and psychic harmony (Moore, 1985). Locke (1969) is probably best known for research in this area. He proposed a comprehensive theory of motivation in which peoples' conscious goals are the primary determinants of their behavior.

Considerable research exists to support goal setting theory, and it has been employed successfully in many organizations. Research to date (Locke, et al, 1981; Robbins, 1984) indicates that goal setting is related to job performance in several ways:

1. within limits, the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance,
2. the more specific the goal, the more positive the effect on performance, and
3. goal acceptance is positively related to performance toward achievement of that goal.

The importance of goal acceptance in individual efforts has led to participative management practices in many organizations. Participation in goal setting increases the probability that more difficult goals will be agreed to and acted upon (Robbins, 1984). Moore (1985) believes goal setting theory has many possibilities for improving the performance of volunteers, particularly in settings where goals for volunteers have been vague or ill-defined or where volunteers are being asked to do especially challenging jobs.

Reinforcement theory. Reinforcement theory, in contrast to goal setting theory which focuses on thought processes internal to the individual, is concerned with how learning is shaped by the responses of others external to the individual (Robbins, 1984). As such, it cannot be considered strictly a theory of motivation. The behavioristic approach of reinforcement theory argues that reinforcement conditions behavior; inner state of the person is of little concern. What happens to people as they take action determines behavioral outcomes.

B. F. Skinner (1969), the most well-known proponent of reinforcement theory, saw reinforcement as a powerful means of analyzing and controlling behavior. Reinforcement theory is concerned with how rewards (positive and negative reinforcement) influence behavior. Any behavior rewarded with pleasant consequences (positive reinforcement) is likely to be repeated; on the contrary, behavior followed by unpleasant consequences (negative reinforcement) is less likely to be repeated. While this theory is overly simplistic in explaining the internal decision by an individual to act in a specific way, there is a large amount of supportive research that indicates people will exert higher levels of effort in tasks that are reinforced (Robbins, 1984).

Skinner (1969) believes it is important to structure the work environment to provide a reinforcing stimulus for work that is well done. For instance, in the volunteer setting, a word of praise or public recognition might perform this function. The volunteer will be more likely to continue volunteer work or take on an even more challenging job in response to the positive reinforcement. Again, research indicates that what people do on their jobs and the amount of effort that is allocated to various tasks are affected by the consequences that follow behavior. While the logic of reinforcement theory is simple to comprehend, application of the theory is far more complex. The timing and scheduling of rewards can be critical. A careful observation of any single individual indicates that the motivation to do a job cannot be explained by this theory alone. Strict application of the theory is open to the criticism that it can be used to justify unhealthy forms of manipulation of the behavior of others.

Expectancy theory. The theory that provides the most comprehensive explanation of motivation is expectancy theory, developed and researched by Vroom (1964) and Lawler (1973). The theory is based on the idea that motivation results from the expectation that an act will be followed by a certain outcome and the level of the motivation to perform the act will depend on how attractive the outcome is to the individual. The theory includes three variables:

1. **Attractiveness** - the importance that the individual places on the potential outcome or reward that can be achieved on the job. This considers the unsatisfied needs of the individual.

2. **Performance-reward linkage** - the degree to which the individual believes that performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.

3. **Effort-performance linkage** - the probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance (Robbins, 1984, p. 7).

These variables incorporate aspects of the three previous theories. Attractiveness of outcomes acknowledges the role of needs in motivation, as well as the concept that the individual feels the tension to work toward a goal. The second and third variables relate to the concepts of positive or negative reinforcement, depending on whether effort toward achievement results in desired outcomes accomplished by the hoped-for consequences.

Moore (1985) states the essence of expectancy theory very simply: . . ."motivation is the result of 1) the strength of belief (expectation) that a specific outcome or outcomes will follow a given behavior together with 2) the personal value (or valence) a person attaches to the outcome. Thus: **MOTIVATION = EXPECTANCY X VALENCE** (p. 7).

The version Moore offers is a greatly simplified explanation compared to that of Rotter (Klein, 1982) or Atkinson & Raynor (McClelland, 1985),

but it allows one to see the potential for understanding how beliefs, expectations, and values play important roles in determining whether volunteers will choose to participate in various activities and predicting the level and duration of involvement. The important task to be achieved by the person who supervises volunteer activities is to discover what outcomes of the volunteer experience are highly valued by individual volunteers.

Equity theory. This theory completes the "state of the art" work motivation theories listed by Robbins (1984). While it is mentioned rarely in the volunteer literature, equity theory is considered relevant in the work motivation literature of organizational psychology and may have some relevance for the volunteer setting. Equity theory is based on a belief that employees perceive what they get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what they put into it (inputs) and then compare this income-output ratio to "relevant" others around them. These "relevant" others become referents by which to judge the equity of their own situation. Research evidence indicates that the perception of inequities can influence the degree of effort that employees exert (Adams, 1983). It is important to note that outcomes include far more than just monetary rewards (i.e., such things as working conditions, interpersonal relations, etc.).

Equity theory provides a detailed explanation about how employees choose a referent(s) against which to compare themselves. What seems important from the standpoint of the volunteer worker are the five choices of action from which workers frequently choose. They can

1. distort their own or others' inputs or outcomes,
2. behave in some way as to induce others to change inputs or outcomes,

3. behave in some way so as to change their own inputs or outcomes,

4. choose a different comparison referent, or

5. quit their job.

The last choice may be the most logical for a volunteer worker. It has implications for the importance of salaried staff checking out the perceptions of volunteers about their work through ongoing program evaluation, whether done in a formal or informal way.

Specific Theories Associated with Volunteer Motivation

This section will provide a brief review of theories applied frequently to volunteer motivation. They are closely related and have theoretical roots in the theories already discussed; nonetheless, they are mentioned frequently enough in the volunteer literature to merit discussion here.

Utility theory. Utility theory reflects the thinking of theorists in the field of economics. It is based on the premise that persons allocate their resources in such a way as to receive maximum benefits for the personal costs involved, whether the costs are time, money, energy, or others (Leftwich, 1970). Thus, volunteers may spend time volunteering because that is where they get the most utility (satisfaction, recognition, or opportunity to learn, etc.) for that particular day.

Mueller (1975) points out that one does not necessarily have to do volunteer work to receive utility from the voluntary sector. A parent may benefit from the involvement of a child in a little league club but may not contribute volunteer hours. If the club is in danger of disbanding unless the parent assists in a volunteer job, such as coaching, transportation, etc., the

parent may then decide to volunteer. Another reason to volunteer may be to insure that the child receives special advantages by virtue of the parent's leadership role. If this benefit is important to the parent, the volunteer work may well be worth the time and energy. When the perceived costs exceed the perceived benefits, the volunteer will opt out of the job.

Altruism. In all national surveys on volunteerism, a primary reason given for volunteer involvement is the desire to help others. This desire is commonly referred to as altruism, "an unselfish behavior or sacrifice for others" (Schram, 1985, p. 14). Smith (1982), who has researched the area of altruistic motivation, believes that if this kind of absolute altruism exists at all, it is rare. Instead, altruism is but one of a complex mix of multiple reasons why people volunteer.

The altruism theory is a specific form of the more general "utility" theory. In this instance, the benefit is the satisfaction experienced when helping others. Smith defines altruistic behavior as the satisfaction which the volunteer gets by attempting to enhance another person's satisfaction; at the same time, the volunteer does not consciously expect the other person to reciprocate. Thus, a person volunteering for altruistic reasons would be motivated to participate in volunteer work where other people can be helped in some way (Moore, 1985, p. 14).

Human capital theory. The human capital theory is also a form of utility theory. It focuses on a return/cost relationship involving investments in human capital. Becker (1964) defines human capital investments as those "activities that influence future monetary and psychic income by increasing resources in people" (Becker, 1964, p. 1). These investments can improve skill, knowledge, mental health, or physical health; attributes that

later can be used to raise financial or psychic incomes. Schram and Dunsing (1981) have documented the many ways that volunteer work develops human capital.

Socialization. One theory gaining attention in the literature revolves around the role of socialization in motivating individuals to do volunteer work (Rohs, 1986). The research of Whiren and Schram (1983) indicates that parents who volunteer provide a model for their children. Whether this modeling has a positive influence on attitude is related to the interaction of a number of variables. A path analysis study carried out by Smith & Baldwin (1974) on data gathered from 50 in-depth interviews with adult volunteers demonstrated that a substantial proportion of the variance (from 10% to 25%) in an individual's formal voluntary organization participation can be accounted for by the joint impact of four types of indices: parental socio-economic status (SES), the volunteer's SES, parental formal voluntary organization attitudes, and parental formal voluntary organization behavior.

Socialization also takes place through association with peers in adult life. A study conducted by Adams (1983) of a typology of volunteer members of the American Red Cross provided evidence that volunteers in one category were socialized on the job to "move up" in the organization from lower-level jobs to elite volunteer positions. Research done by Rohs (1986) indicates that a variety of socialization factors correlate positively with longer periods of service for 4-H volunteer leaders.

Exchange theory. A final theory to be considered is one derived from economics and behavioristic psychology (Homans, 1974; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959). Like utility theory, the consideration of costs and benefits of

one's activities forms the basis of the theory; unlike utility theory in which resources are allocated so that benefits will equal costs, exchange theory proposes that activities will be chosen where rewards are greater than costs, resulting in a profit. This profit can be either monetary or non-monetary in nature. When using this theory as an explanation for volunteer motivation, researchers must remember that it is extremely important to discover the benefits valued by individual volunteers and the perceived personal costs of volunteering since benefits must outweigh costs.

A variation of this theory is found in the writings of Peter Blau (1964). Based on the work of Homans (1974), and popularized by Blau's volume entitled Exchange and Power in Social Life, the theory of social exchange has been used widely by sociologists to explain individual participation in voluntary associations. The following section presents this theory as a theoretical framework that encompasses major concepts of the theories found most frequently in the volunteer literature that are used as a guide to effective program design.

Research and Theory on Motivation to Perform Volunteer/Salaried Work

Three theories of motivation consistently appear in the trade literature of volunteer practitioners (Morrison, 1980; Vineyard, 1981; Wilson, 1981, 1976) and research dealing with volunteerism: 1) Maslow's needs hierarchy theory, 2) Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, and 3) McClelland's three needs theory. In the research on organizational psychology in the workplace, only the third theory with its research base of 40 years has withstood the rigors of empirical research. All three theories,

however, show promise of adding to the limited research base of the voluntary association.

There may be several reasons for the conflict in research findings. First, it is quite possible that the theories of Maslow and Herzberg are too limited to account for the complexity of variables that determine work motivation. When used in isolation as a theoretical base for empirical research, as they often are (Robbins, 1984), the variables may not explain enough of the variance in individual motivation. Coupled with McClelland's theory, the three theories may include enough of the relevant variables to explain more adequately the complexity of the work-motivation phenomenon. Although the first two theories have not stood the test of research, they continue to influence heavily the management training for work-related organizational settings (Robbins, 1984).

The second reason that these theories may be more appropriate for explaining volunteer motivation is that the volunteer work setting may represent a culture of its own which is very different from the organizational setting of the typical work environment, and more like the voluntary association. Social exchange theory provides a valuable theoretical framework for understanding the setting of the voluntary association.

Social exchange theory. Blau (1964) states that most human pleasures have their roots in social life so that gratifications experienced by individuals are contingent upon the actions of others. He defines social life as "the associations between people--their associating together in work and in play, in love and in war, to trade or to worship, to help or to hinder" (p. 12). These associations among individuals become organized into complex social structures and often are institutionalized to perpetuate the

organization beyond the life of the individuals. Associations allow individuals to express their interests and to realize their desires or goals.

Within the context of social exchange theory, structures of social relations have a significance aside from the common values around which they are organized. According to Blau (1964), exchange transactions and power relations, in particular, constitute social forces that must be investigated in their own right. The basic principles underlying the conception of exchange can be summarized as follows:

> An individual who supplies rewarding services to another obligates him. To discharge this obligation, the second must furnish benefits to the first in turn. Concern here is with extrinsic benefits, not primarily with the rewards intrinsic to the association itself, although the significance of the social "commodities" exchanged is never perfectly independent of the interpersonal relation between the exchange partners. If both individuals value what they receive from the other, both are prone to supply more of their own services to provide incentives for the other to increase his supply to avoid becoming indebted to him (Blau, 1964, p. 89-90).

The need to reciprocate for benefits received results in a social exchange which serves as a "starting mechanism" of social interaction and group structure. Social exchange differs in important ways from strictly economic exchange. The most crucial distinction is that social exchange entails unspecified obligations. For this reason, social exchange depends upon and promotes trust. While Blau states that the primary focus in the exchange is on extrinsic rewards, he acknowledges that these rewards may also be intrinsic in nature, making it even more difficult to know when each individual feels a fair profit has accrued from the exchange process. Within the context of Blau's theory, social exchange is defined as "actions that are contingent on rewarding actions from others and that cease when these

expected reactions are not forthcoming" (Blau, 1964, p. 6). In Figure 1, Blau, using the following schema, delineates six general categories of rewards that are responses to two categories of actions (Blau, 1964, p. 100):

Actions	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	Unilateral
Spontaneous Evaluations	Personal attraction	Social approval*	Respect-prestige~
Calculated Actions	Social acceptance*	Instrumental services*	Compliance-power~

Figure 1: Categories of Social Exchange Rewards

*Entails investment costs for suppliers in addition to those needed to establish the social association.
~Entails the direct cost of subordination for suppliers.

The rewards an individual obtains from a social association cost him time (and other limited resources) that could be spent on another association. If the benefits do not exceed the costs, an individual will ultimately leave the association.

Until recently, there has been a tacit assumption that the findings in organizational research from one type of organization are equally applicable to other types. Within the past 10 years, research studies have taken place dealing with differences in factors that lead to job satisfaction of paid employees versus volunteer workers. Several studies (Gatewood & Lahiff, 1977; Gidron, 1977) indicate that there are significant differences between managers in voluntary and for-profit organizations that relate to organizational characteristics. The two different types of managers use different organizational strategies to get work done, and different kinds of job factors are important for motivating salaried workers versus volunteers.

The research suggests that certain categories of social exchange, which Blau identifies, have more importance for volunteers than for salaried staff workers. The research of Pearce (1983b; 1982; 1978), Briggs (1982) and Gidron (1983) provides evidence that the factors identified by McClelland and Herzberg as motivators are important to volunteers, and certain factors are more important to volunteers than to paid staff workers.

The findings of these studies demonstrate that volunteers report both content-factors (those related to the actual work performed) and context-factors (those related to the organizational climate) as being important to job satisfaction. Among the content-factors are 1) the work relationship with the client, organization members, or recipient of volunteer services; 2) doing worthwhile work; 3) use of the volunteers' abilities and skills; 4) helping and teaching; 5) opportunities for personal growth; and, 6) recognition. Principal context factors are personal relationships with other volunteers and salaried staff, and supervision, supportiveness, and help from professional staff.

Several themes related to the job satisfaction of volunteers pervade the research cited above: 1) volunteers are experiencing the satisfaction of meeting a great variety of needs; 2) volunteers are eager to succeed in the achievement of a variety of tasks; and 3) volunteers are seeking a variety of benefits and forms of recognition in the volunteer experience. These themes can be translated into the concepts of needs satisfaction, goal-driven behavior, and the probability of reinforcement through desired consequences. If a collective view is taken of the theories of motivation discussed in this chapter, all three concepts are represented. Social exchange theory, which provides the most relevance for voluntary associations, uses

all three concepts to explain individual behavior in organizational associations.

A reasonable argument can be made that the three theories (Maslow, Herzberg, & McClelland) most commonly found in the volunteer literature that inform managers about program development and management address various kinds of social exchange important to volunteers. If this is true, research questions based on the major concepts of the theories should offer an appropriate framework for designing interview questions to elicit the kinds of social exchange that attract and hold volunteers in their jobs. The following subsections will discuss these three theories and the logical secondary research questions that flow from them.

Herzberg's motivation hygiene theory. Herzberg (Robbins, 1984) investigated the question, "What do people want from their job?" He used the critical incident method to learn those factors which led to employees feeling exceptionally good or bad about their jobs. The responses were tabulated and placed into 16 categories which were then divided into two groups: 1) those that led to job satisfaction, which he labeled motivators; and, 2) those that led to dissatisfaction, which he labeled hygiene factors. Herzberg contends that managers must attend to the motivators so that employees will feel satisfaction, and they must attend to hygiene factors to eliminate dissatisfaction. He believed it was important to attend to both sets of factors because his research indicated that removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. Any single category tended to be either a motivator or a hygiene factor for most people interviewed. He found, however, that a category which generally functioned as a motivator for most individuals was a hygiene factor for

others. Those categories that generally functioned as a hygiene factor for most individuals were occasionally motivating factors for others. In Briggs' study (1982), certain factors identified as hygiene factors for salaried staff were identified as motivators for volunteers. Figure 2 illustrates the relative importance of certain factors as motivator or hygiene factors for salaried workers.

Herzberg's research in the late 50's prepared the way for an increased emphasis on "job-enrichment" in organizations. The concept of job enrichment has potential for motivating volunteers to do their jobs. Both Herzberg (1974) and Miller (1984) discuss the problems of enriching certain jobs in a "high tech" society. In Miller's study of active volunteers from three social service agencies, she found a significant relationship between the motivation to volunteer and a perceived deficiency of an individual's salaried job to provide for "growth need satisfaction." She suggests careful matching of volunteers to jobs that fill this need as an alternative to enriching jobs in the salaried work domain. Similar results were obtained by Anthony et al (1985) who reported that the top-ranked job satisfaction factor in a study of 1,346 American Red Cross volunteers was "pride in being a Red Cross worker." This indicates that status (one of Herzberg's hygiene factors) is an important motivator in the volunteer experience.

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy. Maslow hypothesized that there are five categories that characterize basic human needs. These are

1. **Physiological**--includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs.
2. **Safety**--includes security and protection from physical and emotional harm.

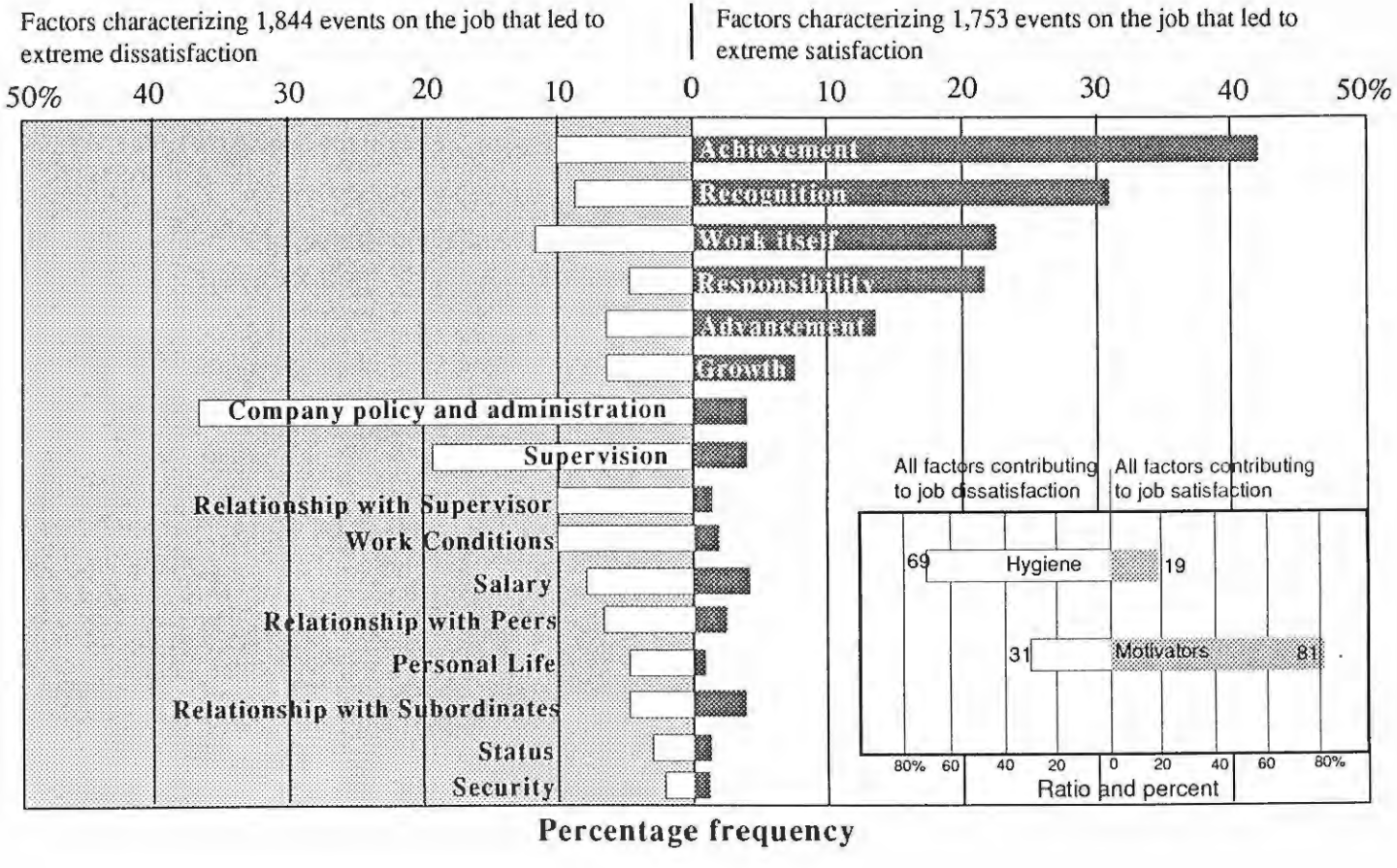

Figure 2: Comparison of Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers

Source: Frederick Herzberg. "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Your Employees?" Havard Business Review. January-February 1968, p. 57. With Permission.

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3. **Social**--includes affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship.

4. **Esteem**--includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention.

5. **Self-actualization**--the drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment (Robbins, 1984, p. 28).

Maslow sees these needs as being sequential in nature, beginning with the physiological needs. The first two needs are identified as lower-order needs and the last three as higher-order needs. The lower-order needs, viewed as most pressing, are seen as predominantly satisfied externally, while higher-order needs are satisfied internally. Therefore, in times of economic plenty, the salaried workers and many volunteers would not be concerned with lower-order needs. Briggs (1982), who compared the results of a national survey of 23,000 paid employees with a group of 73 school volunteers on the importance of job-related factors, found that the top five factors for paid workers fell into Maslow's categories of self-esteem and self-actualization. Several of the top five volunteer factors fell into these categories also, but the list of factors included two which fitted better the category of social needs. Knowles (1972) has presented a convincing analysis that indicates most voluntary associations appeal primarily to safety, social, and esteem needs. He believes that if volunteer jobs are designed to meet self-actualization needs, there will be an abundance of good volunteers who will seize the volunteer job as an opportunity for continuing education. This theory proposes that the focus of volunteerism would shift from serving society as an end in itself to serving society as a means for nurturing self-actualizing human beings.

The recently instituted plan of the American Red Cross (Patton, 1982) lends evidence to his theory. Feeling a need for more management-level workers, they decided to institute a plan for volunteers to work along with salaried staff in carrying out the organization's work. The volunteers were trained, included in planning and decision making, and provided with an adequate travel budget. After a one-year trial period, the plan was judged successful. Patton's evaluation of the trial period indicated it was successful largely "because of the Red Cross emphasis on team work and peer relationship building between salaried and volunteer staffs" (p. 16). These volunteers have been willing to work each week without pay for long hours. One volunteer commented in an interview with Patton that she would not give up this opportunity for learning and personal development for a paying job. Moore (1985), reporting on seven other studies on the motivation of volunteers, suggests that the volunteers perform their work roles in order to obtain intrinsic job satisfaction associated with "higher-order" needs for self-esteem and self-actualization.

McClelland's three needs theory. McClelland's theory, already briefly discussed, is premised on the belief that much of the behavior of individuals is determined by three broad categories of needs. He has identified a number of behavioral characteristics of a person with needs in each of these categories (McClelland, 1970; Vineyard, 1981):

Positive Achievement Needs

1. Wants to attain goals.
2. Wants latitude in pace and methods.
3. Demands challenge, responsibility, recognition.

4. Understands people must be enabled to attain goals.

5. Thinks in terms of things, numbers, etc.

(Negative person will sacrifice people to attain goals-- insensitive to people's needs; autocratic).

Positive Power Needs

1. Likes to impact/influence others.

2. Concern for reputation, name attached to work.

3. Offers advice.

4. Often verbally affluent.

5. Balances people/programs to achieve goals.

6. Enables others to achieve group goals (empowers others).

(Negative person wants personal power; intimidates others; will sacrifice people or programs to "have way" and retain power; dictatorial; ego centered.)

Positive Affiliation Needs

1. Needs relationships.

2. Wants to work with many people.

3. Likes socialization.

4. Very sensitive to needs of others.

5. Understands people must have their success enabled to be content.

(Negative person will sacrifice goals to keep people happy; country club attitude; obsessed with personal popularity.)

McClelland contends that most individuals are motivated by a mixture of these three broad categories of needs, but frequently one category predominates. While this theory has been the basis for training materials and workshops on volunteerism, most research using this theory

has been done in organizational settings in which individuals work for pay; however, most of the research that has been done to date on volunteers has been survey research, and it has incorporated questions that identify both affiliation and achievement needs of volunteers as well as other factors, but not power needs.

An example of this kind of research is that done by Pearce (1983b) and Francies (1983). The work of both researchers supports McClelland's theory although the studies were not designed to expressly test his theory. Francies constructed a volunteer needs profile for which a moderately high level of validity and reliability have been established. The profile identifies needs for achievement and affiliation, as well as several other categories of needs that can be fulfilled through jobs designed for individual volunteers. The instrument was administered to an experimental group of 60 volunteers and then used to match them to appropriate jobs based on the results of the needs profile, as well as an interview. The researcher then determined volunteer job satisfaction for both the control group (assigned to jobs through interviews without the benefit of profile results) and the experimental group. Statistically significant results, obtained for all three hypotheses being tested, follow:

1. Using the profile significantly improved the likelihood of obtaining a suitable assignment as compared to the interview method alone.

2. The degree of match significantly affected the volunteers' satisfaction in a positive direction.

3. The degree of match significantly influenced the likelihood of a volunteer remaining at the task for at least 10 weeks.

This study has promising implications for McClelland's theory, but it does not attempt to assess positive power needs. A review of the literature revealed no survey research or research based on an in-depth interview design (with one possible exception described below) that has attempted to assess this category of need. Yet, social exchange theory indicates that power relationships play a very important role in social associations.

Pearce (1983a), in a test of Etzioni's (1975) compliance typology, conducted research with 101 respondents from 14 service organizations. Seven voluntary organizations were matched with seven organizations that have salaried workers doing the same or similar management tasks. The researcher used both interviews and questionnaire items to measure the influence of organizational leaders with members in the organization. The leaders of the voluntary organizations were found to have significantly more influence with members of the organization than salaried managers. These leaders indicated they were willing to do these volunteer jobs because of the satisfaction they derived from the opportunity to exercise influence within their organization and the relative freedom and independence they experienced, compared to a leadership role in a salaried position. These findings tend to support McClelland's theory of positive power needs being met for some individuals within the context of a voluntary association.

Since it is very difficult to make a direct assessment of one's desire to fulfill power needs, an indirect approach, such as that possible through methods of naturalistic inquiry, may be a more suitable way to study this factor as a motivating force in organizational participation. The proposed research in Chapter III is designed with this intent.

Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Productivity

The conceptual linkages suggested by the literature between motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity are important to an understanding of the conceptual framework of this study. The theory and research which has been presented in this chapter suggestes that human motivation to do work is complex in several ways: 1) it derives from energy that is goal-directed or purposive, 2) it is a feedback process involving a chain of events related to the individual value placed on certain outcomes and the probability of achieving them and 3) the motives that cause an individual to engage in work-related behavior cannot be seen, only inferred. All the theories of motivation presented share a common origin in action theory which provides a framework for explaining human interaction within the structure of social systems (Parsons, 1951). Action theory is based on the premise that all human action carried out in relationship to another person or collectivity is directed toward the goal of "gratification of the actor's needs or avoidance of depriviation." It follows that expression of satisfaction with various aspects of work-related behavior function as indicators of the factors which are motivating an individual to engage in that behavior.

Knowledge of the factors that create satisfaction for individuals as they engage in work-related behavior is important to organizational leaders and/or administrators of voluntary associations for two reasons. First, organizations that depend heavily on volunteers for all facets of program development and delivery, such as the organization in this study, cannot continue to function if they cannot attract and retain volunteers for a variety of job roles. Second, increasing the job satisfaction of the staff,

volunteer and salaried, is likely to affect the achievement of organizational goals due to the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity in performance of a job.

There are three major theoretical positions taken in the literature (Petty and McGee, 1984):

1. Satisfaction causes performance
2. Performance causes satisfaction
3. The satisfaction-performance relationship is moderated by a number of other variables such as organizational climate and leadership style within the organization.

A recent meta-analysis by Petty and McGee (1984) of 15 prominent quantitatively oriented studies related to this subject indicates that job satisfaction and job performance are positively related with a correlation coefficient of $r=.23$. While a correlation of .23 is typically considred a moderate correlation in social science research, there is an extensive research tradition over the past 40 years that emphasizes the importance of the positive relationship between individual job satisfaction and organizational productivity and effectiveness.

Most prominent among the programs of research have been those carried out by researchers at Harvard University (Atkinson & Raynor, 1978; Kanter, 1983; Litwin and Stringer, 1968; McClelland, 1985) and the recent research of Peters and Waterman (1982). The studies of these researchers represent the cumulation of extensive research projects utilizing experimental designs and quantitative methods for data collection and analysis as well as in-depth naturalistic inquiries utilizing qualitative methodologies.

The cumulative research indicates that individual job satisfaction is positively related to organizational innovation and productivity as long as that satisfaction stems from work-related activities. For instance, individual satisfaction with feedback on excellent achievement increases organizational productivity. The absence of such feedback frequently creates a negative effect on organizational productivity. High satisfaction with affiliation in the job setting has been shown to have a slight negative effect on productivity if it is not the outgrowth of work-related activities. On the other hand, satisfaction with affiliation that is related to openess to others in mutually dependent work-related activities has been shown to have a positive effect on organizational productivity. Satisfaction with a sense of power to influence organizational outcomes on the part of many workers has been shown to be positively related to organizational productivity. In organizations where power to influence and direct organizational outcomes resides almost solely at the top administrative levels, there appears to be a negative relationship between power and productivity. These observations made by the early pioneers in research on the relationship of worker motivation, leadership style, organizational climate and productivity (Litwin and Stringer, 1968; McClelland, 1970) are being validated in recent studies by Peters and Waterman (1982) and by Kanter (1983).

Peters and Waterman's study (1982) of what they identified as 62 of America's "best run companies" in terms of productivity and innovation revealed a major theme of "productivity through people." The authors explain the meaning of this phrase through a number of related themes and then summarize the concept this way: excellent companies demonstrate "a deeply ingrained philosophy that says in effect, `respect the individual,'

`make people winners', `let them stand out', `treat them as adults'"(p 277). In other words, company leaders reward workers by attending to their human needs so that the workers in turn reward the company with productive, innovative work-related behavior.

Kanter's study (1983) of what she identified as the ten most "progressive" as well as financially productive companies of "these times" led to the conclusion that innovation is the key to their success. Kanter states that it is the individual people within the company that determine the presence and degree of innovation, but

> . . . they need the tools and the opportunity to use them. They need to work in settings where they are valued and supported, their intelligence given a chance to blossom. They need to have the power to be able to take the initiative to innovate. (Kanter, 1982, p. 370).

This study does not attempt to assess the productivity of the volunteer/salaried staff management teams that constitute the unit of analysis. However, the relationship between individual job satisfaction and the ultimate goal of organizational effectiveness indicates the importance of understanding the factors that create maximum job satisfacton for the individual in the performance of jobs critical to the desired organizational outcomes.

The next section restates the primary questions and presents secondary research questions based on the theories of McClelland, Maslow and Herzberg as well as several other areas of interest.

SMD without conferring with the VMD. Once decisions were made about how to assist staff in the field, Martin and Marshall often went in opposite directions, each doing what he had agreed upon. They felt that they had made great progress in addressing problems of the region. Marshall worked jointly with Martin to plan, organize, and participate in regional meetings. They concurred that it was not accurate to say Marshall's responsibility was primary in this task, as the job description stated. Martin indicated that there was frequent communication in the partnership. He said:

> We meet often, sometimes just because he and I agree we need to meet, often times in conjunction with other scheduled meetings where we take a deep breath and often provide background for one another, and we do a lot of discussion by telephone . . . at least once a week.

Again, these partners, like the other teams at Site 2, felt comfortable with delegation of responsibility to others. As Martin explained:

> We do a lot of independent work . . . and we do a lot of joint work where we agree the highest probability of success would be represented by both of us going and working a given situation. So it varied a great deal. It has been mostly situational, as opposed to a general study . . . [We'd say] there's the circumstance, here's how it reads, what do you think? And, in a lot of cases, neither of us gets involved. We come to agree on who might be best, and what a strategy would be, and we'll have another volunteer or salaried staff person do that work on our behalf.

Marshall talked about the team relationship with Martin and why he thought it was a good one.

> We do a lot of problem solving. I think that probably describes what Martin and I do as a team better perhaps than anything. Just recently, we were able to achieve success in the area of a large local service delivery unit in Texas that has been having tremendous problems with fund-raising because of the high Hispanic population and low income. We were able to come up with a formula where we could send a manager from another area to help out. . . . After several visits, a consolidation plan among several of the smaller units and this larger one was worked out. . . . When we started the field service in the

Primary and Secondary Research Questions

Based on the literature review, a list of secondary research questions were formulated from the primary questions asked in this study. They are as follows:

Primary Question:

1. Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to volunteers, in the performance of a management-level job?

   Secondary Questions:

   a) Is it possible that salaried staff and volunteers can, in fact, perform the same job tasks working as a team?

   b) What are the social exchange factors that motivate volunteer staff to perform their job?

   c) How are these social exchange factors related to McClelland's categories of needs?

   d) How are these factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

   e) What are the social exchange factors that motivate salaried staff to perform their job?

   f) How are these factors related to McClelland's categories of needs?

   g) How are these factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

   h) What are the socialization factors, if any, that are related to the volunteer or salaried staff's performance of the job?

Primary Question:

2. Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a job related to certain aspects of job content and job context that are affected by the planning and supervision carried out by salaried staff?

   Secondary Questions:

   a) Which of Herzberg's hygiene and motivator factors are related to the performance of the volunteer job and in what way are they related?

b) What other job content and job context factors are related to the volunteer's satisfaction that are not suggested by the literature?

Primary Question:

3. What are the practical implications suggested by the findings of this study for the supervision and management of volunteers who perform management-level jobs?

Secondary Questions:

a) What do the findings suggest that salaried staff can do to insure that both job content and context will be motivating to the volunteer in performing a management job?

b) What do the findings suggest about the kind of resources, training, and support that salaried staff need in order to work effectively with volunteers as a management team?

Summary

Volunteerism and voluntary action have been an important mode for the organization and delivery of human services throughout American history. In spite of the fact that the significance of volunteer roles was greatly diminished in the first half of the 20th century, Americans have witnessed an impressive resurgence of highly significant volunteer roles at the local, state and national levels. These roles involve volunteers and salaried staff working together to accomplish service delivery and the development of public policy. Discovery of some of the critical factors involved in these volunteer/salaried staff partnerships that have been judged to be successful is the focus of this study.

The literature review includes a brief discussion of the relationship between motivation, job satisfaction and organizational productivity. While it was not the purpose of this study to deal with organizational productivity, it is important to understand that a knowledge of the factors that motivate

volunteers to fill job roles and create varying degrees of job satisfaction may ultimately be linked to organizational productivity in important ways.

To provide a theoretical framework for the study, theories of motivation used to explain the willingness of both volunteer and salaried staff to perform jobs have been reviewed. Social exchange, the theory most frequently used to explain participation in voluntary associations has been discussed to provide a rationale for analyzing the factors that attract and hold volunteers in management-level jobs. Three theories that are frequently used in the literature to inform the design of training and management for volunteer programs and fit well under the rubric of social exchange theory were used to guide development of the secondary research questions.

Chapter III
METHODOLOGY

Previous research on the motivation of individuals to perform volunteer work has been largely quantitative using experimental and/or correlational studies based on survey methodology. These approaches to research study the relationship of variables selected a priori from theory. The present research did not select variables a priori, and used extant theories only as a tool in the data analysis. The analysis goes beyond present theory to identify and examine variables not suggested by the literature.

This study utilized the qualitative research approach of naturalistic inquiry, and specifically the methodology of the case study which allows for in-depth investigations of the attitudes, beliefs, experiences, and perceived needs of individuals involved in a particular phenomenon. The following sections discuss the case study method, the selection of the sample, and the method used for data collection and analysis, along with issues of reliability and validity inherent in the case study method.

Case Study Method

A case study is an intensive description and analysis of a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, group, institution or community. The concern is with investigating as many variables as possible in a single unit of analysis. The researcher seeks to uncover the interplay of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon or entity ("the case"). "The content of a case study is determined chiefly by its purpose, which typically

is to reveal the properties of the class to which the instance being studied belongs" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 371). The class in this instance is volunteer/salaried staff partnerships. The findings and analysis of data are described through an informal writing style that uses verbatim quotations, illustrations, and even illusions and metaphor (Stake, 1978).

Helmstadter (1970, pp. 50-51) lists four "distinctive features" of the case study, three of which have particular relevance for this study:

1. the case study approach can be used as a research methodology to contribute to knowledge;

2. "the traditional case study leads not to well-established conclusions, but rather to what might better be described as empirically developed hypotheses" (p. 50); and

3. the investigator has a lot of freedom to decide what data to gather and the means by which the information will be collected and analyzed. This allows for a detailed contextual based analysis which is more likely to represent the complexity of human interaction than other methodologies.

Selection of the Population

For qualitative research, Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Denzin (1978) recommend theoretical sampling. This form of sampling involves the purposeful selection of those people who offer the most theoretical relevance to the situation and concepts under study. When comparison groups are used, theoretical sampling also serves the purpose of providing

> simultaneous maximization or minimization of both the differences and the similarities of data that bear on the categories being studied. This control over similarities and differences is vital for discovering categories, and for developing and relating their theoretical properties, all necessary for the development of an emergent theory. (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 55).

For this study, the aim was to identify a sample of volunteers who were carrying out management-level jobs very similar to those performed by

salaried staff, preferably in several different organizational or sub-organizational settings. This would make it possible to compare differences and similarities in sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction relating to job content and context for both volunteers and salaried staff in more than one setting or organizational climate. In addition, the aim was to locate a sample of volunteers who were doing the kind of significant work sorely needed by the non-profit/ voluntary associations.

To locate a sample that provided the most theoretical relevance to the concepts under study, the volunteer programs of 35 state affiliates of national organizations were examined. These organizations included voluntary associations such as American Heart Association, Girl Scouts of America, and United Way of America, organizations which are known for their heavy dependence on volunteers for program delivery and for their training and development programs for volunteers.

One organization was found that provided an ideal sample. It was the only organization that had built job positions into its formal structure for management-level volunteers to work as peers in management-team partnerships with a salaried manager. The nature of the study was explained and permission was granted from the president of this nonprofit corporation to conduct the study using the **entire population** of salaried/volunteer staff management team partnerships in charge of the national management regions. Since complete anonymity of the organization and all persons involved in the study was promised, the organization will be referred to as the National Organization for the Administration of Human Services (NOAH). Any similarity of this name or acronym to any actual organization is purely coincidental.

NOAH delivers many important human services to communities throughout the United States, and internationally, as well as offers a great variety of educational programs. In the fiscal year 1985-86, NOAH had an annual operating budget of $872 million that supported the work of 1,415,249 volunteers and 22,104 salaried employees (NOAH, 1986).

For the purposes of management oversite of service delivery, the organization has been divided into ten service regions covering the United States and its territories. Management oversite for each of these regions is carried out by a management team of one salaried managing director (SMD) and one volunteer managing director (VMD). The formal job description for each of these staff persons is identical, with the exception that the job description for the SMD says this person has responsibility for the job duties and the VMD assists in carrying out the duties, with the VMD having primary responsibility for item 2(d) in the VMD job description. (See Appendix A for a comparison of the two job descriptions.)

For the purpose of this study these ten volunteer/salaried staff management team partnerships were defined as successful because the job role provided enough satisfaction for the volunteers to attract and retain them in this job for an average time commitment of no less than 15 hours per week for a three-year term of service. No other organization surveyed could document a commitment of this level of skills and time by a management volunteer.

Even the United Way of America, which was the organization most likely to rival NOAH's level of volunteer involvement, had no volunteer job description calling for the level of commitment involved in the VMD job role. This was confirmed in an interview with the person who served at that time

as the National Director of Training and Vice-president for Personnel, Don Plambeck. With only one exception, the VMDs themselves agreed that no other volunteer job position in NOAH had been so demanding.

Appendix I contains the competency profile along with competency definitions that were developed for the VMD position through an intensive needs-assessment process carried out by the Research Division of NOAH's National Department for Human Resources. Notes have been included at the end of this chapter from official NOAH documents that stress the importance of this volunteer position to the organization and the rationale for the three-year non-renewable term.

Each of the regional volunteer/salaried staff management teams has the following major oversite responsibilities: 1) monitor the corporate standards of performance for service delivery by the local community-based service delivery units within the region, 2) provide consultation for those units not functioning at least up to the minimal level of performance set by the national corporation, 3) link local units with the necessary technical and human resources to bring performance up to the required minimum standards, and 4) provide recognition to those local units performing at or above the minimum level of standards for performance.

To facilitate management operations, the ten regions have been organized under three area management headquarters which are administered by a vice-president for operations oversite and a volunteer counterpart. These three area management headquarters will be referred to as Sites 1, 2, and 3 throughout the study. Site 1 has four of the volunteer/salaried staff management teams, one for each of the four regions served by this area management headquarters; Site 2 has three of the

management teams, one for each of the three regions served by Site 2 management area headquarters; and Site 3 also has three management teams. While the permanent office of the SMDs is at management headquarters, the VMDs reside in their local community in the region which they represent, and travel to the management area headquarters site as necessary.

In this study, the case consisted of a salaried managing director and a volunteer managing director who operate as a management team. There are ten such cases or teams. In addition, VMDs and SMDs were compared as two distinct groups and the management teams in the three different area management headquarters sites were compared.

Data Collection

The general research approach used in this study is naturalistic inquiry which employs qualitative methods aimed at understanding "naturally occurring phenomena in their naturally occurring states" (Patton, 1980, p. 41). While the comprehensive strategy of qualitative methods is derived from a variety of philosophical and methodological traditions (Patton, 1980), the methods are derived most directly from the ethnographic and field study traditions in anthropology (Pelto and Pelto, 1978) and sociology (Bruyn, 1966).

It is from the ethnographic tradition that the methods for data collection and analysis have been chosen. These methods have been selected because they offer maximum potential for minimizing some of the threats to validity and reliability inherent in the case study approach. Ethnographer James Spradley (1979, 1980) is the only researcher who has described in

detail some structured strategies for data collection and analysis anchored in hands-on work with actual data (Miles & Huberman, 1984). His methods allow other researchers to examine easily the data and the way in which conclusions have been drawn during analysis of the data. Primarily Spradley's methods have been used for data collection and analysis in the present study.

Four of the common strategies of ethnographic inquiry have been used: 1) life history interviews, which attempt to record what people recall about their experiences, attitudes and beliefs; 2) journals, which record the researcher's personal accounts; 3) participant observation in which the investigator serves as participant in and observer of a social situation and records what actually happens; and 4) document analysis, which attempts to determine "official" stances (Denzin, 1978; Spradley, 1979, 1980). The first two strategies were used to collect most of the data, with the "life history interview" providing the major portion. The last two strategies were used in minor ways.

According to Denzin (1978), life histories are essentially case studies which present "the experiences and definitions held by one person, one group, or one organization as this person, group, or organization interprets these experiences" (p. 215). The strategy is premised on the basic underlying assumption that individuals have their own unique subjective inner life. The purpose of the life history is to get a record of this inner life from the person's point of view.

In this study, the life history describes a "slice of life" that provides a useful and appropriate means of gathering a body of focused information about an individual's decision to take a job and stay with it, whether it is

salaried or volunteer, and the factors which lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the job. The interviews provide rich, contextual information that allows individuals to present their experiences, beliefs, and reasoning in ways that are meaningful to them. Such information would be difficult to gather through a survey instrument or questionnaire.

First data collection cycle. This cycle consisted of in-person interviews with the informants (VMDs, SMDs, and vice-presidents of the area management headquarters) at four different sites in the United States. The majority of interviews took place at the three area management headquarters; however, since all the VMDs could not conveniently travel to these sites during the month that interviews were scheduled, seven interviews were conducted at the National Convention of NOAH which was held during that same month.

A set of broad, open-ended interview questions was designed to gather information from the VMDs and SMDs about the content and context of their jobs that led to satisfactions or dissatisfactions, if any. In case these questions did not elicit the desired information, additional questions were used as probes. They were based on factors suggested by the literature review that related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction for both salaried and volunteer staff. (See Appendix B for the interview questions.) In other words, each question was carefully designed to gather information for answering the research questions; yet the questions were asked in such a way as to encourage the informant to provide relevant information that would not be limited to categories suggested by prevailing theory.

The first set included descriptive questions designed to elicit from the informants specific kinds of information about their volunteer/salaried job at

NOAH. Structural and contrast questions were formulated as the interview proceeded to discover the tacit meanings associated with information provided by the informants.

Descriptive questions are those aimed at eliciting a large sample of information in the informant's "natural" language. They are worded and asked in such a way as to encourage an informant to talk about and describe a particular cultural scene from his point of view (Spradley, 1979). Following is an example from one of the interviews of what Spradley calls an ethnographic explanation leading into a descriptive question:

> Let me just explain briefly, Gregg. What I will do is ask you several very broad, general questions, and I want you just to answer them in all the detail that you are willing to provide. First, I would like for you to describe your job as a managing director during your partnership with William.

Categories of information referred to as domains began to emerge from responses to these descriptive questions. These domains of information led naturally then to structural questions.

Structural questions are designed to provide alternate ways to verify the existence of a domain and to elicit additional information that belongs in that domain. Each separate piece of information is referred to as a data bit. Following is an example (from the same interview) of a structural question:

> Gregg, you have described a number of management oversite responsibilities that you perform in this managing director's job. Are there any other job tasks, or responsibilities that call for your attention in this job?

Once a considerable amount of this kind of specific information that fitted one or more domains had been elicited, contrast questions were asked.

Contrast questions are of great importance because they are designed to elicit information about differences or similarities in data bits within a domain or between two or more domains. They become powerful tools for discovering tacit relationships among and within the categories or domains of information that have been gathered. The discovery of tacit knowledge, that knowledge which is outside awareness, represents the essence of naturalistic inquiry. From tacit knowledge, important cultural patterns emerge that explain human interactions. An example follows (from the same interview) of a contrast question:

> Gregg, you have described in detail the tasks and responsibilities of your job. What are the similarities or differences, if any, between your job and that of the volunteer managing director?

In addition to gathering data in these in-depth interviews, which ranged from two to three hours in length, a journal was kept and entries were made immediately following each interview. Observations were recorded with regards to fine nuances of the informants' behavior. Also recorded were impressions of the interviewer that could not be captured in the taped or transcribed words of the informant. In addition, observations at social functions in which the interviewer became a participant at each of the interviewing sites were recorded in the journal. These were helpful for gaining insights into additional perceptions of the informants that were not apparent during interviews.

Once interviews were completed with management teams at each area headquarters management site, an interview was conducted with the vice-president of the area management headquarters. This individual is responsible for overseeing work of the management teams. The interview

was conducted for the purpose of triangulation of data. This process consisted of checking the data gathered in the VMD and SMD interviews against a third source to show that an independent source of data agreed or at least did not contradict that which was gathered through the other two sources, a procedure recommended by a number of researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Patton, 1980).

Second data collection cycle. Once the first round of data had been completely analyzed, telephone interviews were conducted with all informants. The purpose of this second interview was to elicit information needed to confirm patterns and cultural themes that emerged from analysis of the first cycle of data. Any information that appeared to bear on one of these themes, yet had not emerged in the first round of interviews across all cases and/or sites, was sought in the second round of interviews. Again, the questions asked were primarily open-ended and indirect so as not to lead the response of the informant. (See Appendix B for these questions.) Finally, document analysis was used in a limited way to confirm information about the official stance relating to volunteer/salaried staff partnerships, certain information about the area management headquarters, and about NOAH as a corporate organization.

Data Analysis

Once the first round of interviews was completed and transcribed, a system of analytic induction, referred to by Spradley (1979) as domain analysis, was used to scrutinize the data for categories of information relevant to the concepts being studied. Domain analysis requires the researcher to examine all data, assign the data to categories of meaning,

determine patterns common to the cases under study, and determine why some cases do not follow the patterns. Spradley's systematic procedure begins with a search for categories of meaning, or domains, embedded in what people say. Each domain consists of three basic elements: cover terms, names for the domains; included terms, the items or data bit from the interview which fit inside the domain; and, semantic relationships which link the cover term and the included terms.

Spradley contends that most meaning can be stated in one or more of the following nine semantic relationships. In the following list of these relationships, "X" represents the included term (data bit), and "Y" represents the cover term (domain of meaning):

1) Strict inclusion: X is a kind of Y.
2) Spatial: X is a place in Y; X is a part of Y
3) Cause-effect: X is a result of Y. X is a cause of Y.
4) Rationale: X is a reason for doing Y.
5) Location-for-action: X is a place for doing Y.
6) Function: X is used for Y.
7) Means-end: X is a way to do Y.
8) Sequence: X is a step/stage in Y.
9) Attribution: X is an attribution or characteristic of Y (Spradley, 1980, p. 93).

Coding of data. The transcribed interviews were submitted to domain analysis through two procedures. First, each descriptive interview question was converted into a domain. For example, the interview question, "What aspects of this job lead to the greatest satisfaction for you as a

VMD?" became the domain "VMD job satisfactions." Then, each transcribed question and response was read carefully to determine into which of the nine semantic relationships, and then into which domain, the response or parts of the response would fall. Next, responses and details which did not fit into any of the domains established from the interview questions provided the second source of domains. (See Appendix C for the list of final domains.)

For every sentence or sentence particle coded into a semantic relationship within a domain, the following information was provided on a domain analysis work sheet: 1) the interview tape number which had coded into it the informants identification; 2) transcription page number; 3) the data bit; and 4) the semantic relationship and domain applicable to the data bit. (See Appendix D for an example of a domain sheet.) The system shortens aggregation of data and provides a means of tracking the information for future reference.

Pattern and theme identification. Once domain analysis was applied to all interview data collected from all cases, the domains were searched for events, attitudes, beliefs, and ways of viewing volunteer/salaried work that were repeated or noted as significant by the informants. A brief synthesis paper was written for each case. Next a search for patterns across cases and groups (salaried versus volunteer staff groups) was carried out. These were displayed on large matrices so comparisons could be made across cases, across sites and within groups. These comparisons led to the discovery of patterns of inter-related minor themes and one major theme that was related to all others.

The discovery of cultural themes is central to the ethnographic interview process. The concept was first introduced by the anthropologist Morris Opler (1945) who proposed that one can better understand the general pattern of a culture by identifying recurrent themes. He defined a theme as

> A postulate or position, declared or implied and usually controlling behavior or stimulating activity, which is tacitly approved or openly promoted in a society. (Opler, 1945, p. 198)

Other anthropologists state that the concept of theme has its roots in the general idea "that every culture and every cultural scene is more than a jumble of parts. It is a system of meaning that is integrated into some kind of larger pattern" (Spradley, 1980, p. 141). Cultural themes are the elements that make up the larger patterns of a culture. Themes recur again and again throughout different parts of a culture and connect different subsystems of the culture serving as a general semantic relationship among domains of cultural information. Patterns and themes emerge during content analysis by searching in a systematic way for relationships among domains.

Spradley (1980) defines a cultural theme "as any principle recurrent in a number of domains, tacit or explicit, and serving as a relationship among subsystems of cultural meaning" (p. 141). A theme functions as a cognitive principle that guides behavior and usually takes the form of an assertion such as "men are superior to women." A cognitive principle is "something that people believe and accept as true and valid; it is an assumption about the nature of their commonly held experience" (Spradley, 1980, p. 141).

The assertions that comprise "what people know" often function at the tacit level of knowledge. Some have a high degree of generality in that they apply to all or most members of a culture and link a number of domains in a pattern of meaning. Other themes recur in a more restricted context in which a theme applies to certain members of the culture and only link two or three domains. The work of most ethnographers indicates that a particular cultural scene will be integrated around a set of major and minor themes (Spradley, 1980).

Methodological issues. As with any particular research methodology, the case study method has both advantages and limitations in regard to validity and reliability (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Williamson, et al., 1982). A study of this nature presents numerous threats to validity, some of which can be reduced by careful attention to specific procedural safeguards.

Potential bias is introduced in any study that uses impressions and recollections of interviewees as a major source of data. Memories can be faulty and human perspectives are sometimes limited. Researcher bias also poses threats. Included among the problems are difficulties in establishing rapport with interviewees, biased questioning, and preconceived ideas about the existence and relative importance of certain factors in the analysis of data. Specific steps taken to reduce these sources of bias were: audio taping of interviews; triangulation of data through document analysis and interviews with a third party to the case study unit; recording in a journal the daily impressions of interview situations; and, the use of the same descriptive questions and probes to guide each interview cycle across all cases and sites for standardization of the interviewing process.

Since a single researcher collected and analyzed the data, there are no measures of inter-researcher reliability. All data bits, however, have been indexed by original source, as well as by tape and transcription location. This indexing of original data and a detailed explanation of subsequent data manipulation will make it possible for other researchers to examine the data for their own assessment of the analysis and interpretations. In addition, the case studies have been critiqued for accurate statement of fact and interpretations by a volunteer managing director and the three AMH vice-presidents. Finally, the analysis and findings have been critiqued by an appropriate national headquarters vice-president and a volunteer managing director who is knowledgeable about the organization and the management team partnerships.

One of the concerns of the case study is the inability for one to generalize from the small, non-probability sample to a larger population. In this study, the researcher takes the stance of Cronbach (1975) who warns against making "generalization" the ruling consideration in methodological priorities. He contends that . . . "When we give proper weight to local conditions, any generalization is a working hypothesis, not a conclusion" (p. 125). The aim of this study was to generate a number of working hypotheses with regard to the concepts under study, and with a view towards generating new knowledge that would guide future studies in the area of volunteer motivation.

Notes

1) The following statements are taken from official NOAH documents. They illustrate the official corporate stance of the organization with regard to development of the new field service plan, the importance of volunteers in general, and the new volunteer management positions in particular. The only words which have been changed in the citations from these documents are those which would reveal the identity of the organization.

A) The following excerpt is from the introduction of the document titled Field Service Operation Plan printed November 1, 1985:

> This booklet has been designed to assist staff in communicating with persons within all NOAH units and the people we serve. It is an attempt to consolidate in one package all the key materials that staff should use to become knowledgable in the communication process within the NOAH family.

B) The following excerpt from Field Service Operation Plan directs all salaried staff to do the following and is taken from Part I, Section 5a:

> 5. Make maximum use of total organizational resources (consolidating resources for better service delivery, team building).
>
> a. Volunteers in field service management and delivery.
>
> Significantly increase the number of quality volunteers involved in actual team management and delivery of field service and in helping units to help each other.
>
> Volunteers, appropriately selected and supported as are salaried staff, can do the same quality job. Volunteer and salaried staff, each doing what is most appropriate for him/her to do, frees the other for those things best and uniquely done by the other.

C) The following excerpt is from the Field Service Operation Plan: Part 5 - Managing NOAH

> Managing through volunteer-salaried staff teams. An important element of the modified field service plan is the use of management teams at several field service levels. These teams will be composed of a volunteer and a salaried staff manager who will work together to provide field service support. The concept is not a totally new one, but it is new in its importance to the success of the field service plan. A more conventional approach to management would dictate that one

team member is ultimately responsible for meeting performance standards. In NOAH, it is the team rather than the individual that is responsible at several critical levels. Specific roles and relationships for the volunteer and the salaried manager will be negotiated between them.

2) While the excerpts cited above are from the most recent printed document describing the 'new' field service plan printed November 11, 1985, the date that the field service plan was adopted by the National Governing Board was October 23, 1982 which allowed time to prepare for implementation of the plan by July 1, 1983.

3) The following excerpt is from the NOAH Handbook and addresses the issue of the three year rotation policy for national sector leadership volunteers.

> SECTION 6: National Volunteer Rotation
>
> On October 21, 1984, the National Governing Board approved a three-year rotation policy for national sector leadership volunteers in positions such as the highest appointed volunteers in national headquarters units, the volunteer VP of area management headquarters, and regional, territorial, and SAF volunteer managers. The policy expands volunteer career development opportunities, while still allowing enough time for volunteers to attain their individual goals.

4) The process for the development of the position competency profiles for management level staff, salaried and volunteer is documented in a special internal report prepared by the research personnel in the Strategic Support Division of the National Department of Human Resources. The document is titled Competency Analysis Study of NOAH Management/Leadership Positions and describes in detail the study methodology, findings and recommendations.

Chapter IV

PRESENTATION OF CASES

This chapter presents the background on recent organizational changes in NOAH which led to development of management team partnerships, the unit of analysis for the case studies. In the sections that follow, a summary is presented of the characteristics of the volunteer and salaried staff across all cases and each of the data collection sites is described, followed by a description of case study units within each site.

Recent Organizational Changes

NOAH has long been recognized as a prime deliverer of human service programs in local communities throughout the United States. In addition, as an international organization, it has enjoyed a distinguished history of service delivery for more than a hundred years. It also has had a long history of outstanding volunteer involvement from the local to the national level in terms of development of policy and governance. Until four years ago, there were 56 division-level management units serving the United States and its territories. In theory, the units were to have an open line of communication with the national corporate headquarters. They were assisted in their operations by four regional field service management offices. In practice, the division structure did not prove to be efficient for field service management and monitoring of local program delivery (NOAH, 1983).

As budgets for human service organizations began to tighten, NOAH looked at ways to make its management functions more effective and

efficient to avoid an anticipated $8 million shortage in national sector income by 1985. An intensive self-study was conducted from the grass roots to the national level. Both salaried staff and volunteers pointed out that the history of the organization as one that had been run by volunteers, particularly at the local level, was giving way to an unbalanced emphasis on salaried staff management. Many volunteers and salaried staff believed there was less of a sense of accountability for monitoring and producing organizational results. Good linkages existed between salaried staff at the various levels of management, but such linkages were not well established for volunteers. Volunteers were asking to be brought to the forefront again and to fill new roles at the top-management levels of the organization.

A task force was formed to develop a new field service model that increased the organization's reliance on and involvement of volunteers. The new structure was designed to bring together leadership volunteers and salaried staff to share information, develop new service delivery options, and solve problems at each field service level of the organization. The division-level structure was eliminated. Nine management regions were created in the United States and its territories that would operate out of three area management headquarters. A year and one-half after the formation of these regions, one of the regions was split into two regions, creating a new region, and resulting in ten national management regions in all. This restructuring changed the organization from one with a large middle-management staff to one with a much smaller top-level management staff, and created a new management position known as the regional managing director. There was one such person in charge of management oversite for each region.

These salaried managing directors (SMDs) were to have access to an array of service delivery specialists at the area management headquarters. The specialists would help them supply local service delivery units with technical and human resources needed to deliver quality services and educational programs. Their responsibilities for management oversite were far greater than those of the staff of the four regional management offices previous to the reorganization. They were to monitor performance of service delivery units in compliance with national policy. This included seeing that evaluation, support, motivation, and recognition were provided for all units in the region.

Each salaried managing director was to have an appointed volunteer managing director (VMD) counterpart to serve as a partner in a management team relationship. The VMD would be selected from the most experienced persons of the volunteer ranks of NOAH and would be treated as a peer by the SMD. The ten regional VMDs were to be appointed to a three year non renewable term. The plan was approved and the experiment began in July, 1983. (See Figure 3 for an organizational flow chart.)

These three-year experimental team partnerships became the subject of this study. The first round of interviews was conducted one month before the expiration date of the first three-year term for the VMDs. During this term, the AMH vice-presidents and their volunteer counterparts, along with the regional management teams, had established two significant organizational innovations: the restructuring of service delivery management oversite and the formation of partnerships.

For the purpose of this study, the partnerships were judged to have been successful because the VMDs had served a full three-year term (with

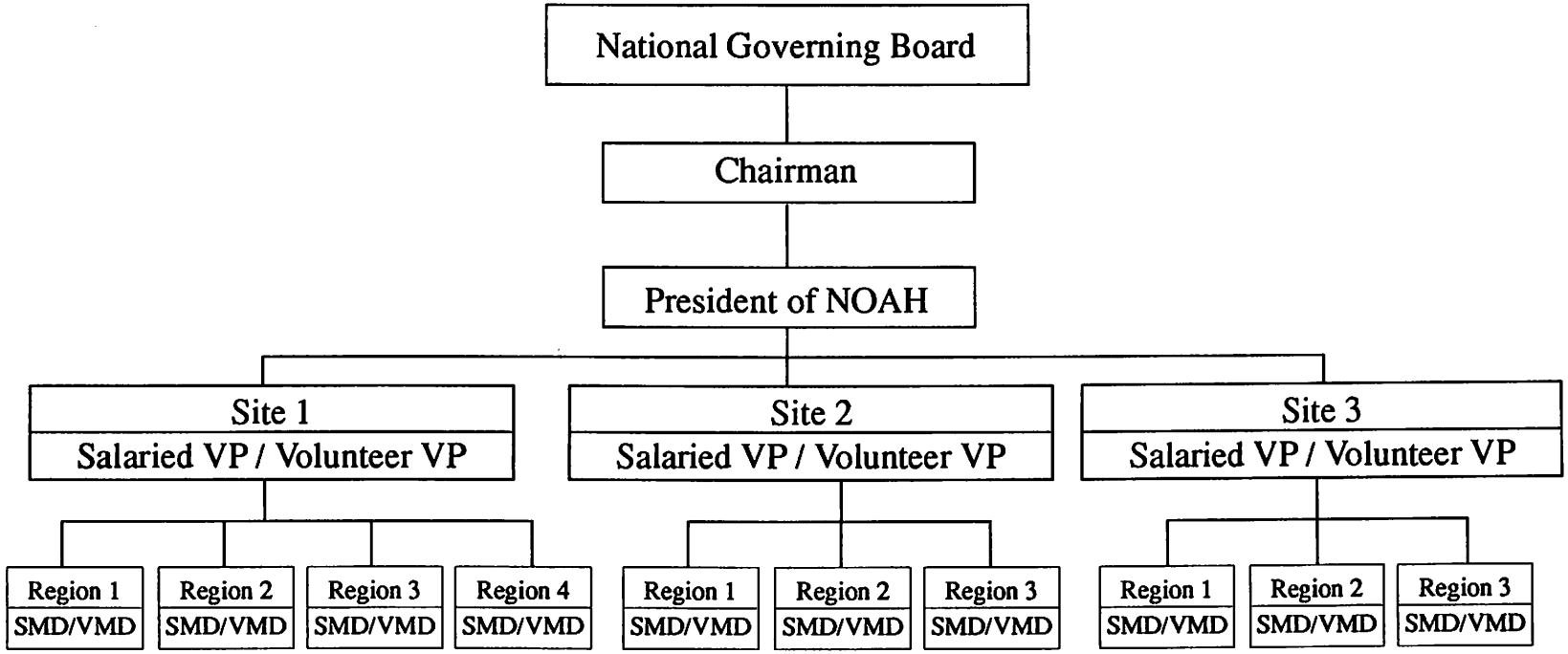

Figure 3: Chain of Organizational Management

one exception, to be explained in case study nine) and worked anywhere from 15-to-40 hours per week, depending on the time constraints of the volunteer. (See Figure 4.) As discussed previously, this level of commitment seemed to indicate that there were compelling reasons for participation of the volunteers in the partnerships. The following case studies have provided an opportunity to discover some of the factors that made these partnerships successful and to examine the various theories relating to volunteer motivation in the literature.

Summary of Volunteer/Salaried Staff Characteristics

Figures 4 and 5 on the following pages present demographic characteristics gathered on the individual volunteer and salaried staff members in each case study. These data have been provided to give the reader a sense of the characteristics that may be important in identifying the kind of volunteer who would be willing to devote the level of time commitment and skills needed to do a management-level job similar to those described in the case studies. Several other categories of data are provided in these figures that will be referred to in the presentation of analysis and findings and are important to link with specific cases. In addition, this description of the VMD/SMD partners is intended to serve as an advanced organizer to keep track of the volunteer and salaried manager in each management team partnership and their site location as the descriptions of the case studies are presented.

The volunteers, as a group ranged from 47 to 74 years in age, with a mode of 49 years. With one exception, a VMD who was a widow, all volunteers were married and had anywhere from one to five children who

SITE	CASE	VMDs	MARITAL STATUS	CHILDREN AND AGES	WORKS AT PAID JOB	AVERAGE HOURS WORKED/ WEEK	YEARS WORKED OUTSIDE HOME	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	YEARS WITH NOAH	NUMBER SMDs WORKED WITH
1	1	William	Married	3 25 26 27	Retired Part-time Consultant	20 to 30	44	Ph.D.	13	1
	2	Edith	Marrried	3	No	15 to 20	None	Some College	40	3
	3	Helene	Widow	None	No	30 to 40	6.5	Bachelors	36	1
	4	Freta	Married	2 20 22	Yes Part-time	30 to 40	15	Reg. Nurse	17	3
2	5	Rose	Married	5 23 17 25 21 26	No	20 to 30	7	Bachelors	17	1
	6	Howard	Married	2 17 18	Yes Full-time	15 to 20	38	Doctor of Law	33	1
	7	Marshall	Married	1 17	No	15 to 20	50	Bachelors	22	1
3	8	Chella	Married	1 38	No	30 to 40	25	Bachelors	37	2
	9	Marlene	Married	3 28 30 32	No	20 to 30	.5	Bachelors	24	1
	10	Renee	Married	1 24	Yes Part-time	15 to 20	3.5	Bachelors	18	1

Figure 4: Demographic Characteristics of VMDs

SITE	CASE	SMDs	MARITAL STATUS	CHILDREN AND AGES	YEARS WORKED OUTSIDE HOME	YEARS WITH NOAH	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	STARTED AS NOAH VOLUNTEER
1	1	Gregg	Married	1 8	17	12	Bachelors	No
	2	Fred	Married	2 7 3	12	12	Bachelors	Yes
	3	Chuck	Married	2 11 7	24	15	Bachelors	Yes
	4	Adrianne	Married	None	16	15	Bachelors	Yes
2	5	Frank	Married	2 27 25	30	30	Bachelors	No
	6	Milton	Married	2 18 13	23	23	Bachelors	Yes
	7	Martin	Married	2 14 10	24	17	MBA	No
3	8	Pat	Single	None	17	16	MBA	Yes
	9	Joan	Single	3 23 26 29	16.5	16.5	MBA	Yes
	10	Anne	Single	None	17	16	MBA	Yes

Figure 5: Demographic Characteristics of SMDs

were at least 17 years of age or older. In all but three cases, family incomes were in excess of $50,000. Information on age and income of individual SMDs and VMDs has been purposely omitted to provide the confidentiality promised to informants. Four of the ten volunteer managers worked at salaried jobs, one full-time, and the other three, part-time. On the volunteer jobs, there were four VMDs who estimated an average expenditure of 15-to-20 hours work per week, three who averaged 20-to-30 hours per week and three who averaged 30- to 40-hours per week. Volunteers had worked from six months to 44 years at a salaried job outside the home, and their level of education ranged from some college to the Ph.D level. Three of the ten VMDs had served with more than one SMD.

While this group represents a small non random sample, several characteristics may be important in identifying the kind of persons who are likely to be successful management-level volunteers. Family income and age of children may provide the kind of freedom conducive to such an intensive volunteer contribution. Likely, the fact that the VMDs were at least middle age or older has allowed for a level of maturity and experience as a volunteer that is crucial for the skills required for the VMD role. The VMDs represented a highly energetic and committed group of adult volunteers.

The SMDs, as a group, ranged in age from 34-to-56 years, with a mode of 40 years. All the males were married and the females were single, except Adrianne who acknowledged that the demands of the job had made it impossible to maintain a close relationship with her husband whose work kept him in another region of the country. All six male SMDs acknowledged that they had supportive spouses who made it possible for

them to deal with the scope of duties and span of control involved in the SMD job. Gregg, who left the SMD position at the end of William's three-year term (to return to managing a large local unit), acknowledged that one of his reasons for leaving was to eliminate some of the traveling inherent in the SMD job. He needed more time to be supportive of his wife's career aspirations and the needs of his young daughter. The SMD job did not appear to be conducive to fostering a dual-career family.

Other than Gregg (Case study 1), Chuck (case study 3), and Martin (case study 7), the SMDs had spent their entire salaried career with NOAH; the three exceptions mentioned had spent the major portion of their salaried career with NOAH. In addition, all but three had been a volunteer with NOAH either in a NOAH High School Club or as a college volunteer. Only four SMDs had earned formal degrees beyond the bachelor's. Those were master's degrees in business administration. All had had preparation for the NOAH job at the bachelor's level in some field of the social sciences or liberal arts: psychology, anthropology, social work, sociology, literature, and health and physical education, with the exception of Gregg who held a bachelors degree in business administration. The SMDs represented an achieving, energetic, and service-oriented group of adults.

Both the SMD and VMD, in each case study described in the following sections, expressed numerous satisfactions with the partnerships. As the study progressed, varying levels of satisfaction with implementation of the peer team concept were observed. These were due to a complexity of factors. As the case studies are presented, only positive aspects and satisfactions will be discussed since informants were promised complete confidentiality in the matters that could cause them discomfort. Those

factors which created dissatisfactions are interwoven in the analysis and findings in such a way as to eliminate a personal connection, even with the pseudonyms that have been used to identify informants.

Site 1

Site 1 Area Management Headquarters (AMH) is located in the East. It serves 1,039 local service delivery units in the New England, mid-Atlantic and southeastern states, and the Carribean. Four of the regional management teams are located at this headquarters, along with a support staff of specialized professionals who help them provide technical expertise and human resources to units in their program delivery area. A volunteer advisory council, made up of representatives from all four regions, advises headquarters-staff in matters of service delivery, program development and management.

At the time of the first interview, John Bracken, vice-president of Site 1 AMH, had been with NOAH 20 years. He had worked up through the ranks, and was in charge of one of the four previous regional management offices when the reorganization took place. He has since served as Site 1 AMH vice-president, and is responsible, along with his volunteer counterpart, for supervising the work of the four regional management teams located at Site 1.

John's comments revealed that he is deeply committed to the mission of NOAH and to the concept of top management-level volunteers. He had been co-chairman (along with the senior vice-president for operations at national headquarters) of the committee which designed the new field service plan that resulted in the peer management team philosophy and

the job descriptions of the salaried and volunteer manager that comprise each of the ten regional management teams. In the words of one member of the program evaluation research staff at National Headquarters, "John fathered the concept that changed the future of NOAH."

John spoke in a straight-forward way about his belief in the great strengths and subtle problems involved in making this new partnership concept work. His philosophy toward human services, developed from years of experience, reflected the entire organizational climate. He remarked, "As I grow older, I become more humanitarian and more understanding of the needs of the whole human family, and I want to help in creating a vision for meeting these needs."

Case Study 1. This management team in Region 1, Site 1 AMH, was a partnership between Gregg, an SMD, and William, his volunteer counterpart, who was a retired college professor. Gregg started his career with nonprofit organizations as a United Way fund-raiser. He had been with NOAH for 12 years, serving in a variety of management jobs. William had been a volunteer for NOAH for 13 years, serving as a fund-raiser, local unit chairman, a division advisory council chairman, and chairman for many committees and conferences, some of which were related to work of the national headquarters.

Gregg and William had a difficult assignment. The region in which they were responsible for management oversite had by far the greatest number of "accounts receivable" of any region in the country. This means that local units were in arrears in their payments to the national organization. This is a serious problem in NOAH because the major portion

of the fund-raising that supports the operations of the organization nationwide is done at the local level.

Initially, Gregg and William each attempted to carry out all the duties listed in their individual job descriptions. Before long, however, they realized this was not an effective use of their time. They looked carefully at their individual talents and strengths and negotiated a new plan. In William's words:

> It has been a position [the VMD job] that we negotiated and sort of tailored to the needs of the region and my ability to provide the kind of time frames that were necessary to accomplish . . . the activities. It needs to be tailored pretty much to the time constraints of the person involved.

William agreed to take two of the most difficult problems (in terms of the performance of two large local service delivery units). He developed a plan, shared it with Gregg, and proceeded with a "relatively free hand" to assist the units in implementation of the recommendations. Throughout his term, William also took major responsibility for Item 2d of the VMD job description: to plan, promote, organize, and participate in regional meetings. (See Appendix A.)

Gregg and William expressed pride in what they had been able to accomplish as a team. This pride caused William to increase his volunteer involvement. As he explained:

> The time demands are considerable, and it was expected initially that the job would call for a relatively short amount of time away from home. But it turned out that 'he who rides a tiger may never dismount' . . . You want to be able to do more all the time and it [the job] keeps stretching as you go along. So it consumes a considerable amount of time eventually.

Gregg talked about the excitement, variety, and challenge in the SMD job:

> It was exciting to be a part of a new system--to try to structure and make it work, to give guidance to the staff in the region, and yet--at the same time--give them freedom to do their job. The problems were horrendous...the accounts receivable thing in our region was over 8 million dollars which presented a horrendous challenge in itself. In trying to deal with those successfully you had to be creative. . . . But there were rewards: completing a study; developing recommendations; having a board accept those recommendations and move forward to strengthen its operations, whether it was through increased fund-raising, dismissal of certain staff, restructuring of boards; . . . the reaction of people saying, Gee, it's nice to have support. It's nice to know what national is all about. We were never able to communicate with national before in the division structure.' So you felt you were breathing life into their operations. I probably would have become frustrated [with the scope of the job] if it wasn't for William and his tremendous contributions because without him we wouldn't have been able to accomplish as much as we did.

When asked what the satisfying aspects of the job were, William responded that it was a challenge

> to put together a team of persons to go in . . . and . . . orchestrate a process and produce a product. . . . It's that working with people. I've got to have people to work with . . . I think the reason I am enjoying working with people here is that in my university job I was fairly isolated. . . . Some of the training programs they have let me participate in have been extremely good. . . . I think my understanding of people and group dynamics has changed dramatically in the past few years as a result of these experiences.

At the time of the first interview with William, all the VMDs from Site 1 had just been presented NOAH's highest award. William commented that this award was "one of the nicest things that happened to me." Other forms of recognition from which he received special satisfaction were a note from the area management headquarters vice-president (AMH/VP) praising him for a particular achievement on the job, NOAH's president's mentioning

in public a good piece of work for which William was responsible, and acknowledgement of his achievement at a management retreat. During the interview, William's statements indicated that he placed considerable value on the opportunities for personal growth, affiliation with people, and various forms of recognition provided by NOAH.

Case Study 2. This management team was comprised of Fred, an SMD, and a VMD named Edith, a long-time veteran of NOAH. She had been a volunteer with the organization for 40 years. As can be observed in Figure 4, she gave neither her age nor that of her children on the demographic form which the informants were asked to complete.

Like William, she had held numerous volunteer roles in NOAH, including a position on the national governing board. Before involvement with NOAH, she had developed her career as a volunteer through multiple roles with the Mental Health Association and Federated Women's Clubs. Her earliest volunteering was done at a child-care center when she was in college.

Fred had been a paid staff member of NOAH for 12 years, but had been a volunteer for the organization and a recipient of NOAH's educational programs since he was 12 years old. As a college student, he worked for NOAH in the summer before he was graduated, and then took a full-time job with the organization. He had worked his way up through the service delivery ranks and been in a management role for five years before he moved into the SMD position.

This particular partnership was somewhat unique in comparison to the others since Edith and Fred had worked together only 10 months when Edith's three-year term came to an end. The first SMD that Edith worked

with had left the position in the middle of the term. In the interim, while a search for a new SMD was conducted, Chuck, the managing director of Region 3, worked with Edith, and then Fred was hired. So Edith had served with three SMDs before her term ended.

The frequent change of SMD partners placed limitations on work that could be accomplished through the partnership. This was not surprising. Other SMDs spoke of a down-time in the initial stages of the partnerships of anywhere from three months to a year at the beginning of the term. This was when they needed time to get to know their partner. In addition, they were attempting to understand the newly created role of the salaried managing director of the large new regions for which they had oversight responsibility; so, Fred was in a start-up phase as an SMD when Edith's term was ending.

When asked to look at the VMD job description and tell how his job differed from Edith's job, Fred replied that Edith had not been actively involved in all aspects of the job description, and he had not made nearly as much use of the VMD role as he would have liked to. In his words,

> I think the reason she did less is because I assumed greater responsibility than the concept of shared accountabilities would suggest . . . That is in large part owing to my need to jump into things and learn just what the heck it is that I'm supposed to be doing before I could delegate job responsibilities to another person.

Fred also pointed out that it had taken time to get "used to the notion of being peers with a volunteer rather than reporting to a volunteer board of directors" as he had in previous management jobs. He went on to say, in reference to his discussions with the newly appointed VMD, that he had "learned a lot from what I haven't done and wish I had done." By the

time the second interview took place, Fred had very actively involved the new VMD in the work of the region.

Despite the fact that Edith had not been as actively involved in this partnership as volunteers described in the other case studies, there were a number of shared satisfactions that she and Fred had experienced with the partnership; and for Edith, there were satisfactions involving work with the previous two SMDs with whom she had served. Edith believed the training and development offered her by NOAH had been an "open sesame" to wonderful people contacts all around the world. She said:

> I owe NOAH a great deal--for many reasons--for the opportunity to share this position and others that I've held, for the training that helped me develop and grow as an individual, . . . and, of course, all the experience under wonderful people with whom you work and those outside of NOAH that you meet.

Edith recalled the satisfaction she had felt in the past year through training over 100 volunteer managers to work with local unit managers. She not only saw this as an opportunity to affiliate with good people, but also to influence them to do good work for the organization and experience personal growth. She stated:

> I have been pleased to see these volunteers develop within their jobs. . . . There is an influence [you have] on people. Whether it is a deliberate action or not, you're saying 'please take this orientation and training and run with it. You'll establish credibility. You'll have a good experience.' . . . In four of the territories that I've worked with closely, I've pushed volunteers up the career ladder.

When asked why volunteer roles in NOAH were more attractive than other options, Edith replied:

> The possibility of working toward management and improving management skills, I think, would be a strong part of it because I don't know other organizations that give that much

> opportunity...and the association with people. To me that is vitally important. I need people, and I frankly admit that I need people.

One of the highlights of Edith's experience as a VMD had taken place when she and Chuck, the SMD from Region 3, had worked together temporarily to cover Region 2 during the search for a replacement for the first SMD in this region. Chuck and Edith had agreed she should make a visit to one of the field units to work on a salaried staff management problem. The field manager sent an angry epistle to Chuck in which he wanted to know what "right a volunteer had coming out to reprimand him." Chuck fired back a courteous, but firm, message (as he described it in his interview) which Edith explained as follows:

> Chuck, bless his heart, he wrote right back in an excellent manner stating that I had every right, and he should realize we were both part of a management team, and either of us could visit and supervise his unit any way we saw fit . . . So I have never forgotten Chuck for that.

This incident was confirmed by Chuck--at his own initiative--as well as by two other VMDs who were impressed by Chuck's unwavering support of the volunteer managers.

Fred expressed great satisfaction with the challenge of moving into the position of regional managing director as the youngest SMD in any of the ten national regions. He felt he had learned much in his 10 months in the position and was looking forward to a good management team relationship with the newly appointed VMD. Now that he knew the job, he felt more confident about sharing the work with his volunteer counterpart. He had ended his term with Edith on an upbeat note, and he talked about the things he had come to know about Edith.

> She knows volunteers better than anyone I ever met. . . . When it comes to managing volunteers, she is absolutely magnificent. . . . She has learned about volunteering by working up through the ranks to the highest position possible in NOAH as a member of the national governance board. Edith has been to the top of the mountain and she walked up every step and sat in every chair to get there. . . . I think it had to be frustrating to her because . . . I definitely tended not to use her for management kinds of things.

While Edith had participated far more in the management oversite of the region while a partner with the first SMD, she believed that she and Fred had achieved a closer personal relationship in some ways. She too felt the ten months with Fred had ended on a positive level. When asked how the word partnership described their management team relationship, if at all, she replied:

> I am leaving with a good feeling . . . The last three weeks we have been working as a team on work performance reviews [in the field] and that has been very successful. I have had a full part. I have spoken whenever I desired and said what I wanted to say . . . It's good to leave remembering the best [experience] and this is the best.

Case Study 3. Chuck, the SMD, and Helene, a VMD with 36 years of experience volunteering with NOAH, made up the management team in Region 3. Helene was one of three VMDs who had averaged at least 30-to-40 hours per week in the job, and she had tackled every item in the job description. To the admiration of other staff members, both salaried and volunteer, Helene was willing and able to "challenge up," as they say in NOAH, anyone in the organization. By her own admission, this was not always easy. "Sometimes, you know, I am shaking inside when I speak up," she said, "but I believe it is crucial that volunteers share their view of things or the organization will be much less than it can be."

Statements made throughout the interviews with Chuck and Helene indicated that they felt a strong sense of peer relationship. Chuck copied Helene on information he considered significant, including the regional budget, an item of information about which many of the other VMDs did not have knowledge. Helene called him once a week, updated him on her activities, and he shared his activities with her. Chuck believed that there was nothing he did that Helene could not do as well. They often did the same work in the job descriptions, only in different parts of the region. In Chuck's words, their relationship

> . . . is a partnership. I don't think there is any question about that . . . Structurally, our positions are not two different positions. We are effectively working as one individual, and we just talk to each other to determine who is doing what.

Chuck and Helene conveyed respect for each other, not only as managers but also as persons. Helene talked about how they would listen to each other, consult, and advise. She felt she shared accountability with Chuck for the region's performance, could share differences of opinion, and that they had a real partnership. She related:

> I feel if I get in trouble, he's partly in trouble too . . . If I goof, it reflects on Chuck . . . I have actually gone to bat a couple of times for unit managers who felt that their standards of performance were a little tilted, and I thought so too. I have said, 'Look Chuck, we've got to go over this. I don't think this is realistic.' Now, I didn't always convince him, but I felt comfortable in saying this is where I am coming from, and he listened. Then he'd tell me how he's viewing the situation . . . That's a partnership.

Chuck, like SMD Gregg (case study 1) and SMD Fred (case study 2), found great satisfaction in the challenge of designing solutions to difficult problems in a new management structure. Among the managing directors, he was unusual in that he insisted he did not have a great interest in

people, nor service delivery per se. Yet the following statement about what he saw as the greatest job satisfaction was a direct contradiction of his previous statement:

> What turns me on more than anything else is to see people grow . . . to see someone get involved in the organization and take on positions of greater and greater responsibility and feel more comfortable with their role in the organization and--more importantly--with themselves as an individual.

Chuck was convinced that volunteers will grow if salaried staff are willing to let them participate fully in putting into operation the mission and goals of the corporate organization. He believed this participation should include the right to make mistakes. As he explained:

> You've got to push the bird out of the nest. You've got to let the kids fall off the bike and scrape their knees. You've got to let people make mistakes. I make mistakes. . . . The volunteer's paycheck comes in personal growth.

Among Helene's satisfactions were "wonderful associations with people" in the organization, having fun with the staff, being given lots of responsibility, empowering and influencing others to do for the organization, feeling the sense of respect others have for her work, and the pride her extended family takes in her volunteer work. The greatest of all satisfactions, she said, was

> being a pioneer. See, we just started a new [management] system and I feel that as pioneers we really plowed some fresh ground and came up with some darn good ideas . . . Maybe not all of them are perfect but they are working very well.

Chuck, with his confidence and trust in volunteers, and Helene, with her positive sense of herself as a volunteer, made a good combination for a satisfying partnership.

Case study 4. The partnership team in Region 4 was composed of Adrianne, the SMD, and Freta, the VMD. Freta did part-time work with

her psychiatrist husband and committed another 30-to-40 hours a week to NOAH. SMD Adrianne had started her work with NOAH as a college volunteer. She had worked as a salaried staff member for 15 years, and--like most of the other SMDs--had worked up through the ranks from a management position in a local service delivery unit.

Freta had been a NOAH volunteer for 17 years. She had not served in as many volunteer roles as some of the VMDs, so she found herself giving large amounts of time to learning new management skills and finalizing written reports. This work did not, however, dampen her enthusiasm for tackling any aspect of the job description. With the exception of working with budgets, she had done all of the tasks at some point. She counseled managers, and particularly volunteers, within Region 4 about program management and development, spoke at numerous ceremonial functions, helped units write goals and objectives and conduct feasibility studies (sometimes interviewing as many as 25 to 30 community leaders during a study), as well as assisting with work performance reviews and the large volume of written and telephone communications that were a part of the work of all the regional management teams.

Freta listed more satisfactions with the job than any other VMD. She was pleased with the opportunities to travel, participate in excellent training, affiliate and work with people who have a humanitarian perspective and value community service, and to control her working hours so that family priorities could remain in first place. She stated that her two greatest satisfactions were the opportunity to feel useful and valuable to others and to engage in personal growth. She expressed it this way:

> I feel better about myself if I am doing something productive that not only benefits Freta but benefits other people...Then I can say hey, you're okay' . . . Other people don't need to say to you you're okay. You know it. You sense it and feel it. . . . [The work] becomes a strong connection for integrating your personality. . . . It gives you confidence to know that you can explore all kinds of avenues of experience and keep on growing, and I need that.

Freta's interview was filled with anecdotes that illustrated her desire to motivate others to do their job, working at making the new structure successful, and assisting others to develop as volunteer leaders. Reflecting on a piece of research she had done on board development, which helped a local unit think about how to strengthen its program, she explained:

> What you get from the job experience motivates you to come back . . . The most gratifying thing about this new field structure is that I feel Adrianne and I have been very instrumental in making it happen in our region.

SMD Adrianne made a good complement to Freta in this partnership because she was interested in nurturing Freta's growth in a leadership role and had confidence in her ability to develop management skills. She, like Freta, found great satisfaction in working toward achieving an organizational mission for which she felt strong commitment. She was energized by working on solutions to difficult problems and issues, having the freedom and flexibility to act on her own conviction in carrying out the work of the region, and the sense of support which she felt from the Site 1 AMH vice-president. She was one of only two SMDs that mentioned salary as a satisfaction and believed that--as a woman with a bachelor's degree and 15 years of work experience--she was well compensated. The notes and expressions of appreciation which she received from field staff were an additional satisfaction.

A central focus for Adrianne in the partnership was encouraging Freta to take advantage of all the training opportunities that NOAH offered. She believed Freta had far more ability to tackle new learning situations and deal with difficult organizational problems than Freta gave herself credit for. Adrianne said:

> Freta has a lot of potential, and I say this to her all the time. At least I think I do. . . . She is very, very well liked. That was never more evident than at the national convention because she has a style and personality that is very approachable, very encompassing. I want to see her have the confidence to make the most of this natural talent.

Adrianne worked with Freta on developing her skills for adult teaching/learning strategies and a participative teaching style. Freta demonstrated growth in this area and offered examples in her interview when she talked about satisfaction with her personal growth. Even though Adrianne had begun work as an SMD at the beginning of the second year of Freta's term, she challenged Freta to develop her talents, and Freta complied by tackling uncomfortable jobs so that the two partners might achieve the region's goals.

Site 2

Site 2 Area Management Headquarters, located in the Midwest, provides oversite for 1,448 local service delivery units in the midwestern states and several of the southern states. Three of the ten management team partnerships have headquarters there. When the site came into existence in 1983, the person appointed AMH vice-president for management oversite was a long-time veteran of NOAH who had managed one of the four previous regional field service offices. He served as AMH/VP of Site 2 for two years, after which he retired from NOAH.

Norman Kawalski, with over 20 years of experience with NOAH in a wide variety of management roles, became vice-president for Site 2. He was described by one of his regional SMDs as "the ultimate people person." Drawing on a blend of natural management skills and concern for people, Kawalski initiated changes that created an unusual sense of support among the SMD/VMD management teams at Site 2 as they worked in their respective regions.

Case study 5. The entire salaried work career of Frank, the SMD in this partnership, had been with NOAH. After 30 years, he was continuing to exhibit energy and enthusiasm over his accomplishments. He made it perfectly clear, however, that he had been able to achieve regional goals through the partnership effort with Rose, his volunteer counterpart.

Rose had been a NOAH volunteer for 17 years, and had assumed multiple roles in other organizations at the same time. When asked how her job as a VMD was similar or different from Frank's, she responded:

> I think the similarities are that we share the ultimate product; for example, if there is a problem in our region, together we decide on what the problem really is by looking at all of the information we have been presented with, and then together we decide, well, this is what we need to do. . . . We have different [management] styles and do things differently, but that has made it that much more interesting and we feel has produced greater results. . . . Sometimes I go one direction and Frank goes another, but--for the most part--if there is a program development situation or a problem to be worked out . . . it's a joint venture that's real.

In their interviews, both Frank and Rose expressed a commitment to help regional staff develop self-esteem and career options within the organization. Frank gave this example:

> A year ago we decided that our managers [in the field], who happened to be female, had less self-esteem, felt less sure of themselves, normally waited for things to happen, rather than

> make things happen as a career development process. So, we agreed that probably we needed to spend some extra money and time . . . getting them to seminars, discussions, etc., that dealt with the subject of successful women.

Rose subsequently assumed a planning role to see that these development opportunities became available to female managers in the region.

Both partners agreed that Rose had been involved in every job responsibility delineated in the job description. Although she was not extensively involved in the budgeting process, she did interpret policy and make financial decisions whenever necessary to carry out her work in the region (e.g., the career development training).

Both partners were satisfied with what they had accomplished in their region. As Frank said, "We work hard and we have fun." (This attitude seemed to be pervasive throughout Site 2 AMH operations.) He and Rose used many kinds of symbolism with their volunteers and salaried staff to generate enthusiasm and reinforce the idea that together they could be a "winning team." Frank talked about how they attempted to do this:

> We very heavily emphasize that [a winning attitude], and part of that is broadcasting and feeling good about ourselves . . . and that's a planned event. We started out as Region 1 ducks. We had a divorce from that term last year, and now we are the Region 1 eagles. We present hats with eagles on them and these types of things to constantly keep people aware we are very good and we intend to remain that way by stretching for continuing growth and development . . . Rose has been a part of that and absolutely supports everything about excellence . . . That's part of her philosophy about doing her homework, being knowledgeable, etc., and I think that's what brought her to where she is. I think she influences a lot of people.

One of the ways Frank and Rose encouraged growth in other staff was through delegation of responsibilities. Once assured that they had given the needed assistance in identifying a problem and had provided the

training or resources necessary to resolve it, they let others take responsibility for handling the problem.

Rose and Frank felt they were a good peer team. They believed they shared accountability for the work of the region, and exchanged skills, talents, and ideas. Frank said, "We feed off each other for ideas and energy to solve problems." Neither of them was immodest or pretentious, but they felt good about their work and the people with whom they worked.

Case study 6. The second region at Site 2 AMH was managed by a partnership between Milton, the SMD, and a lawyer named Howard, the VMD. Volunteering was promoted at the law firm in which Howard was a partner. All eight members of the firm did volunteering in the community. Howard himself worked an average of 15-to-20 hours per week for NOAH while carrying on a law practice.

Howard had begun volunteering with NOAH while he was in high school. This meant he had been with the organization over 33 years. He, like Edith (case study 2), had served as a member of NOAH's national governing board. His skills as a volunteer had been learned through challenges provided by multiple leadership roles in other voluntary associations.

Milton's 23-year salaried career had started as a college volunteer for NOAH. Both Howard and Milton displayed confidence in their ability to achieve the goals for Region 2. This appeared to be related to their long association with NOAH and with volunteering. Each partner expressed satisfaction in how they carried out their work together. They agreed that at some point Howard had assumed responsibility for all duties listed in the job description; however, at each point in time, they had negotiated which

pieces of the job each partner would do. In Milton's words: "The [partnership] job is a marriage where the division of labor is constantly being negotiated." Throughout the interview, Milton returned to the marriage analogy.

> I think [he said] the relationship between SMD and VMD . . . is a lot like a marriage . . . the weakness of one [partner] being offset by the strength of the other . . . with both of them having the same idea of what they want to accomplish . . . Good partners, just as a good marriage partner, may disagree often, but they are going the same direction and they will never work in opposition to the other person.

Howard's view of the partnership was consistent with Milton's view. When asked how the jobs of VMD and SMD were alike or different, he responded:

> I am not sure I can tell you that and make a heck of a lot of sense out of it because Milton and I have always tried to be Siamese twins. We have always discussed the thought that ideally if something were to happen to him, I should be able to go to Site 2 AMH and run the region. Practically, we all know that's got a lot of problems with it because I can't know all the things he does on a day-to-day basis. But, you know, we endeavor to keep track of the big problems together and little problems we figure will take care of themselves. . . . We attack problems differently . . . and he obviously is best suited to handle certain problems . . . but if I had to, I could come in and run the region with the help of the rest of the Site 2 AMH staff . . . We'd get it done. I'll tell you frankly, we have an excellent deputy and service experts that work with us there at headquarters. They're tops. Yes, we'd get it done.

When asked about the aspects of the job that resulted in satisfactions, as with the team partnerships described in other case studies, there were many. Howard spoke of the satisfaction that came from having an opportunity to give something back to the community that had nurtured him and the pleasure of working for an organization with a mission directed at serving the needs of people. He also was pleased with the level and consistency of communication in the partnership, as well as the trust which

he and Milton shared in delegating work to other volunteers. Affiliation with numerous people in NOAH and great pride over the way "our people have taken up the challenge" to achieve the goals of Region 2 were high priorities on Howard's list of satisfactions.

Milton's satisfactions focused on several themes, the first being the friendship that had grown between Howard and him during the partnership. He went on to say, "I doubt if anybody could be any happier with a career choice than I have been with mine." This feeling related to several factors which he expressed:

> What I do is important in the whole scheme of things. It relates to the highest calling of human beings and that is to help each other . . . I've had the freedom [in this job] to be innovative and to achieve the objectives of the job in the best way I could . . . When you work for NOAH you typically end up with people who are motivated by some of the highest callings and they are high-quality people.

Case study 7. This partnership was comprised of a retired business executive VMD named Marshall, and Martin, his SMD counterpart. This partnership, like the other two at Site 2 AMH, represented a complement in personalities. Martin was as warm, outgoing, and relaxed as Marshall was quiet, reserved, and genteel. Martin had had 17 years of salaried-staff experience with NOAH, while Marshall's volunteer history with the organization was approaching 22 years. Marshall had developed his volunteer leadership skills through multiple roles in several organizations. He had served on the national governing board of NOAH.

The characteristics of this partnership were similar to the other two at Site 2 AMH. The partners felt a sense of joint ownership of management oversite for the region. No major decisions were made by the

SMD without conferring with the VMD. Once decisions were made about how to assist staff in the field, Martin and Marshall often went in opposite directions, each doing what he had agreed upon. They felt that they had made great progress in addressing problems of the region. Marshall worked jointly with Martin to plan, organize, and participate in regional meetings. They concurred that it was not accurate to say Marshall's responsibility was primary in this task, as the job description stated. Martin indicated that there was frequent communication in the partnership. He said:

> We meet often, sometimes just because he and I agree we need to meet, often times in conjunction with other scheduled meetings where we take a deep breath and often provide background for one another, and we do a lot of discussion by telephone . . . at least once a week.

Again, these partners, like the other teams at Site 2, felt comfortable with delegation of responsibility to others. As Martin explained:

> We do a lot of independent work . . . and we do a lot of joint work where we agree the highest probability of success would be represented by both of us going and working a given situation. So it varied a great deal. It has been mostly situational, as opposed to a general study . . . [We'd say] there's the circumstance, here's how it reads, what do you think? And, in a lot of cases, neither of us gets involved. We come to agree on who might be best, and what a strategy would be, and we'll have another volunteer or salaried staff person do that work on our behalf.

Marshall talked about the team relationship with Martin and why he thought it was a good one.

> We do a lot of problem solving. I think that probably describes what Martin and I do as a team better perhaps than anything. Just recently, we were able to achieve success in the area of a large local service delivery unit in Texas that has been having tremendous problems with fund-raising because of the high Hispanic population and low income. We were able to come up with a formula where we could send a manager from another area to help out. . . . After several visits, a consolidation plan among several of the smaller units and this larger one was worked out. . . . When we started the field service in the

> regions, Martin was overwhelmed with problems that had built up over the years. . . . Then he began to come up with a plan of attack that was a team endeavor between not only the two of us, but a team endeavor between some of the staff in Site 2 AMH which Norman, our vice-president, came up with as a way to take people who were headquarters staff persons and put them in teams so that they could then help the region and do their own work besides.

This reorganization of the support staff was mentioned by all of the other teams at Site 2 as having had a profound effect on eliminating the feeling that the scope of the regional management job was overwhelming. Martin commented: "My frustration level has dropped geometrically in the last 15 months or so since we restructured." In addition, other teams talked about how Norman had worked with the Site 2 AMH advisory council to redirect the work of committees so that it would help management teams do their job. (These particular characteristics of Site 2 will be discussed in more detail in Chapter V.)

Among the job satisfactions--besides the restructuring--about which Martin talked was his working directly for the national sector of NOAH for the first time. He said:

> I had always been an employee of local units in various capacities and felt I needed the best possible experience in the national sector to begin to really round out my abilities to make me a more complete manager.

Marshall's expressed satisfaction with the awareness that the VMDs were valued highly by the Site 2 AMH staff. He alluded to this several times in such statements as: "We participate in discussions and decisions that are made [when present in AMH management meetings]. They respect us for our ability to make a contribution to management decisions." Both Rose (case study 5) and Howard (case study 6) had expressed feeling this same sense of respect from Norman, the vice-president, who, according

to Rose, was "very interested in hearing the volunteer interpretation of things."

Site 3

This headquarters for regional management oversite is located in the West. It serves 402 local service delivery units in the southwestern, western, and northwestern states, as well as U.S. territories in the Pacific. Alaska and Hawaii are included in this 14-state area, along with the large western states, most of which have many sparsely populated communities separated by long distances.

At the inception of the restructuring of NOAH, this headquarters was the location for two regional management teams. Within two years, a third team was located there. The headquarters also houses a group of specialized professionals who help all three management teams to provide technical expertise and human resources to the local units in their program delivery. Like Site 1 and Site 2 headquarters, this one is served by a volunteer advisory council representative of the regions within the management oversite area.

The vice-president of Site 3 AMH, Dave Radkowsky, has been with NOAH for 27 years. Like the vice-presidents at Site 1 and Site 2, he has had a great deal of management experience. Also, much like them, his deep commitment to the mission of the organization is tied to a value system premised on the concept that helping people meet their human needs within a community is an important kind of work. Over the past four years, again like the others, he has been faced with helping the management teams learn

new roles, adjust to organization restructuring, and--in addition--reorganize his area from the original two management regions to three.

This site headquarters was unique in that all three SMDs hired by the vice-president were female. When asked about the reason, if any, Dave responded:

> Results are the things that count and I'll stack my team up against the others any day . . . I want the highest quality person we can get on the staff . . . It happens that the women who applied for the positions were better educated, better motivated, and prepared harder for the interviews.

Dave reaffirmed this great confidence which he felt in the work of his SMDs a number of times throughout the interviews.

Case study 8. This partnership was comprised of Pat, the SMD with 16 years of experience as a salaried NOAH staff member, and Chella, the VMD. With 37 years of service to NOAH, Chella was rivaled only by Edith (case study 2) in terms of tenure with NOAH as a volunteer. She had begun her term as VMD with an SMD who was replaced by Pat at the end of the first year. Chella and Pat were then faced with the same circumstances as the two partnerships at Site 1 AMH in which there was less than a full term for the partners to learn the job and achieve the goals for the region. This situation led to some frustration for both in terms of accomplishing all they had hoped. Their six-state region presented a challenge because it constituted the largest geographical region with the sparsest population. This meant they needed to communicate with many small local units that were in competition with many other organizations for a limited number of volunteers. In addition, the traveling distance between these local units was great in comparison to other regions. Chella put a

great deal of time into traveling, and she was one of the three VMDs who estimated her average time on the job to be 30-to-40 hours per week.

In this partnership, Chella saw herself in a support role to Pat, a sounding board and consultant. She carried out Item 2d on the VMD job description with Pat, rather than take primary responsibility herself as the job description indicated. (see Appendix A.) Much of Pat and Chella's communication was by phone since Chella was located a long way from the Site 3 AMH. As was true in several other partnerships, Chella worked more directly with the volunteer field staff, and Pat dealt more with assistance to salaried staff.

In the two years of the partnerships, both Chella and Pat found important satisfactions in the job. Chella, who had begun her working career as a nurse, discovered that her instincts to care for people had found an outlet in her volunteer work with NOAH. She related:

> Our education programs are badly needed in the local communities . . . I feel so good to see people helped . . . to see the smile on the face of someone who has been helped. . . . This organization is people caring for people . . . As the expression goes 'you are never so tall as when you stoop to support your fellow man.'

This caring attitude of Chella was felt by Pat. By the time the second interview took place, Pat was nine months into her second partnership with a new VMD. She reflected on her experience with Chella and said, "The stroking and emotional support which Chella gave me was very important for my own sense of encouragement and well-being in the job. I needed that."

Pat, like Adrianne (case study 4), felt that she had been well compensated for her work as an SMD, monetarily as well as being provided

upward mobility opportunities and fresh challenges. A major satisfaction was that she, along with the other AMH salaried managing directors, had convinced the rest of the AMH management staff that VMDs should be included in management retreats. Pat said:

> We agreed at this meeting three years later [from the beginning of the partnerships] that the VMDs should be part of the management retreats because they truly are the team, and we have no business doing what we are doing at these meetings without them--which I think says a lot for the trust level of all the staff and their acceptance of these volunteers as truly being a part of the management team.

This interest of Pat's in how the peer relationship could truly be achieved was exhibited throughout the interview. She was respected by the vice-president for her ability to be analytical, and she was analytical on this issue. She demonstrated an ability for openness by talking about her soul searching on how to make the partnership all it could be.

Chella's words show the importance she placed on the people that she had had an opportunity to work with in NOAH.

> . . . the individuals, the volunteers, the field staff--they are, as I said before, so dedicated . . . and the volunteers out in the field when you hear them say, 'where have you been, haven't seen you, we miss you . . .' those are the kind of strokes we need.

As Chella was completing her three-year term, she performed an impressive job of chairing the Resolutions Committee for the annual national conference. The first interview with her was conducted shortly after the committee's recommendations had been adopted by unanimous vote of the conference delegates. This event was fresh in her mind as she reflected on her feelings and the comments of others following her handling of controversial committee sessions:

> I was merely a facilitator [as chairman of a committee] . . . but people said to me, 'You were very gentle; yet you controlled the situation nicely and you made people feel comfortable.' . . . 'When things got rough, you remained calm and kept the waters calm.' Well, that's a form of thanks and saying that you were appreciated.

These comments reflected some of the warm feelings of self affirmation that Chella experienced in her final hours as a VMD for Region 1. At the end of her talk of satisfactions, she described a special incident in which Dave, the vice-president, had expressed praise and appreciation for her work as a VMD during a final recognition event. This was a meaningful form of volunteer pay for Chella. In her words, "You knew it was not just a formality. It was so genuine. and it makes you feel so good."

Case study 9. This was the only partnership of the ten that had not been functioning for three years at the time of the first interview. With the growth of NOAH's local service units in the West and the realization that geographically the span of management of the two regions constituting Site 3 management area was beyond reason, plans for a third region were developed. A year and a half into the first cycle of management terms, a VMD for the region was selected, and she helped the vice-president screen and interview candidates to fill the SMD job. Joan, a woman with 16 years of NOAH management experience at the local service-delivery level, was chosen. A close friendship grew between Joan and Marlene, the VMD who had selected her as top choice to fill the SMD position. At the present time, VMD Marlene and SMD Joan have now entered the third year of their partnership term for which Marlene was reappointed and chose to remain in the position.

Marlene had had a long history with NOAH, 24 years as a volunteer. Much like Freta (case study 4), Marlene's volunteer roles had been in a specialized area of service and she lacked the breadth of experiences that many of the other VMDs had.

This meant that Marlene's VMD duties needed to be carefully negotiated so that her skills were utilized in the most effective, and yet comfortable, ways to achieve maximum management oversite in Region 2. Adding to the complexity of this was the fact that Joan's salaried role with NOAH did not represent the great breadth of experiences of most of the SMDs; however, these capable women persevered in developing a partnership in which Marlene was involved in some major management roles. The potential barriers were somewhat lessened by her weekly presence at Site 3 AMH due to the proximity of her home, a 45-minute drive from headquarters.

Marlene's job duties included attending meetings when the SMD could not be present, taking care of correspondence and letter writing, carrying out a survey of the composition of governing boards for local units to see how they could be improved, and working with volunteer field managers to improve their relationship with paid staff. In addition, she was one of those unusual VMDs that took a primary role in planning, organizing, and attending regional meetings as the job description stated.

Early in Marlene's term, by request of the acting managing director of Region 2, she handled an investigation which ended in the removal of a salaried field manager who was located on a military base. NOAH's service and management in the military setting were Marlene's area of special expertise and experience. She understood military protocol and was

comfortable with it. She carried the investigation to its completion, and subsequently informed the manager he was to be relieved of his position.

Both Joan and Marlene found satisfaction in the team management job. Joan had a talent for observing the fine nuances of human interaction. As Vice-President Dave Radkowsky said:

> She [Joan] is people oriented. I listen carefully to Joan when it comes to the feelings of others and where others are coming from. In fact, just this morning, I guess--we both attended the same meeting yesterday and I had to write a written response to the national president--I tested with her whether I was hearing the same thing she was hearing. And she pointed out something that I was totally off the track about in my hearing of what occurred . . . Joan's in tune with the subtleties of people and she enjoys . . . and orients herself to that.

This people orientation of Joan's came through strongly in such comments as the following:

> I obviously believe deeply in the mission of the organization. I think we are doing a better job [as an organization] of assessing the value of our resources from stem to stern, and I'm delighted that we're paying so much attention to our people resources . . . We are helping people to grow who need growth and development and may be helping those who would function better in a different environment to come to that decision . . . It is very satisfying to be helping people, empowering them to do more with their talent and skills to accomplish the goals of the organization...and to do so more efficiently and effectively than in the past.

The job satisfactions important to Marlene included the sense of a peer relationship and open communication with Joan, along with Joan's sense of humor:

> When I [Marlene] assisted the vice-president in interviewing Joan for the SMD job, I asked her how she would view our relationship . . . and she said, 'Well, I see it as an absolute peer working relationship.' . . . I got a sense she would truly involve me in the job as a peer, and she has. She is a real task master about achieving the goals of the region and how this should and shouldn't be done. We discuss those ideas openly. But she has a terrific sense of humor, and that's almost a must for me. I

> can't work with people who don't laugh at problems or themselves.

Marlene believed that opportunities to grow and develop as a manager in this job were the greatest benefit she had accrued, a theme expressed by all of the VMDs. She talked about this in her description of the investigation of the salaried manager (described previously):

> When I arrived at the base, I thought we could retrain this manager and put him back in the job. But his military supervisor wanted him gone. It did not take long to see, as I interviewed the whole gamut of people, that his errors in judgement made it necessary to recommend his removal. . . . When I called Pat [the interim managing director for Region 2], and she asked me to explain to the manager face-to-face since I conducted the investigation and he deserved that, I said, 'You've got to be kidding'. . . . But then I said to myself, 'Okay, Marlene you're a big girl. This is something from which you can learn and grow . . . and so I did.'

Case study 10. The last partnership studied was that of VMD Renee, and Anne, the SMD who for 17 years had been a salaried staff member for NOAH. Like all the other SMDs, Anne's long commitment to NOAH was rooted in a belief in the mission of the organization. This commitment had begun when she was a high school volunteer for NOAH. Beyond commitment to values implicit in the mission, Anne had a vested interest in seeing the partnership concept flourish. As she explained:

> John Bracken was the co-chairman of the committee that really designed the field service plan, and I was given an opportunity to work closely with him in the whole development of the process and coming up with a plan and the job description and the philosophy [of the partnership concept]. So I really felt I had a real buy in to that.

Renee, Anne's volunteer counterpart, was unique in terms of the way that she became socialized into the volunteer culture of NOAH. In the first interview she related how she came to be a NOAH volunteer:

> I started out volunteering because I wanted to do something worthwhile. I wanted my time to count for somebody . . . Well, first of all I had to wait until I got my only son in the first grade. So I had three hours a day and I went through the yellow pages and looked up organizations. And I saw NOAH listed and I thought now it is a one-on-one organization. I didn't want to stuff envelopes. I wanted to work directly with people, and so I started out as a service volunteer.

Eighteen years later Renee had become such a good salesperson for the value of the organization that her husband and 24-year old son were NOAH volunteers as well.

Anne and Renee negotiated the job tasks for each member of the partnership, based on the best use of each individual's talents and strengths. Since Renee worked at a salaried job 24 hours per week, her time involvement with the VMD position had to be tightly scheduled. According to her estimates, she devoted an average of 15-to-20 hours per week. Her activities included encouraging field staff to become aware of opportunities for growth; assist with the supervision, coordination, and evaluation of the work of the field service units, especially the larger key units and certain specialized service centers; plan regional activities; plan her budget expenditures; and help local units to raise funds, and to interpret policies, directives, and procedures for the field. Renee saw herself as one who carried out managerial activities, but also as one who related more to volunteers than to salaried staff.

Among the satisfactions for Renee were her feelings of being respected for her competencies, the openness of the AMH staff, and the way in which she was made to feel needed and wanted. The most important satisfaction was the feeling that she had an opportunity to achieve

worthwhile things with and through other people. When asked why she took this volunteer job as opposed to others, she responded:

> It was a matter of the best use of my time for the greatest gain for other people, and I couldn't do that in an art museum . . . Although art and culture serve a human need, that is not a basic need that has to do with the maintenance of human beings the way NOAH services do. . . . I couldn't survive with my goals for the organization if I didn't feel other people were in the same yoke with me, pulling for the same things, and I think we bounce off of each other our enthusiasm and our commitment so that we buoy each other up.

When Anne reflected on satisfactions that made the SMD job more attractive to her than other options, she recognized two foci: working with people and team building for the organization. She said:

> I really enjoy working with people and helping them to move through those phases of development to gain self-confidence and see them begin to really step out and accept more responsibility and work effectively with people. . . . The second thing that is important to me is helping to create a team. I think probably the greatest joy in the past three years has been the first two years during which Renee and I were able to work very closely with the staff in Region 2 at that time, when we only had two regions . . . to develop a very strong sense of teamwork . . . We've seen some very positive turn arounds in our local service delivery leadership as a result of working as a team with this whole system.

When it came time for Renee's term as VMD to end, a memory book of letters from both volunteer and salaried staff from the field was assembled. The letters verified the kinds of relationships that Anne and Renee had been able to establish with field staff--on a personal and professional level--to encourage them to work toward the achievement of organizational goals.

Summary

This chapter explains recent organizational changes of the nonprofit corporation which has been referred to in this study by the psuedonym of

NOAH for the purpose of anonymity. These changes led to a new "field service plan" which was directed by the goal of improved management oversite for the delivery of human services by NOAH in communities throughout the United States. The plan resulted in development of ten national regions directed by a peer management team partnership consisting of one salaried managing director (SMD) and one volunteer managing director (VMD). It is this two person management team partnership that provided the unit of analysis for the ten case studies presented in this chapter.

The three different area management headquarters (designated as Site 1, 2, and 3) out of which the ten management teams operate have been briefly described. These area management headquarters (AMH sites) are headed by a vice-president (AMH-VP) and a volunteer counterpart. These two persons constitute a management team partnership at the next level of management supervision above the ten regional management partnerships. They are responsible for management oversight of the area management headquarters staff, including the regional management teams located within their area. The AMH-VPs have been briefly described since they were interviewed for the purpose of triangulating data gathered in the case study interviews of the VMD/SMD partners in the ten regional management team partnerships.

A description of each of the ten cases study units (the regional management team partnership) has been presented in this Chapter. The focus of each description has been the most striking characteristics of each management team partnership that created satisfaction for the partners. Satisfaction has been a primary focus because of the theoretical relationship

spelled out in the review of the literature with regard to the linkage between the motivation of individuals to act in social relationships and the satisfaction of personal needs through goal-driven behavior. Satisfaction with each management team partnership was sufficient to warrant the reappointment of the volunteer managing director each year of the three-year term and to motivate the VMD to stay with the volunteer job for the full three year term. This choice to remain for the full three year term is significant because of the unusual demands of time and effort placed on the volunteers in the VMD job role which was documented in Chapter 3.

The analysis of data indicated that there were four partnerships (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7) that were characterized by a greater amount of satisfaction on the part of both partners than the remaining six partnerships (case studies 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10). Case studies 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10 represent mixed cases that were characterized by both satisfaction and certain aspects of dissatisfaction. While it is not within the scope and purpose of this study to evaluate the productivity of these partnerships, this finding is important because of the positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity indicated by the current research literature.

The aspects of dissatisfaction in the case studies identified as mixed cases will be presented in the following chapter on analysis and findings. This has not been done in Chapter IV due to the promise of confidentiality made to the informants by the researcher. The informants were assured that information of a sensitive nature would not be disclosed in any way that would identify their remarks with their personal identity.

Notes

1) Translating the spoken word to the written page can never be a completely satisfactory task. Certain accommodations must be made to achieve clarity and to aid the reader. Several minor modifications of the quoted responses of the informants were thus routinely applied in this study.

   A) Stuttering and stumbling over words have been omitted, as have such filler words as "uh," "um," and "you know."

   B) Groping for words, repetition of comments already quoted, and other comments irrelevant to the point being discussed in the text have been omitted. Such omissions are indicated by ellipsis periods.

   C) Dashes have been used to indicate situations where informants interrupted their own statements.

   D) In statements where pronoun references were unclear in the quoted response or where the informants gave bits of information in broken phrases, the researcher has inserted the topic or the summarized details within brackets.

   E) Informants' pauses between words and statements have been omitted to provide a smoother reading.

   F) With these minor exceptions, the quotations cited are the verbatim responses of the participants.

2) All quoted words and phrases in this chapter are excerpts from the informants' responses. Quotation marks have not been used for any other purpose.

3) The Flow Chart of Organizational Management (Figure 3) is greatly simplified to give the reader a sense of the relationship of the management teams to the rest of the organizational structure and the supervisory linkages for salaried and volunteer staff.

Chapter V

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter begins with a brief synthesis of the findings, followed by a presentation of the analysis of data as they relate to the research questions. It is important to restate at this point that the partnerships were initially defined as successful. For the purpose of this study, the definition of success was based on the ability of the organization to attract and retain skilled management-level volunteers to serve a three-year term in a job position to which they devoted an average of no less than 15 hours of work per week. Documentation provided in Chapter III indicates that the level of time commitment and expertise required by the VMD job positions over a three-year period was not to be found in any of the other 35 national voluntary associations surveyed. The reporting of the case studies in Chapter IV illustrate that the VMD and SMD in each management team partnership (that served as the unit of analysis for each case study) expressed satisfaction with their jobs and the accomplishments of the partnership.

Synthesis of Findings

During the preparation of the synthesis paper for each case, the 40 domains resulting from the first stage of analysis were studied. The purpose was to ascertain similarities across all cases that could explain common factors leading to job satisfaction for both VMDs and SMDs, as well as any additional factors which appeared to attract and retain the VMDs in such a demanding volunteer job. This examination of the data revealed

characteristics common across all management team partnerships in each of the ten case studies. Identification of these characteristics led to the discovery of **a pattern of related cultural themes that explained why SMDs and VMDs applied for the management team partnership job positions and what created satisfaction with the job position.**

As was explained in Chapter III, the central task of ethnography is to identify the major and minor cultural themes that organize the actions of individuals into patterns of meaningful behavior. A theme is any principle recurrent in a number of domains that serves as a relationship among subsystems of cultural meaning. Even though the theme may operate at a tacit level to direct behavior, it functions as a cognitive principle that people believe as true, and it represents an assumption about the nature of their commonly held experience. Possibly the most significant findings of this study were those which went beyond the discovery of characteristics that appear to explain how a VMD was attracted to and willing to remain in the VMD job for three years. These additional findings resulted from the analysis of cultural themes.

During the search for similarities across all cases, it became obvious there were four management team partnerships (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7) that stood out as unusual. These four partnerships were characterized by stronger statements of satisfaction by both the VMD and SMD than in other cases (case studies 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10). In addition, expressions of dissatisfaction were virtually absent in each of these four cases. These cases (3, 5, 6, and 7) were labeled the **highly satisfying cases**. The other six cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10) were characterized by many areas of satisfaction on the part of both partners (VMD and SMD) in each management team

partnership, as has already been observed, but these partnerships were also characterized by a number of themes that indicated the presence of dissatisfactions. These cases were labeled **the mixed cases**.

To discover the themes that were common across all cases, as well as those which were unique to the highly satisfying and the mixed cases, the domains were utilized to construct various matrices, providing for easy examination of dimensions of similarity and contrast from case-to-case. One of the matrices proved to be important in identifying themes that characterized the four highly satisfying partnerships, as well as themes that characterized the mixed cases. The theoretical framework guiding this study suggests that the domains of information relating to job content and job context should contain information relating to aspects of job satisfaction. The data bits within these domains were scrutinized, as well as two other unanticipated domains that emerged from the data analysis. These unanticipated domains were entitled "a kind of partnership problem" and "ways to improve a partnership." Figure 6 is a replication of the matrix on which these data were displayed. The column titles across the top of the figure represent domains that provided important dimensions of contrast for understanding why certain partnerships were more satisfying than others.

After all the data were entered, it was noted that certain cells were empty in four of the case studies. These cells fell under the two headings entitled "kind of partnership problems" and "ways to improve the partnership." These four cases were the same cases (3, 5, 6, and 7) in which high levels of satisfaction had already been observed in the synthesis papers written for each case. The close examination of the unique characteristics of the four management team partnerships in cases 3, 5, 6,

SITE	CASE	SMD JOB CONTENT	SMD JOB CONTEXT	VMD JOB CONTENT	VMD JOB CONTEXT	KIND OF PARTNERSHIP PROBLEMS		WAYS TO IMPROVE PARTNERSHIP	
						SMD PERCEPTION	VMD PERCEPTION	SMD PERCEPTION	VMD PERCEPTION
1	1								
	2								
	3					Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell
	4								
2	5					Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell
	6					Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell
	7					Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell	Empty cell
3	8								
	9								
	10								

Figure 6 Partnership Characteristics

and 7 led to the discovery of a pattern of themes. This pattern resulted in the identification of a fourth pattern of themes related to **unique characteristics of Site 2 organizational climate.**

The four patterns of minor themes identified above were related to a **major theme** that pervaded the culture of the management team partnerships. This theme can be stated as the principle that volunteer work is valuable to the organization and, therefore, volunteers accrue respect for their work and the status that is commensurate with that respect. This was a theme that had generality across all cases. However, as is true of commonly held beliefs within any culture or subculture of a particular group, some members embraced this belief and demonstrated it in their behavior more thoroughly than others. In turn, the more that members of a partnership engaged in behavior that demonstrated their belief in this principle, the more each partner expressed satisfaction with the partnership. Whenever this assumption about the value of the volunteer work began to break down on the part of either partner, dissatisfaction began to show up in the relationship.

Figures 7 and 8 provide a listing of the four sets of characteristics that led to the discovery of the four patterns of minor themes and one major theme that serves as a relationship among these four patterns of themes. In the four subsections that follow, these four sets of characteristics and the related themes they represent are discussed briefly. The data originally aggregated to support the sets of characteristics are reported under the primary and secondary questions that guided the development of the study. In this way, the discovery of themes important to the understanding of a social phenomenon, a process which is central to the research paradigm of

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS ACROSS ALL CASES	
SMD/VMD work commitment rooted in a common value system SMDs and VMDs worked up through the ranks of NOAH SMDs' and VMDs' experience with role models, mentors, and support persons SMDs strongly motivated by opportunities for achievement, and positive power VMDs strongly motivated by opportunities for affiliation, achievement, and personal growth VMDs' appreciation of special forms of support and recognition SMDs' belief that VMDs have special influence	
HIGHLY SATISFYING CASES (3, 5, 6, & 7)	MIXED CASES (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, & 10)
Frequent negotiation of SMD/VMD job content (clarification of expectations) SMD/VMD shared sense of responsibility for frequent communication updates SMD/VMD shared sense of peer relationship VMD sense of self-esteem and confidence VMD/SMD sense of shared control and accountability VMDs' socialization experiences with volunteerism	Concerns with evaluation and feedback Concerns with succession planning Concerns with communication and conflict resolution Interruption of "partnership life cycle" by turnover of the SMD position Problems related to the complementarity of VMD's skills with the skills of the SMD

Figure 7: Partnership Characteristics Leading to Discovery of Patterns of Minor Cultural Themes

SITE 2 CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO VMD/SMD PERCEPTIONS OF STRONG AMH SUPPORT

Highly participative management style of the AMH vice-president

Organization of AMH support staff for maximum assistance to management team partnership

Working relationship of AMH advisory council with management team partnerships

Celebration of significant personal life events as well as achievement of organizational goals with entire AMH staff

Ability of VMDs to engage in open communication and conflict resolution

Figure 8: Site 2 Characteristics Leading to Discovery of Major Cultural Theme

naturalistic inquiry, will not be lost. At the same time, placing the data in context with each research question will make more apparent the extent to which the question has been answered by the study.

Common characteristics across all cases. The interviews with both VMDs and SMDs indicated that their commitment to their job was rooted in a belief that can be stated by the principle (i.e., cultural theme) **that helping people meet their human needs in communities is worthwhile work**. This was an important factor that attracted them to fill jobs that demanded considerable managerial expertise, long hours of travel, and many hours away from home for both partners (the salaried and volunteer manager) in each of the management team partnerships.

Both the SMD and VMD positions had been acquired by providing a number of years of service to the organization and by working up through the ranks from a lesser to a greater management role in terms of responsibility and status associated with the position. (See Figures 4 and 5 for data on years of service.) Implicit in the presence of this characteristic was a principle (i.e., cultural theme) that **good work and dedicated service to NOAH are rewarded with upward mobility**, an extrinsic reward.

The promise of the reward of upward mobility was not all that attracted the management team partners to their jobs. Each SMD and VMD had been socialized by a variety of experiences to believe the principle that **volunteerism and the work of voluntary associations directed toward helping others is important work.** Such an assumption on the part of the informant was apparent in every interview. This commonly held belief appeared to be fostered by past experience with both salaried and

volunteer role models, mentors both within and outside the organization and special support persons such as family members.

The three characteristics of the management team partnerships discussed thus far and the cultural themes they represent appeared to be important factors in attracting the SMDs and VMDs to their job positions. It was not only the socialization factors of a common value system and experiences with role models, mentors, and support persons that made the job attractive, but the implicit promise of being rewarded for their work in a variety of ways based on past experiences in the organization.

The rewards that were acknowledged at the explicit level to be most important to the SMDs were opportunities for achievement and the exercise of positive power in influencing others to work toward achievement of organizational goals. These and other rewards of somewhat lesser importance that fit into Blau's categories of social exchange rewards are discussed in depth as the data related to specific research questions are presented. This characteristic of the SMDs was related once again to the theme expressed in the principle **good work and dedicated service to the organization will be rewarded** by forms of social exchange that result in both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards important to the individual. .

The rewards that were acknowledged at the explicit level to be most important to the VMDs were the opportunities for affiliation, achievement, and personal growth without the constraints imposed by a full-time salaried job with the organization. An important major theme that recurred in many of the 40 domains of cultural information indicated that, at the tacit level, the most important reward to the volunteers was the respect and status which they received for their work in the organization and specifically

in the VMD role. As stated earlier, this theme can be expressed by the principle that within the culture of the NOAH organization, volunteer work is valuable and, therefore, respect accrues to the volunteer commensurate with the contributions made to the organization. Sociologists contend that all cultures have some form of status system for the function of creating social stratification (Homans, 1974; Parsons, 1951). It appeared that NOAH represented a subculture in which the value of volunteer contributions served as a means for achieving status just as the accumulation of capital wealth or education credentials are two mechanisms for achieving status in the wider culture of American society.

The theme of respect for the volunteer work was apparent in another characteristic of the management team partnerships that created job satisfaction for the volunteers. This characteristic was the appreciation by all VMDs of the forms of organizational support and recognition they received. This characteristic represented a theme which can be stated by the principle **that tangible signs of public recognition and support for the work one does indicate the social approval of others**. A finding that may be important with regard to this theme is the fact that the data indicate SMDs, in general, did not perceive themselves to be receiving as much support and recognition as the VMDs perceived themselves to be receiving. This fact may be helpful in explaining why there was turnover in the SMD positions while there was none in the VMD positions. If this explanation is accurate, it serves as an example of equity theory in action.

A final characteristic noted across all cases was the belief by SMDs that VMDs possessed a special kind of power to influence other volunteers in the organization and important community members. They referred to

this influence as "volunteer clout." SMDs believed this influence was one of the important contributions that VMDs brought to the management team partnership.

Highly satisfying cases. There were six unique characteristics of the management team partnerships in case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7 which were related to the major theme that volunteer work is valuable and respected. The presence of these characteristics provided evidence of the degree to which each of the salaried and volunteer managers in these four management team partnerships embraced this principle and manifested the belief in their work-related behavior.

The partners in these case studies (3, 5, 6, and 7) demonstrated a sense of confidence in their own abilities and respect for each other that made it possible to communicate openly and confront difficult issues. They both took responsibility for frequent communication updates which resulted in clarification of expectations for both partners and made possible frequent negotiation (as opposed to delegation) of job tasks. Each partner made statements that implied there was a mutual perception of the other as a peer and co-equal partner in the management team relationship. This sense of co-equal partnership made it possible for the VMD and SMD to share control as well as accountability in achieving the program goals for their region.

Two factors appeared to be operating in these four management team partnerships that created optimum conditions for a peer relationship. First, the VMDs manifested an unusual amount of self-esteem and confidence that appeared to be related in part to the fact that their background in the organization consisted of a broader range of management experiences than

other VMDs, with one exception - the VMD in case study 2. In addition, these VMDs indicated they felt a greater sense of organizational support than other VMDs. The VMD sense of support in case study 3 seemed related to the participative management style of the SMD in the partnership, coupled with the VMD's healthy sense of confidence and ownership for the work of the region. There was an additional set of factors in case studies 5, 6, and 7 that created an unusual perception of support for the management team partnerships. These factors were related to characteristics of the organizational climate at site 2, which will be discussed separately.

A second factor related to the confidence of the VMD to function as a peer in these four cases (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7) may be related to their socialization experiences with volunteerism. Interview data suggest the volunteers from the Midwest may possess some characteristics not observed in the other cases. This is discussed in detail in the presentation of the data.

Mixed Cases. The presence of all six characteristics listed in Figure 7 appears necessary for the strong expressions of satisfaction that were manifested by both the VMD and SMD in the management team partnerships in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7. In cases in which all of these characteristics were not present (management team partnerships in cases 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10), there were mixed expressions of satisfaction with the management team partnerships along with expressions of dissatisfaction.

The characteristics that led to dissatisfaction were: 1) concerns over how to handle feedback and evaluation within the management team partnerships, 2) concerns about succession planning for the VMD partner, 3)

concerns about communication and conflict resolution within the partnership, 4) interruptions in the "partnership life cycle" caused by turnover in the SMD position, and 5) problems related to the complementarity of the VMD's skills with the skills of the SMD. These characteristics were not all present in each of the six mixed cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10). However, the presence of any one of these dissatisfactions in a management team partnership interfered with the mutual sense of a peer relationship.

The dissatisfactions appeared to be related to an important theme occurring in the mixed cases that stood in contradiction to the major theme that volunteer work is valued and respected. The contradictory theme can be expressed by the principle that **the staff member who is salaried is more accountable for the management team partnership outcomes than the volunteer counterpart**. SMDs and VMDs in these partnerships were asking themselves, "How can we be peers and share control in this management team partnership if one person is more accountable than the other?" The contradiction between this belief and the prevailing assumption that volunteers are valued, respected co-partners in the organization (as NOAH staff, salaried and volunteer, had been enculturated to believe), set up a conflict. The conflict begged an answer to the question, "Who is really in charge?" in these management team partnerships. Discomfort over the lack of resolution of this conflict made communication within the partnership more difficult. In turn, issues dealing with joint planning, feedback, evaluation, and negotiation of job tasks were more difficult to confront.

The characteristics associated with the management team partnerships in the highly satisfying cases (3, 5, 6, and 7) appeared to eliminate this conflict of the contradictory theme. The partners, both SMD and VMD, believed they shared equal accountability for regional outcomes. In case study 3, the mutual sense of confidence of the partners and their willingness to approach AMH leadership with difficult issues appeared to resolve the conflict of accountability. For the management team partnerships in cases 5, 6, and 7, certain unique aspects of the organizational climate contributed to resolving this conflict.

Site 2 characteristics. There were five characteristics at Site 2 area management headquarters that resulted in unusual expressions of feelings of organizational support for the management team partnerships in cases 5, 6, and 7. This support appeared to facilitate comfort on the part of both SMDs and VMDs in the three management team partnerships with shared control and accountability. These unique Site 2 characteristics were: 1) the highly participative management style of the AMH vice-president with all staff, both salaried and volunteer, in the planning process, 2) reorganization of the AMH support staff for maximum assistance to management team partnerships, 3) reorganization of the AMH advisory council to create a close working relationship to assist the management team partnerships in the achievement of regional goals, 4) the celebration of significant personal life events and achievement of organizational goals with entire AMH staff, and 5) certain characteristics of the volunteers who tended to be participative, confident, service-oriented volunteers who displayed an unusual amount of comfort and skill in confronting difficult issues and resolving them.

These five characteristics were related to a theme specific to Site 2 that can be stated by the principle **all staff, salaried and volunteer, selected to work at this AMH site are competent and valued for their work contribution; therefore, they should be co-equal partners in the program planning process and should all share responsibility for organizational outcomes.** Statements made by VMDs at Site 2 indicated their awareness that this belief was operating at the tacit level. This awareness appeared to enhance their confidence as a VMD and their commitment to involvement and accountability in the VMD job. Interviews with both VMDs and SMDs at Site 2 contained statements that indicated their confidence in AMH support allowed them to take the risk of being innovative in carrying out their jobs. They also knew it was acceptable to make mistakes once in a while. Mistakes were considered part of the risk of innovation; but along with the freedom to be innovative, they believed they shared a commensurate responsibility to see that program outcomes were achieved.

The data that support the presence of these patterns of characteristics and related themes in the management team relationship are presented in the sections that follow. They are placed in context with the specific research question for which they are relevant.

Primary Question One

1. **Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to volunteers, in the performance of a job?**

Theory and research presented in Chapter II suggest that human motivation to do work is complex in several ways: 1) it derives from energy that is goal-directed or purposive, 2) it is derived from complex sources, 3) it

is a feedback process involving a chain of events related to the individual value placed on certain outcomes and the probability of achieving them, and 4) the motives that cause motivation cannot be seen, only inferred. All the theories of motivation presented share a common origin in action theory which provides a framework for explaining human interaction within the structure of social systems (Parsons, 1951). Action theory is based on the premise that all human action carried out in relationship to another person or collectivity is directed toward the goal of gratification of the actor's needs or avoidance of deprivation.

The research base to date suggests that there are a number of questions which must be asked to determine what kinds of need gratification (i.e., rewards) motivate volunteers and whether the factors which motivate them are different than those that motivate salaried staff. Based on this research and the need to elicit any relevant information not suggested by the literature, secondary research questions were designed to assist in answering each of the primary research questions. In the following subsections, the secondary questions relevant to answering primary question one, are first presented along with the substantiating data. Finally, a summary statement is presented in response to primary question one.

Secondary question 1a. Is it possible that salaried staff and volunteers can, in fact, perform the same job working as a team?

The job descriptions for the SMD and VMD positions in Appendix A demonstrate that the volunteer manager is asked to assist the salaried manager in carrying out the same job duties that appear in the SMD's job description with one exception. Item 2d states that the VMD will have

primary responsibility to plan, promote, organize, and participate in regional conferences.

An examination of the job content for VMDs and SMDs across all cases revealed that volunteers demonstrated both the ability and willingness to do anything that the salaried manager did. In every case, however, either the VMD or SMD acknowledged that it was impossible for a volunteer to be responsible on an on-going basis for the day-to-day operations that are crucial for providing continuity in management oversight to the region because the volunteer was not at the area management headquarters often enough. The case of VMD Renee, who assumed Anne's role during her absence of two weeks (case study ten), did demonstrate that it could be done on a short-term basis. Howard and Milton (case study 6) were convinced that VMD Howard also could do this if necessary, and Howard expressed the willingness to do so if needed. Chuck (case study 3) was convinced that there was not a thing he had done that VMD Helene had not also done--and equally well--at some point in the partnership. Of all the partnerships, these two partners came the closest to carrying out identical job descriptions in actual practice. They had divided the region and done the same thing in different areas. Since Helene's home base was only five hours from Site 1 AMH and she was willing to commit a lot of time to travel, she even became involved and knowledgeable in some of the day-to-day operations of the region.

These partnerships indicate that volunteers can and are willing to perform the same job tasks as salaried staff. In the remaining seven cases, all volunteers, at some point during their term, performed all of the job tasks on the formal job description, with the exception of planning the

regional budget. The majority of the VMDs had not been involved with this job responsibility.

In all cases, it was apparent that the VMD and SMD were working together as a team to see that all the job tasks for the region were accomplished. Even in case study 2 where Edith and Fred had only ten months to establish a team relationship, they were able to end the VMD term by doing work performance reviews of the field service staff as a team. It is unlikely, however, that many volunteers would be willing or able at any given time to perform all the tasks, to the extent that the salaried manager does, due to less availability at the AMH site and the time commitment. The three most involved VMDs, in terms of time commitment, indicated they worked an average of 30-to-40 hours per week on the job. The four least involved worked an average of 15-to-20 hours per week. In contrast, all SMDs, with the exception of one, indicated on the written form for demographic information that they worked in excess of 40 hours per week. One of the reasons given by VMDs for satisfaction with the volunteer job is that it allowed them the flexibility to say no to work assignments at certain times.

Freta (case study 4) said,

> This job gives me opportunities for personal growth, training, and travel in a way that still allows me to make my family a first priority. I can say no to the job when I need to put them first because I am not paid for what I do.

Howard (case study 6) said,

> The only frustration with this job is that I have to make a living so it limits the time I can spend doing all the things I'd like to do. On the other hand there's the satisfaction of knowing I can say, 'this is the extent of work I have time to do because I'm not being paid.'

Marlene (case study 9) explained,

> I live the closest to the area management headquarters of any VMD. I'm just a 45 minute drive away. I could easily get heavily involved in the day-to-day operations, but I don't want to. At this time of my life, I value being a volunteer rather than a paid staff person because it allows me to build in time each day with my husband, starting with an hour of tennis every morning. This time with him is important to me because he is my best friend.

What seemed important to the team effort in accomplishing the work of the region was not that each partner remained faithful to performing all tasks on the formal job description simultaneously, but that they used it as a point of departure from which to design a plan that would take the greatest advantage of the skills, talents, and time of the SMD and VMD. Interviews from case studies 3, 5, 6 and 7 were filled with comments about how the partners engaged in frequent renegotiation of the job content of the VMD job so their work complemented the work of the SMD as situations and conditions changed in the region. In fact, there was not a VMD in these four cases who assumed primary responsibility for planning and organizing regional meetings as the job description suggested. This responsibility was jointly shared between the SMD and VMD in each of the four partnerships because it happened that this was the most effective way to get this particular job task done in these four regions given the unique characteristics of the partners.

In case studies 3 and 5, Helene and Rose had tackled, with frequency, every task on the job description, with the exception that Rose had had little to do with preparing the regional budget. She did, however, assist field service staff with their budget process. This kind of comprehensive sharing of responsibilities with the SMD was quite likely

made possible by the amount of time each was able to devote to the job (see Figure 4, Chapter IV) as well as the breadth of experience each had had in a variety of volunteer roles within the organization. Howard and Marshall (case studies 5 and 7) could not devote the same amount of time to the VMD job; consequently, they and their SMD counterparts were more selective in the ways that the volunteer contributed. As Howard's SMD counterpart Milton related:

> This job is a marriage where the division of labor is constantly being negotiated . . . And I don't ever remember saying now which one of us is going to take the lead in this' . . . Typically, after we look at the situation and what is needed, it just happens naturally that one of us takes the lead and the other assists, depending on the skills needed and the time available at the moment.

This statement indicates there was great flexibility with regard to what each partner did and when it was done, based on an up-to-date assessment of a given situation.

The question posed in 1a was "Is it possible that salaried staff and volunteers can, in fact, perform the same job working as a team?" The answer to this question is yes in the sense that volunteers in this study demonstrated the ability and willingness to do any job task that was also done by the salaried manager. However, the answer to the question must be no if it is answered from the viewpoint that doing the same job means working at all of these tasks to the same extent as the salaried manager. The SMDs worked a longer number of hours per week and were necessary in providing continuity on a day-to-day basis for management oversight of the region. In no case was the VMD willing to give up the flexibility of the volunteer role to make choices about when and how much time would be given to the job. The opportunity to do meaningful work and yet have this

flexibility was one of the factors that attracted each of the VMDs to the job and made them willing to stay with it.

Secondary question 1b. What are the social exchange factors that motivate volunteer staff to perform their job?

There was evidence throughout the case studies that the six categories of rewards delineated by Blau (see Chapter II, Figure 1) were present as forms of social exchange for the VMDs. Chapter II provides a detailed discussion as to how these categories of rewards function as benefits which motivate individuals to provide services to an organization.

The first of the six categories of rewards identified by Blau was the intrinsic reward of personal attraction, that is the satisfaction which is derived from a sense of mutual interest in affiliation between two persons. This reward grows out of spontaneous evaluation. While it motivates an individual to remain in a social relationship, it cannot be bartered for that individual's instrumental services because its value resides in the belief that the action is genuine and not rendered in order to create obligation. The reward of personal attraction was evident in the strong friendships that grew between VMD and SMD. These were particularly evident in cases 3, 4, 6, and 9. Chuck (SMD, case study 3) stated, "I think we have one of the best partnerships. We not only respect each other as managing directors but as friends." In case study 4 when SMD Adrianne was asked about ways that she provided support and recognition for Freta, she replied, "One of the ways is by doing things on a social basis. I consider her a friend." At the time of the second interview, Freta talked about the continuation of this friendship after her term as VMD expired. When it was possible for VMD Howard's wife (case study 6) to travel with him to Site 2 AMH, they

enjoyed social engagements with SMD Milton and his wife. The partners in case studies 4 and 6 talked about exchanging gifts on special occasions, such as birthdays, which were tangible signs of the friendship.

Further evidence that the VMDs were experiencing the reward of personal attraction was the amount of information elicited from the interviews on the importance of opportunities for affiliation as a result of the VMD job. In depth analysis of this subject is provided in answering the next research question. It is important to note at this point that the opportunity to satisfy needs for affiliation was the most important category emphasized by VMDs of the three major needs categories identified by McClelland. This satisfaction with opportunities for affiliation indicates that personal attraction between volunteers and other members of the organization was present in many ways.

Blau's second category of social exchange rewards that are intrinsic in nature is that of social acceptance. This benefit, unlike personal attraction, can be bartered for services. Much like personal attraction, the sense that individuals are receiving this benefit through a particular association can only be inferred, not directly observed, since the feeling is generated internally in return for doing what one perceives to be socially acceptable. This makes the concept a difficult construct to document, but as the quotations in Chapter IV illustrate, the VMDs had experienced positive feelings of self-esteem emanating from a belief that they were doing work valuable to society and, therefore, were rewarded with an internal feeling of social acceptability. This theme was best illustrated in case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7 by Helene, Rose, Howard and Marshall, but was present across all cases.

Throughout the interviews in cases 3, 5, 6 and 7, the interviewer observed that the four VMDs had an especially positive view of themselves as volunteers and what they contributed to the partnerships. When asked about the way in which the organization provided support for the volunteer, Marshall (VMD in case study 7) talked about the adequate budget for travel, maintenance, and meals and added, "That says to me they have confidence in my ability to be able to help and to be a plus for the organization."

When VMD Howard (case study 6) was asked why he took this job as opposed to other options, he replied:

> There were several reasons. One was that it looked like it was going to be fun to do--nothing wrong with having fun at your work . . . but also if someone such as myself who had served on the highest governing board in the organization were to take this job, it would indicate to others how serious the organization was about the importance of the job . . . In other words, I would lend credibility to the job . . . and that's Milton's style. He doesn't want a VMD he has to introduce.

Both Helene and Rose (VMDs, case studies 3 and 5) made similar statements that indicated they felt internal esteem for the work they did. VMD Renee (case study 10) indirectly expressed feeling a sense of social acceptance for her work as a volunteer when she stated, "I started out volunteering because I wanted to do something worthwhile. I wanted my time to count for somebody." Each VMD made similar kinds of statements.

These statements illustrated an important theme that was common across all cases for VMDs. The theme was embodied in the principle that their work commitment was strongly rooted in a value system that was consistent with the mission of NOAH to help others meet their human needs within a community. Stated explicitly, the principle is that helping

others meet their human needs is a worthwhile use of one's time and talent. Since such a value is generally believed to hold a fair amount of social acceptance in American culture, a good case can be argued that the service rendered by the VMDs in their NOAH job creates for them an inner sense of social acceptance. This theme was stated in several ways in response to the question, "Why did you take this job as opposed to others, or what are the satisfactions in this job?" Helene, VMD at Site 1, explained it this way:

> I am sold on what NOAH stands for and I have said that for years. I don't care who does the job as long as it's done. I just want to be sure that everyone is getting the best kind of service that they can . . . You have a vision. You say there is something I can contribute to strengthen what is being done in the community.

VMD Chella said, "I have a desire to care for people. What better way can you do it than by working for NOAH?" Renee, VMD at Site 3, perhaps expressed this value as clearly as anyone:

> It's NOAH's mission that is so important to me, and there are few people in the organization that I have met that I didn't respond to positively . . . I want to live in a community where people have the kind of help that NOAH gives and where people help other people. I think NOAH is just about the best vehicle for doing that. So it's bigger than all of us.

The data presented above demonstrate that the VMDs were engaged in work that they personally valued and that they believed was valued by others in the organization. In every VMD interview this view was expressed. It is logical to infer that these positive feelings reflected feelings of social acceptability.

Blau's first category of social exchange that is extrinsic in nature, social approval, was a less difficult concept to document. This reward category results from spontaneous evaluations. Like personal attraction, it

cannot be bartered directly for instrumental services to the organization. However, the reward motivates the individual to remain in the social relationship if the bestowal of the reward appears to be genuine. There were many tangible signs of evidence that the VMDs were receiving this benefit. Tied very closely in meaning to this category of reward was the major theme that **volunteer work is valuable** and volunteers are, therefore, provided with tangible and public forms of appreciation in return for their contributions to the organization. This theme was reflected in many of the domains, particularly those dealing with recognition and support. They are dealt with together because the comments of the VMDs indicated that many forms of recognition were also viewed as a way of supporting the work of the volunteer, and vice-versa. The domains entitled "a way to recognize a VMD" and "a way to support a VMD" indicated that there were numerous ways of providing recognition and support that were valued by the VMDs.

Each VMD interview contained comments about various kinds of personal recognition. At the end of the three-year term for the first cadre of VMDs, each area management headquarters hosted special dinners or receptions at the national convention, or a "roast" to honor outgoing VMDs. In every case, each VMD received a gift that had special meaning for him or her.

At Site 1, each VMD received a framed water color or print that was chosen especially to match the personality, home, and history of the volunteer in some special way. Each SMD took time to plan this match, and the VMDs talked about how the personal touch made the gift a more significant form of recognition. At Site 2, each VMD received a different

kind of personalized gift. Rose, for example, was presented a special plaque with an engraved inscription reminding her of how she had "soared with eagles" in contributing to the achievements in Region 1. At Site 3, the VMDs received caricatures drawn by the daughter of the AMH vice-president, as well as a book of letters of praise and appreciation from field staff in each of their respective regions. These were only a few of the many forms of recognition mentioned.

Comments made by VMDs indicated that the most meaningful forms of recognition were those which were personalized. At Site 2, SMD Frank wrote letters of appreciation for his VMD's outstanding work, and sent them to her husband and children. These letters had great meaning for Rose. Chella (Site 3) believed her SMD counterpart Pat provided both recognition and support at regional meetings when introducing her by "touting a job I had just accomplished." Edith (Site 1) was deeply moved at the Site 1 AMH reception for the VMDs at the national convention when she was presented with gifts from several of the well-known NOAH volunteer leaders for whom she had been a mentor.

The four VMDs at Site 1 were given an award at the end of their term that has been designated by NOAH as the highest honor for service within the organization. Three of the four persons talked about this award as a special form of recognition. While it was not a personalized form of recognition, the fact that it was given only for a very high level of commitment to the work of the organization made it a significant form of recognition.

Evidence that examples of recognition were numerous is provided by the number of data bits appearing in the domain entitled "a way to

recognize a VMD." Of the 40 domains that resulted from the content analysis of the data, this domain was one of the nine largest. (These nine domains contained at least double the number of data bits found in the other 31 domains.) The data indicate that the volunteers were experiencing social approval from others in the organization and they saw the many forms of recognition as tangible evidence of this reward.

Two of the most frequently mentioned forms of support in the domain entitled "a way to support a VMD" were also viewed by some VMDs as a form of recognition. They were the most commonly valued and obvious examples of Blau's fifth category of rewards which he labels as "instrumental services". The term refers to a sociological concept arising out of action theory used to designate types of "rational" action aimed at attaining specific ends which tend to be objective, intellectual, and relatively impersonal in nature (Hoult, 1969). This kind of action contrasts with expressive action which is aimed at meeting the affective needs of an individual, such as action which provides the benefits of personal attraction, social acceptance, and social approval. In action theory, the term expressive action is used to designate types of action that are products of an internal state of an individual and tend to be emotional and subjective in nature (Hoult, 1969).

Instrumental services provided to the volunteers are rational objects which tend to enhance their skills and performance so they, in turn, can better provide instrumental services to the organization. While instrumental services are non-relational rewards, they become linked with relational kinds of rewards that involve expressive action. The rendering of instrumental services to the organization by the volunteer in return for

instrumental services provided to them results in social approval and feelings of social acceptability - rewards that are associated with expressive action.

The first form of support most frequently mentioned by the VMDs that serves as an example of the reward category "instrumental services" was the training and development opportunities provided by NOAH. Eight out of ten VMDs offered comments about these opportunities without any direct questioning on the subject.

NOAH offers five levels of leadership development training. Recently, 200 NOAH staff persons joined with expert consultants to design a comprehensive human resources management system that NOAH claims "rivals that of any other organization" (NOAH, 1986a, p. 2). The expert consultants were volunteers that were provided by a multi-national corporation and a prestigious west coast consulting firm. The system designed by the NOAH staff and consultants offers "state of the art" management and personal development seminars for volunteer and salaried staff managers at all levels of the organization. The most frequently mentioned single training event by VMDs was a week-long management seminar entitled "Personal Excellence." In some cases, both the SMD and VMD attended this seminar together, and their general evaluation of it was reflected in Renee's (case study ten) statement that "this program . . . was superior to any other training I ever had."

The second form of support most valued by the VMDs that fits Blau's reward category of instrumental services was the travel and maintenance budget available to each VMD as needed. Seven out of ten VMDs talked about the value of this service to them without any direct questioning on

the subject. This budget paid for all necessary travel during the performance of the job and included the privilege of a credit card for airline tickets and phone calls necessary to carry on the work of the region. SMDs and VMDs attempted to estimate this budget, but it was a difficult task because expenditures were coded in different ways. The average of the approximated budgets was $14,000 per year per VMD. This form of support was important because it allowed the VMDs to do their job without using personal financial resources, and it was viewed as a special form of recognition by some. As Helene (case study 3) said, "Providing me with a travel budget adequate to do the job contains an implicit message that I must be contributing something very valuable to the organization." In her statement, one can see not only the valuing of the instrumental service by the volunteer, but an awareness of the major cultural theme expressed throughout the interviews that volunteer work is valued and respected by the organization.

A complete listing of the specific forms of recognition and support that appeared in the domains is provided in Appendix E. The listing is included because the appreciation of forms of recognition and support appeared to be strongly related to the volunteers' sense of affirmation that they were personally valued for their achievements. In this way they were receiving the more intrinsic reward of social acceptance as well as the tangible signs of social approval. The data provide evidence that the forms of recognition and support each VMD listed as important to him or her were also linked to personal need satisfaction which was being met by participation in the organization. Rose (case study 5), who was perceived by both her SMD counterpart and herself as being more motivated by achievement than by

the other two need categories identified by McClelland, mentioned seven times instances of achievement which she felt good about. The recognition which was important to her was related to her achievements in the organization. The interviews were replete with such examples.

The provision of opportunities for achievement was a third example of an instrumental service provided to the VMDs. VMDs believed they had been provided with meaningful work that challenged them to develop and apply the best of their talents and skills. There is no doubt that the VMDs valued the numerous opportunities that NOAH afforded them for achievement. In-depth analysis of this need fulfillment category as it relates to McClelland's theory is provided in the answer to the next research question. The opportunity to validate self-worth through achievement was a theme of major importance related to the participation and satisfaction of the VMDs in their jobs. It is important to note this theme occurred frequently in the domain entitled "a kind of VMD job satisfaction," as well as in "a way to recognize a VMD." An example of the latter was Helene's statement: "One of the ways I feel they give me recognition is by giving me increasingly challenging job responsibilities.

The interviews elicited examples of rewards to VMDs from the unilateral category of social exchange that includes respect and prestige. This was the third reward category arising out of spontaneous evaluations that cannot be bartered for the recipient's services, but motivate the recipient to remain in the social relationship. One example is the special respect paid by two other VMDs who spoke of Edith (case study 2) as a mentor in their volunteer careers, inspiring them to work up through the ranks of the organization as she did. The awareness of prestige associated

with the job was obvious in the comment of one VMD at site 1 who stated, "One of the satisfactions of this job is filling a prestigious position." Other comments made by VMDs at Site 1 indicated a consciousness of the prestige of the position which was not evident at the other two sites.

Helene (case study 3) spoke of one kind of VMD satisfaction as "the respect which I receive both within the organization and from my [extended] family for the work I do with NOAH in the VMD position." Another example of this respect was Marshall's statement (case study 7): "They [AMH management] respect us for our ability to make contributions to management decisions at the regional level." When William (case study 1) was asked about ways he received recognition, he spoke of the sense of respect that he felt from the AMH management staff when he, along with the other VMDs, was recognized for his achievements as a VMD at a management retreat. He stated, "That felt very good. I must confess, I kind of ate that up.

The theme of respect for the value of their volunteer work was evident in the interviews. The many statements that inferred the volunteers were sensing a presence of social approval as an individual and social acceptance for their individual achievements were laden with overtones of the more generalized concept of respect. As Blau defines this category of reward, it differs from social approval in its diffuseness. For instance, an individual may feel self esteem for the approval shown to them by an individual for a specific act. This differs from the more generalized sense of respect bestowed upon them by the organization for their overall talent and skills that qualify them for the position they hold. The VMDs realized that others in the organization were aware that an individual was

offered the VMD position as a result of many years of work for the organization that was considered to be of high quality. Blau also contends that this reward category is unilateral. In other words, it entails the direct cost of subordination for suppliers in some ways. This could be seen in the deference shown to the volunteer for their opinion on certain matters by other members of the organization.

The theme of respect for the volunteer contribution to the organization was very evident in another domain entitled "the way a VMD helps the SMD get the job done". An included term or data bit recorded in this domain occurred in nine of the SMD interviews. It had to do with a special kind of influence which the SMDs believed the volunteer managers possessed and was referred to by the informants as "volunteer clout." It was their belief that in certain situations volunteers have more acceptance and influence with the public and their peers than salaried staff. Nine of the SMDs and five of the VMDs stated this in some way in their interviews. The SMD at Site 1, Adrianne (case study 4) said it this way:

> There is no question that there are times if you are a paid staff member, you aren't going to have the clout or credibility in NOAH when you go to the unit level. If a volunteer from the national board of directors or the VMD tells them they are doing something wrong or even right, the implications are totally different than if it comes from a member of the bureaucracy [the salaried staff].

SMD Martin, (case study 7) in talking about the work of VMD Marshall, stated the essence of "VMD clout" in these words:

> His enormous NOAH background is very helpful in shaping strategies, and he has a built-in acceptability level with respect to volunteers. He is fearless . . . I have been present when he has taken on some tough issues that I could not have handled as effectively. As a paid staff person, my motives would have been questioned.

The statements of the SMDs with regard to what they called "volunteer clout" serve as an example of the respect which they bestowed upon the VMD while, at the same time, illustrating a special kind of influence that serves as an example of the unilateral category of social exchange in which Blau includes compliance and power. This sixth category represents the third kind of reward that arises out of calculated actions and can be bartered for the services of the individual (in this case the volunteer). This special kind of influence allowed the VMD to gain compliance from others in the form of commitment to work together to achieve organizational goals. None of the VMDs or SMDs used the word power or compliance to describe the influence of the VMDs in the organization, yet the SMDs seemed very aware that it translated into power to engage others in action directed toward achieving regional goals. This was why the SMDs were willing at times to subordinate their role in meetings to that of the VMD, subordination being one of the costs to the supplier of a unilateral category of reward. Several SMDs illustrated the point with statements similar to this one:

> I try always to put my VMD up front in regional meetings, and I remain low key because I know he can influence others to do things for the organization in a way that I don't have the same kind of influence [i.e., power] to move them to action.

The question posed in 1b was "What are the social exchange factors that motivate volunteer staff to perform their job?" In answer to the question, data have been presented that illustrate the VMDs were receiving social exchange rewards in all six categories delineated by Blau. All appeared to be important in motivating volunteers to accept and remain in the job. There was considerable evidence that they were receiving the

rewards of personal attraction, social acceptance, social approval, and instrumental services. Running throughout all the interviews was a general theme that they were valued for their volunteer work, and this implied that they perceived themselves to be receiving respect and status that led to both self-esteem and esteem bestowed upon them by others. This theme was reflected in the interviews over and over again in indirect ways, but the VMDs personally did not speak about the theme as directly as they did certain other rewards. Instead, much of this attitude seemed to be operating at a tacit level and affected the provision of rewards in other categories. The recurrence of the theme of respect for the volunteer in many domains indicated that the category of respect was the most important reward the VMDs were receiving.

Blau's last category of rewards, which includes power and compliance, seemed the least important of the rewards. At least half of the VMDs were aware of the power which they possessed to influence others in the organization by virtue of respect they received as volunteers of long standing and the concept that SMDs referred to as "volunteer clout." However, they did not dwell on this subject to any great extent in the interviews.

Secondary question 1c. How are these social exchange factors related to McClelland's categories of needs?

Embedded in the six social exchange reward categories just discussed were numerous opportunities for VMDs to experience the kinds of need fulfillment described by David McClelland's major categories of needs; that is, opportunities for important kinds of achievement through carrying out difficult tasks and engaging in training for personal growth, opportunities to

exercise positive power in such a way as to have influence and impact on others, and opportunities for affiliation that led to satisfying interaction and work with others. Following is an example of the importance of opportunities for achievement as stated by Freta (VMD, case study 4):

> I do the job because . . . I have found that achievement on the job is very important to me. It motivates me to do other things and it's also my own personal paycheck. If I achieve something, then I know that I have gotten something that money can't buy. . . . If I haven't achieved, I don't have personal growth. So you see, with achievement, I get personal satisfaction.

Chella (VMD, case study 8) talked about the opportunities she had to influence people in the organization, and how important this was to her:

> To be able to express ideas to local service delivery units about things that I see they should be concerned about and then see them carry out some of the ideas makes me feel that I have really achieved something.

Helene (VMD, case study 3) spoke of the affiliations in NOAH that brought satisfaction to her as she talked about the fun she and others had had with salaried staff. She related a story about Alice Stone, who had been the manager of volunteers at one of the four regional offices that preceded the new AMH sites:

> She's the one who really got us started in NOAH. She said 'Look gals, this is worthwhile and I'm ready to put my name on the line to see that you get what's coming to you' . . . I have often thought what joy she had in life and what fun it was to work with her . . . Dynamic, brilliant funny leader. She was fantastic! Fantastic! She had a way that made you enjoy every bit of what you were doing . . . Things could be really grim and Alice would come along. She always had a cigarette holder, a long one, and she held it this way. And within five minutes of being in Alice's company, you would look around and everyone there was holding their cigarette the same way, and they were not even conscious of it.

Each interview transcript was analyzed for statements that implied the importance of these opportunities which were expressed indirectly in

response to such broad questions as: "Tell me about your job." " What aspects of the job lead to the greatest satisfaction for you?" "Why did you take this job, as opposed to others?" At the end of each interview, the VMD received an explanation of the positive traits (Chapter II, pages 40 and 41) that characterize persons who are striving to fulfill McClelland's three categories of needs through their work within the organizational context. The interviewer pointed out that the VMDs had already provided examples of the importance of meeting these needs. She also pointed out that while people can engage in negative behavior to meet these needs, they also can be--and frequently are--manifested in positive behaviors to achieve group goals within the organizational context. The VMDs were asked to review again the traits associated with these categories and rank order the importance of the needs for themselves in the SMD job. They could give an equal rank to one or more categories if they believed that was the most accurate way to describe themselves.

After the VMDs rated themselves on these traits, their volunteer counterpart and the AMH vice-president were asked to rate them also. Then, the number of times each need fulfillment was implied in the interview was used as a fourth way to rank order the importance of categories. In this way, a comparison could be made between what people perceived to be most important and what they, in fact, tended to focus on as they answered the same set of questions across cases.

The results of the rank orderings for the VMDs are reported in Figure 9. If the strict methodology of traditional quantitative analysis was used to give the same rank order to two items, as has been done in this figure, the items would share the rank of 1.5 instead of being assigned a rank of one;

SITE	CASE	VMDs	TIMES IMPLIED INDIRECTLY BY VMD	VMD PERCEPTION OF SELF	SMD PERCEPTION OF VMD	VP PERCEPTION OF VMD
1	1	William	7 Achievement 4 Affiliation 4 Positive power	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Achievement 2 Affiliation 3 Positive power
	2	Edith	4 Affiliation 2 Achievement 1 Positive power	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement
	3	Helene	8 Achievement 3 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 1 Positive power 2 Achievement	1 Affiliation 1 Achievement 2 Positive power	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 2 Achievement
	4	Freta	7 Affiliation 5 Achievement 3 Positive power	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power
2	5	Rose	7 Achievement 4 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Affiliation 3 Positive power	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power
	6	Howard	4 Positive power 3 Affiliation 2 Achievement	Couldn't rate self in these terms	1 Positive power 2 Achievement 3 Affiliation	1 Positive power 1 Affiliation 2 Achievement
	7	Marshall	4 Achievement 2 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Affiliation 3 Positive power	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power
3	8	Chella	3 Affiliation 2 Positive power 2 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power
	9	Marlene	4 Positive power 4 Achievement 1 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power	1 Positive power 1 Achievement 1 Affiliation	1 Positive power 2 Affiliation 3 Achievement
	10	Renee	4 Achievement 3 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 2 Achievement	1 Positive power 2 Affiliation 3 Achievement	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation

Figure 9: Social Exchange Factors As Motivators For VMDs

or, in the case of three items with equal rank, they would share the rank of two. Furthermore, in this strict sense of quantitative analysis, the method of rank ordering the categories in the first column reported in the figure would be totally inappropriate. This presentation of data is not intended to represent a statistical analysis. The categories have been arranged this way to ascertain patterns of similarity and contrast among the three sources of reported perceptions of the relative importance of these needs, and a possible fourth indicator drawn from the implications of interview statements.

Since each of the ten VMDs was rated in four different ways, there were 40 possibilities for any one of the three categories to be named as the first category of needs motivating the VMDs to perform in their jobs. Of the 40 possible opportunities for any one of the three categories to be rated first in importance, affiliation appeared first 19 times; achievement, 13 times; and positive power, 7 times. One VMD stated that he "simply was not able to think of himself in these terms." The cell entitled "VMD perception of self" is, therefore, empty in case study six.

The findings show considerable agreement across the four ways of rating the VMDs. There was consistency in the top rating three-out-of-four times for seven VMDs, and four-out-of-four times for two of the VMDs. The ratings for only one VMD showed mixed results. Numerous quotes are provided in Chapter IV illustrating how the VMDs prized these opportunities for affiliation and achievement.

The question posed in 1c was "How are these social exchange factors related to McClelland's categories of needs?" Data have been presented to demonstrate that needs were being fulfilled in all three

categories as the VMDs participated in their job role as a managing director. Opportunities for affiliation are examples of Blau's reward category of personal attraction. Opportunities for achievement fit the reward category of instrumental services, and opportunities to exert positive power fit the category of power and compliance. The interview data provide evidence that meeting positive affiliation needs was of greater importance than the other two categories, with achievement needs second in importance. It seems logical to assume that opportunities for affiliation and achievement play an important role in attracting and retaining skilled volunteers in top-level management jobs since they were so frequently mentioned in responses to indirect questions, such as "What are the aspects of this job that lead to satisfaction?" and "Why did you take this job as opposed to other options?" Self-ratings by the VMD and ratings on the VMD by the SMD and AMH-VP indicated the same order of importance for the fulfillment of McClelland's categories of needs.

Secondary question 1d. How are these social exchange factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

Embedded within the categories of social exchange rewards are examples of needs being fulfilled that fit Maslow's three categories of higher-order needs that he labels social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. Just as Blau contends that striving to gratify needs for social exchange rewards motivates persons to engage in social action, Maslow contends that striving to fulfill these higher-order needs motivates persons to action. Seven of the ten interviews with the VMDs contained an important theme expressed by **the principle that personal growth and continuing career development create satisfaction and are a**

measure of success. Meeting these needs through the job fits the category of needs "self-actualization," as it is defined by Maslow (Chapter II, p. 31). William (case study 1) put this theme into words:

> Leadership volunteering for me was a learning process. I was the shyest person in the world before I became involved in these various volunteer roles . . . and I'll tell you I did them with much trepidation. Today, I would go out with confidence and sell refrigerators to Eskimos. . . . I feel I have grown in my people skills and management skills as a result of the training programs they have let me participate in, which have been extremely good.

These same feelings were expressed in numerous ways. Renee (case study 10), talking about her personal growth through training programs, said:

> NOAH has provided lots and lots of training opportunities and some challenges that I went through kicking, screaming, and fighting; but I came out ahead . . . These opportunities have increased my self-esteem and today I am a much more confident person . . . The last program I went through, entitled 'Personal Excellence,' was superior to any training that I have ever had.

These opportunities for personal growth reflect the meeting of personal needs in the category of self-actualization. NOAH provided the instrumental services (Blau's reward category) of training and development that allowed self-actualization to take place for the VMDs.

In the three interviews where the theme of self-actualization was not prominent, the prevailing theme related to Maslow's category "esteem needs." The three volunteers stated that their job satisfaction was related to feelings of being useful and needed, and that they were utilizing their talents and skills to do something important for others. These statements correlated with Maslow's definition of internal esteem needs which include feelings of self-respect, autonomy, and achievement. They also were

experiencing the external esteem factors of status, recognition, and attention. This was illustrated in case study 8 when VMD Chella spoke of the "positive strokes" from field staff who missed her when she had not been working in their area for a time, or by VMD Howard (case study 6) and VMD Marshall (case study 7) when they spoke of the feeling of respect which they felt from the AMH management staff "for our ability to make a contribution to management decisions." Data presented in question 1b discussing the rewards of respect and prestige and social approval and acceptance (Blau's reward categories) further illustrate that esteem needs were met across all cases.

Referring to Figure 9, one can see that each interview with a VMD contained statements about the satisfaction and importance of meeting affiliation needs through the job. When asked about their self-perception with regard to the relative importance of affiliation, achievement, and positive power, five out of ten rated affiliation as the most important category of need. Three said achievement came first, and two said positive power. This fulfillment of affiliation needs fits into Maslow's category of social needs, as well as Blau's category of personal attraction.

The question posed in 1d was "How are these social exchange factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?" The data suggest that needs identified in the top-three categories of Maslow's hierarchy were being met for the volunteers. These are the categories of social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs that are related to Blau's categories of rewards of personal attraction, respect and prestige, social acceptance and approval, and instrumental services.

Secondary question 1e. What are the social exchange factors that motivate salaried staff to perform their job?

The intrinsic reward of personal attraction was experienced by some of the SMDs. In four of the cases special mention was made of the mutual sense of friendship felt between the SMDs and their volunteer counterparts. In nine of the cases, the SMDs also mentioned the importance "of the kind of people you work with in NOAH." Fred, for example (case study 2), said, "I wanted to work for NOAH [in this position] because it gave me a chance to work with some good solid people." Milton (case study 6) said, "My best friends are NOAH people." In order for those relationships to be satisfying for the SMDs, it seems logical that they believed their feelings of personal attraction were returned by volunteer and salaried co-workers. It is the mutual expectations and reciprocation that cause such friendships to continue according to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

While the reward of personal attraction was clearly evident in the SMD interviews, it did not appear to assume the importance for them that it did for VMDs. In-depth analysis of the interviews for the variable affiliation needs is reported in the answer to the next research question. These data provide indirect evidence that SMDs were not as concerned about this reward category as they were others.

In the SMD interview, there were few comments (common across cases) that would even indirectly indicate that the SMDs believed they were being rewarded with social acceptance for their role as a managing director or as an individual; however, the implications of the statements and actions of others implied such acceptance. An indicator of social acceptance for SMD job roles was the supportiveness of the family members of the SMDs in six

of the cases. In four cases, there were indications that the SMD felt some concern about how the VMD was perceiving him or her as a partner. Being perceived as a good partner and working at the relationship to achieve this was clearly a matter of concern to them, so it was questionable whether these SMDs felt they were receiving social acceptance from their volunteer counterpart.

There was an indication that most SMDs believed they were receiving social acceptance in a more general way. Nine out of ten SMDs stated that they (like the VMDs) worked for NOAH because they were firmly committed to the mission of the organization to help others meet their human needs within the community. Anne (SMD at Site 3) explained it this way:

> There is obviously something about our organization that causes me to have a strong commitment to it . . . I really believe it provides a great deal of service to people that is of high quality . . . As immersed as you get in what's going wrong in NOAH sometimes . . . we are still so much further along in the delivery of human services than any other organization.

Since such a value holds fairly wide acceptance in American culture (as was argued in question 1b), it is reasonable to infer that the SMDs believed their work with NOAH contributed services valued by members of the organization and other social groups. A basic premise of social exchange and action theory is that such cultural values are used by individuals to evaluate appropriate roles or actions to engage in as a means to the end of gratifying specific needs such as the need for social acceptance (Blau, 1964; Parsons, 1951).

The extrinsic reward of social approval was somewhat easier to detect than social acceptance (in the interviews), but was not indicated as

something frequently experienced. Two SMDs identified letters of commendation and expressions of appreciation from co-workers in the field as an important source of job satisfaction. Another spoke of the energizing effect of being invited to participate in ceremonial functions with field staff and local units. He stated, "I really need that from time-to-time, and I get a real hoot out of being included." Yet another said, "In this job, sometimes you have to create your own strokes for work well done."

Forms of recognition provide one of the most tangible signs of social approval. Again it was difficult to separate out in the SMD interviews forms of recognition from forms of support because those things which some perceived as recognition were perceived by others as support. Very few data bits fell into the domains entitled "a way to recognize an SMD" and "a way to support an SMD." Throughout the interviews, the SMDs found it difficult to describe ways they had received recognition or support, although--at all three sites--they acknowledged that the vice-presidents had provided verbal strokes from time-to-time for a job well done. Exceptions to this statement, with regard to the second domain, were the special kinds of support which both SMDs and VMDs felt they were provided at Site 2, due to changes in the organizational structure and climate, and case study 3, due to the unusually strong peer relationship. These are discussed in detail in question 2b.

The SMDs did see themselves as being rewarded with the extrinsic category of exchange "instrumental services." In six of ten cases, the SMDs stated explicitly that one of the most important reasons for staying with NOAH and accepting the challenge of the position was the "excellent training and career development opportunities provided." One mentioned

the voucher system for providing cash travel advancements; two female SMDs felt that they were financially well rewarded in their position. Since only one SMD indicated (on the form for demographic questions) that working at a salaried job was optional, it seems reasonable to assume that salaries were considered an instrumental service of importance in all other cases; however, since there was little mention of it as a satisfaction item, it may not have taken precedence over some of the other rewards mentioned for their contribution to job satisfaction. The service that appeared to be most valued across all cases was the opportunities for achievement in the job. A reporting of an in-depth analysis of this form of instrumental service is provided in answering the next research question.

The unilateral rewards category that includes respect and prestige was evident in several of the interviews with SMDs. An SMD who did not indicate that salary was an important job satisfaction did say, "I believe the paycheck and salary increases are a form of recognition or respect for what we accomplish on the job." Two other SMDs at the same site commented on the AMH vice-president's habit of complimenting them publicly at regional meetings and on other occasions for their good work. They believed this compliment was both a source of recognition and a way of creating respect for their work.

One of the SMDs at Site 2 talked about how the AMH vice-president had asked each management team to make a presentation to the AMH management staff about regional accomplishments for the year. The SMD saw this as a way to share ideas, as well as show respect for the management team and what it had accomplished. He said, "Our vice-president encourages us to take risks, to initiate new ways of doing things.

I think he respects the management teams for their ability to be creative and get results." Another SMD commented, "I feel I receive a lot of respect from the field staff through their letters of commendation for my efforts." Another said that he believed he was respected for his expertise in helping field service staff and local service delivery units do problem solving.

Such comments indicated that some SMDs definitely felt they were rewarded with respect for job performance. If any believed this respect was automatically equated with prestige, there was no hint of it directly or indirectly in the interviews.

There was considerable evidence that the compliance and power category of unilateral rewards was operating for the SMDs. Each interview with the SMD group contained some statement about the opportunity they had in their position to influence others. The kind of statements that were typical have been illustrated in Chapter IV. Their need to achieve this power through influence was well within the conscious awareness of most SMDs. This awareness was described by one SMD in the following way:

> I see myself growing tremendously in this job in terms of changing the way I think about the whole notion of control in a relationship . . . the organization says it's results that count . . . but I have come to realize that if you cannot influence the volunteers to get actively involved in doing and helping carry out the goals, the results simply are not going to be as good . . . Now I'm a task oriented person . . . My first priority is achieving the results . . . But if you don't attend to process, tuning into the needs of the volunteers, you won't be able to influence them to get the job done. . . . I found that an important part of this was that I had to really trust the volunteers to do things their way and to know the goals will still be accomplished. It might just simply be in a different way than I would do it . . . What you're doing with this investment of time up front in developing relationships with volunteers is you're tremendously expanding the resources of the organization that come to it through volunteers.

Throughout the interviews, the point was made that power through influence was important to the SMDs. They were being rewarded with compliance in the form of commitment from other members of the organization for whom they had management oversite in return for their power to influence. This was stated well by one of the AMH vice-presidents: "Our SMDs manage by influence rather than by edict. This is how they manage to bring about the achievement of regional goals."

The question posed in 1e was "What are the social exchange factors that motivate salaried staff to perform their job?" To some extent, the SMDs were experiencing rewards in all six categories in their role as a salaried managing director within the management team. The amount of data and strength of emphasis suggest that the reward categories of most importance were instrumental services, power and compliance, and personal attraction with the first two categories assuming greater importance than the third.

Secondary question 1f. How are these social exchange factors related to Mcclelland's categories of needs?

The forms of social exchange apparent in the jobs of SMDs contain many examples that reflect the characteristics of McClelland's three broad categories of needs that motivate participation of individuals in organizations. The same analysis on social exchange factors related to the three categories of needs (achievement, affiliation, and positive power) in McClelland's theory was carried out for SMDs as was done for the VMDs. All interviews were analyzed for the number of times that each category came up in the discussion in response to one of the interview questions. At the end of the interview the SMDs were presented with the characteristics

of each category and asked to rank order the importance of each category of need in their job as SMD. Then VMDs and AMH-VPs were asked to do the same thing so that four ways of ranking the importance of these categories for any one SMD was provided. As stated before, this presentation of data is not intended to represent a statistical analysis. The findings are reported in Figure 10.

Out of the 40 possibilities for any single category to be ranked as most important, achievement appeared 23 times as the top category for SMDs; positive power, 10 times; and affiliation, seven times. Positive power was ranked the second most important category 23 times out of 40, more than twice as often as affiliation or achievement. In addition, the top-rated category was consistent for three out of the four ways of rating the SMD in eight of the cases. Cases one and seven were the exceptions. In some cases, two or more categories were ranked as equally important.

Statements made that illustrate how the job context met these needs for SMDs were not as numerous as for the VMDs. Milton (case study 6), in regard to affiliation needs, stated:

> NOAH, and this job in particular, has provided opportunities to develop my best friends and associations . . . Howard and I have become fast friends, and his wife and mine have developed a good friendship. So when they [Howard and spouse] have a chance to travel together, we all four have dinner and the women do things together.

Greg (case study 1) talked at length about the opportunity that he and other SMDs had to exert positive power on many people within the organization:

> As a managing director, I have tremendous power in working with the local units . . . They look at me as an expert within the system to help them interview and select key personnel and work on solutions to problems . . . I and the other managing

SITE	CASE	SMDs	TIMES IMPLIED INDIRECTLY BY VMD	SMD PERCEPTION OF SELF	VMD PERCEPTION OF SMD	VP PERCEPTION OF SMD
1	1	Gregg	3 Achievement 2 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement
	2	Fred	4 Achievement 1 Positive power 1 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Positive power 2 Achievement 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation
	3	Chuck	3 Achievement 3 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive Power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 1 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 1 Positive power 2 Affiliation
	4	Adrianne	3 Achievement 2 Affiliation 1 Positive power	1 Achievement 2 Affiliation 2 Postive power	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 2 Positive power	1 Achievement 1 Affiliation 1 Positive power
2	5	Frank	3 Achievement 2 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 1 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Affiliation 2 Achievement 3 Positive power
	6	Milton	3 Achievement 3 Affiliation 1 Positive power	1 Positive power 2 Affiliation 3 Achievement	1 Positive power 1 Affiliation 1 Achievement	1 Positive power 2 Affiliation 3 Achievement
	7	Martin	3 Achievement 3 Affiliation 2 Positive power	1 Positive power 1 Achievement 2 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Affiliation 3 Positive power	1 Positive power 1 Achievement 2 Affiliation
3	8	Pat	3 Achievement 3 Positive power 2 Affiliation	1 Positive power 2 Affiliation 3 Achievement	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 1 Positive power 2 Affiliation
	9	Joan	3 Positive power 2 Affiliation 1 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 3 Achievement	1 Affiliation 1 Positive power 1 Achievement	1 Affiliation 2 Positive power 2 Achievement
	10	Anne	3 Positive power 1 Achievement 1 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation	1 Achievement 2 Positive power 3 Affiliation

Figure 10. Social Exchange Factors As Motivators For SMDs

> directors have asked each other, 'Do you realize how much influence we have, how important our responsibilities are in building the future of NOAH, with the scope of management oversite for such great numbers of paid and volunteer workers that we have in this job?'

Finally, an example of the belief that the job offered opportunities to meet achievement needs, important to the SMDs, was expressed by Pat (case study 8): "This job gives a person tremendous flexibility to be in charge of their life and accomplish individual goals for achievement." With the strong motivation of the SMDs for achievement, it is not surprising that six of them listed the opportunity for career development and training as a reason for taking the job, along with their commitment to the mission of the organization and the value system within which the organization functions.

The question posed in 1f was "How are these social exchange factors related to McClelland's categories of needs?" Examples of the fulfillment of the three categories of achievement, affiliation, and positive power needs that serve as motivation for the participation of individuals in the work of an organization were present in the SMD interviews. Fulfillment of needs in these three areas fit the reward categories of social exchange identified by Blau as motivators for social action. The opportunity for achievement fits the category of instrumental services. The opportunities for exercising positive power provided examples of the reward category power and compliance, and opportunities for affiliation fit the reward category of personal attraction. The analysis of the data indicates that the two needs categories of most importance to the SMDs were opportunities for achievement and exercising positive power. While affiliation was of importance to them it did not receive the frequency and emphasis of attention in their interview comments that the first two did.

Likewise, their self-perceptions, as well as those of the VMD and AMH-VPs, indicated that, overall, affiliation was less important than achievement and positive power for the SMDs.

Secondary question 1g. How are these social exchange factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

For the SMDs, the theme of personal growth through the job role and career development opportunities indicates that there was a focus on fulfilling self-actualization needs as defined by Maslow (Chapter II, p. 40). This was illustrated in Martin's statement (case study 7) about why he took this job, as opposed to other options: "My highest goal is to arrive at the level of responsibility, accountability, and authority possible for me." Anne (case study 10) stated, "I see myself growing tremendously in this job." When asked, "Why did you take this job as opposed to other options?" Fred (case study 2) replied, "Probably the challenge. I'm learning so fast and learning so much about so many things . . . I thrive on this challenge [to grow]." When Chuck (case study 3) was asked the same question he replied:

> For me it's probably the challenge. . . . What turns me on is the challenge of accomplishing difficult things . . . I guess the whole area I'm working on in terms of personal growth . . . is learning how to influence the corporate thinking in terms of what I believe is in the best interests of the long-term good of the organization.

Six out of ten SMDs stated that personal growth through the training and development offered by NOAH was one of the most important reasons for staying with NOAH as a salaried staff member. They saw personal growth as a way to increase the capacity for achievement. The opportunities for personal growth on the job fit into Blau's reward category of instrumental services.

The striving to meet esteem needs (Maslow's second highest category of higher-order needs) was evident in the SMD interviews. Their statements about doing work that met the needs of others, acquiring respect for their work, and job achievements fit Maslow's definition of this category from the viewpoint of what he identified as internal esteem factors, such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement. With the exception of one SMD, all of the salaried managers indicated that, like the VMDs, they believed strongly in the mission of NOAH which is, in Anne's words (case study 10) "providing human services . . . of the highest quality." Milton (case study 6) expressed the theme that working to achieve the NOAH mission was very worthwhile work (which, in turn, infers that one who does it should feel good about themselves) in the following words, "What I do is important in the whole scheme of things. It relates to the highest calling of human beings and that is to help each other!" Such statements indicate the fulfillment of internal esteem needs that fit Blau's reward category of instrumental services and social acceptance. Eight out of ten SMDs gave primary emphasis in their interviews to the opportunities for achievement in the job which logically should lead to feelings of autonomy and self-respect.

The SMDs perceived themselves to be receiving fewer rewards in terms of what Maslow identified as external esteem needs -- status, recognition, and attention. These esteem needs fit Blau's reward categories of respect and prestige (the more diffuse form of esteem) and social approval. The SMDs did not see themselves as being rewarded nearly as frequently in these categories as the VMDs did.

Maslow's category of social needs, as he defines it, fits within Blau's reward category of personal attraction and social acceptance. The definition includes affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship. As has already been documented in 1e, the SMDs did perceive themselves to be receiving the reward of friendship. However, satisfaction with *affiliative needs was not emphasized by them to the same extent as it was by VMDs. The data also indicated that they were experiencing the reward of social acceptance by doing work they believed to be valued by themselves and others.

The question posed in 1g was "How are these social exchange factors related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs?" The data indicate that all three of the higher order needs, were being met for the VMDs and fulfillment of these needs fit within various categories of rewards identified by Blau as motivators for action on the part of individuals as they engage in social action with others. Self-actualization and, to a lesser extent, social needs were being met. Esteem needs appeared to be met when considering internal esteem factors, but to a lesser degree when considering external esteem factors.

Secondary question 1h. What are the socialization factors, if any, that are related to the volunteer or salaried staff's performance of the job?

Eight of the SMDs and six of the VMDs saw themselves as having role models, mentors, or special support persons who had nurtured their volunteer and salaried career paths in NOAH. For the SMDs, these people were all within the NOAH organization. Adrianne (Site 1) recalled her memories of one such person:

> As I told you, I got into NOAH by working as a volunteer two summers in Latin American societies . . . There were a number of people I worked with, especially the director of international services who influenced me . . . And I think my career aspirations for a salaried position in NOAH increased because of these people I worked with who encouraged and took an interest in me.

Gregg, an example of an SMD who sought advice and counsel from a local service delivery manager whom he admired, said:

> This person entered my NOAH career early on and is now one of the national vice-presidents. . . . I valued him because of the way people responded to him and the type of operation he ran. He was always well liked; yet his operations were just really sharp. I mean good service, strong visibility, and good structure. He had the right balance of good people skills and good management skills.

Some of the people who were seen as playing special roles in the careers of the SMDs were NOAH volunteers. Frank provided an example of this when he stated:

> I was sent on a NOAH assignment early in my career where there was a program on a military base they wanted to shut down . . . One week after I got there, a volunteer was transferred to this base from the States. And she literally made NOAH come alive for me. She showed me what could happen with a well organized, planned, committed volunteer. Together, we turned that program around until we became a model for others.

People who were mentors or role models for the VMDs were not always inside the organization. Rose (case study 5) talked about how her husband had provided a role model for her through his important volunteer roles in the community. He had encouraged her to be involved as a volunteer when the children were in school by being both proud and supportive of her efforts. He was willing to travel to volunteer conferences with her and care for the family when her work took her away from home for several days.

Edith and Helene (Site 1) spoke with great reverence of a dynamic woman who was a salaried field staff person. Edith said:

> She was my mentor and could she work with volunteers! She knew when to make you jump off the end of the pier, but she was there to save you if you got in trouble. We would talk together as we traveled, and she would say 'You, as a volunteer, can do things I as a paid staff person, can't. It would never be accepted by the volunteers in the field coming from me.'

The four VMDs who did not perceive themselves as having mentors or role models had other important ways to be socialized into the world of the voluntary association. Every one of the VMDs either had grown up with family members who were volunteers or they had participated in multiple volunteer roles in other voluntary associations. One of them had started out as a high school volunteer with NOAH.

The two SMDs who did not believe they had either salaried or volunteer role models in the organization talked about parents who were "natural volunteers in the community" as they were growing up, and also about sisters or brothers in the family who volunteered. There was not an SMD who had not been exposed to volunteering in at least one of three ways: salaried staff mentors, volunteer staff role models, or volunteer role models within the family. In addition, there were six SMDs who had started with the organization either as high school or college volunteers. All SMDs and VMDs appeared to have been socialized in some way to believe that their work for NOAH was valuable to others and that it was important to involve volunteers in service delivery.

A final possible way that four of the VMDs may have been socialized was by their experiences while growing up in the midwestern volunteer culture. Data emerged during the interviews that suggest the possibility

that there may be somewhat unique characteristics associated with the culture of volunteerism in various regions of the country. Several important cultural themes appeared to be associated with the midwestern volunteer culture that affected the level of partnership satisfaction in case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7. This concept of a unique regional volunteer culture is discussed in detail in answer to question 2b.

The question posed in 1h was "What are the socialization factors, if any, that are related to the volunteer or salaried staff's performance of the job?" The data presented provide evidence that there are a variety of factors that cause both volunteer and salaried managers to believe in the value of service to the community through volunteerism and voluntary associations and, therefore, are attracted to jobs in such organizations. These include experiences with salaried staff mentors, volunteer staff role models, volunteer role models within the immediate family, serving in volunteer roles in multiple organizations, and possibly the special effects of unique regional volunteer cultures.

Summary statement for primary question one. Primary research question one posed the problem "Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to the volunteers, in the performance of a job?" A summary of the secondary research questions indicates there are some factors which are important to the work motivation of volunteers as well as salaried staff, although they differ in order of importance. There were other factors important to volunteers that were far less significant for salaried staff and one not related to their work motivation at all.

Volunteers are willing to accept the challenge of the same job duties and, in fact, want this kind of meaningful work. They are not willing,

however, to take on these duties at the same level of commitment as salaried staff. One of the factors that attracted them to the volunteer job was the flexibility to choose not to work at certain times, but at the same time receive some of the benefits or rewards that salaried staff value.

With regard to Blau's categories of social exchange rewards, the data provide evidence that the volunteers were receiving rewards in turn for their service to the organization in all six reward categories. It is important to note that the rewards that result from spontaneous evaluations (personal attraction, social approval, and respect and prestige) cannot be used to barter for volunteer services because they lose their significance if the recipient believes they are not sincerely given. Blau (1964) points out, however, that when the individual believes these rewards are present and genuine they motivate the recipient to remain in the relationship. On the other hand, social acceptance, instrumental services, and compliance and power arise out of calculated actions and are bartered for services according to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

For the volunteers, the rewards of personal attraction, social acceptance, social approval, and instrumental services were important. Of Blau's six categories, the one that appeared to be of greatest importance to the volunteers was that of **respect and prestige** which accrued to them for their overall expertise that qualified them to fill the job. A common theme that occurred in many of the domains of analysis was the respect they perceived themselves to be receiving for their volunteer contributions to the organization. It appeared that the category of compliance and power was least important to the volunteers.

The data provide evidence that the salaried managers also perceived themselves to be receiving rewards in all six categories, but not to the same extent as the volunteers. The categories also varied in order of importance as motivators in comparison to the volunteer managers. Instrumental services, particularly opportunities for achievement and career development (and probably salary), and power and compliance appeared to be the reward categories of greatest importance. Personal attraction appeared important also, but to a lesser extent than these two categories. Analysis of Blau's categories of rewards as motivators for job participation in the organization did prove to be a means for also analyzing the fulfillment of needs identified as motivators in the theories of McClelland and Maslow. For volunteers, needs were being met in all three of McClelland's categories. The order of important from most to least was affiliation, achievement and positive power. The three higher order needs of self-actualization, both internal and external esteem needs, and social needs were being met.

For salaried staff, needs were being met in all three of McClelland's needs categories. The order of importance from most to least was achievement, positive power, and affiliation. Within the context of Maslow's theory, needs were being met for the higher order needs of self-actualization, internal esteem, and to a lesser extent social needs and external esteem.

Social exchange factors did function as important motivation in attracting the SMDs and VMDs to accept their demanding job roles. They appeared to be more motivating in retaining the volunteer managers than the salaried managers since there was turnover in three of the SMD positions and none for the VMDs. In addition to social exchange, there were socialization factors such as volunteer and salaried staff mentors within the

organization, the SMD or VMD's previous volunteer experiences in NOAH and other organizations, and family members as volunteer role models. These factors appear to have been important in attracting the volunteer and salaried staff to work up through the ranks to the VMD and SMD positions along with the implicit promise of social exchange rewards.

Primary Question Two

2. Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a job related to certain aspects of job content and job context that are affected by the planning and supervision carried out by salaried staff?

The literature review revealed that both content factors (those related to the actual work performed) and context factors (those related to organizational climate) have been shown to be related to the satisfaction of the volunteer which, in turn, affects the motivation of the volunteer to take a job and remain in it for at least ten weeks or more. Among the content factors are: 1) the work relationship with the client, organization members, or recipient of volunteer services; 2) doing worthwhile work; 3) use of the volunteers' abilities and skills; 4) helping and teaching; 5) opportunities for personal growth; and, 6) recognition. Principal context factors are personal relationships with other volunteers and salaried staff; and supervision, supportiveness, and help from professional staff.

In the following subsections, two secondary questions are addressed that are helpful in answering primary research question two. A summary follows that relates this information to the primary question.

Secondary question 2a. Which of Herzberg's hygiene and motivator factors are related to the performance of the volunteer job, and in what way are they related?

Herzberg's theory addresses both job content and context factors. Those factors which he identifies as motivators closely parallel those factors identified in the literature as content factors. The motivators include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. The hygiene factors closely parallel the context factors identified in the literature. They include company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary (not relevant for volunteers), personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security.

The answer to primary question one provided documentation that all factors identified by Herzberg as motivators did, in fact, provide important incentives for the volunteers to perform the job of regional VMD. Statements about the importance of achievement on the job were elicited from every VMD in response to broad questions that did not address the question directly. The numerous data bits that related to forms of recognition left no doubt that these tangible signs of social approval were important to them. Their willingness to engage in difficult tasks demanding a considerable level of expertise in seven areas of competencies (see appendices A and I) and statements about the value of doing meaningful work (data presented in question 1a) indicated that the work itself was a motivator. Finally, the importance which they placed on the instrumental services of training and career development provided by NOAH indicated that advancement and growth were motivators for performing the demanding work of the VMD job.

There were a number of factors that created dissatisfaction across cases that fall within the job context factors Herzberg identified as hygiene

factors. **Although his theory indicates that removal of the dissatisfiers does not automatically create satisfaction, they are important to deal with because they create a negative force that drains off energy for productive work.** This part of Herzberg's theory is particularly useful in the analysis of the data because social exchange theory does not explain why six mixed cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10) were characterized by dissatisfactions not present in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7.

One major problem that created dissatisfaction in the six mixed cases had to do with factors relating to the supervision of the evaluation of the VMD job performance. The department of corporate planning and evaluation at national headquarters had made a major investment of resources to develop a performance management system that included a sophisticated performance appraisal process. When VMDs, as well as SMDs, were asked the question, "What aspects of the job lead to the greatest dissatisfaction?" information was elicited in six of the cases that related to conducting the annual evaluation of the VMD. This evaluation was known as the performance review, and the plan called for interim feedback during the year before the final appraisal was conducted.

This concern seemed significant because, in the initial interviews, no question in regard to evaluation was ever asked directly. There was a great deal of confusion about expectations of the national headquarters with regards to carrying out the performance review of the VMD. The most common belief was that the SMD was to evaluate the VMD, and some thought that the VMD was then to have input into the SMD's evaluation. There were negative reactions to this plan although the VMDs said they

believed it was important that the evaluation be done in some way. The objections were stated in various ways. According to one SMD:

> My understanding was that we were to be evaluated as a team, although that didn't happen . . .and I'm not sure that would be appropriate because of the way the national structure uses the evaluation or work performance review [as it is called] in relation to salary adjustments.

This SMD's concern was related to the fact that he had no input into selecting his first VMD partner. If he had been teamed with a partner who was not productive, he might have been penalized in his work performance review for something he could not control. One of the VMDs, in discussing evaluation, said feedback between the VMD and SMD was important in doing the job and there needed to be an evaluation, but indicated there were problems with the plan. The VMD said:

> A work performance review was never done on me by my partner although that was the plan. But I wouldn't take it very well either, simply because I'm not working for her. I'm working with her. She is not my supervisor. She is my peer.

The organizational flow chart showing the chain of command has been omitted from the original job description in Appendix A to protect the identity of the organization. This flow chart indicates that it is the volunteer counterpart to the AMH vice-president who is considered the supervisor of the VMD, while the AMH vice-president is considered to have direct supervisory responsibility for the SMD. The term supervision is used with caution because, in every case, when the informants were asked how they were supervised, they indicated that they were not supervised in the strict sense of the word. They saw the AMH vice-president and his volunteer counterpart as organizational leaders who provided guidance.

An interview with the consultant, who was hired by the NOAH Department for Human Resource Development to direct the development of the performance management system, confirmed that the performance review was to be done on each management team by the management team one level up in the chain of supervision. In other words, the AMH-VP and his volunteer counterpart should evaluate the SMD and VMD of each management region as a team. Apparently, communication on this matter from national headquarters was never clear.

When one SMD was asked how the VMD partner was evaluated, the SMD responded, "Very carefully! This is a terribly sensitive issue in our partnership." Another SMD said, "I reached such an impasse with my VMD over this subject I finally stuffed the work performance review in the drawer where it has remained." Both of these SMDs saw the responsibility of the work performance review falling soley on them.

Others believed that the plan of national headquarters called for the AMH vice-president's volunteer counterpart to evaluate the VMD. Both SMDs and VMDs were quick to indicate that this person really did not have the close working relationship with the VMD that the SMD partner had.

In spite of the controversy, every VMD believed that evaluation should take place so that the VMD had an opportunity for personal growth on the job and for future planning for the NOAH volunteer career ladder. Only the three male SMDs said they personally felt indifferent about being evaluated, but at the same time they acknowledged that--in general--it was very important that the evaluation take place.

Informants did seem to have a favorite solution. Some thought the volunteer AMH vice-president should evaluate the VMD, with the SMD

partner there to provide information on aspects of the work only the SMD would know about. This--in fact--is what happened in the case of Helene and Chuck. Helene and her volunteer supervisor, the volunteer partner of the AMH vice-president at Site 1, sat down together for a work performance review, with Chuck there to provide input as needed. Helene felt very comfortable with this, and was emphatic that the evaluation was important.

Some SMDs felt the VMD should also have input into the SMD evaluation which would be done by the AMH vice-president. At Site 2 AMH, vice-president Norman asked the SMDs to do an evaluation in some way by the end of the VMD's term. Howard and Marshal, VMDs from Region 2 and 3, said they had been evaluated informally by Norman's volunteer counterpart and were satisfied with this process. Rose and Frank, in Region 1, struggled seriously with the problem of how evaluation should be done. When Rose was interviewed the second time, however, she was ready to reflect on what had been most comfortable and helpful for her:

> We make a serious attempt at evaluation and both formal and informal feedback on an on-going basis. This last evaluation at the end of the three-year term was done by Frank, based on what we agreed would be my own goals and objectives for the year in the partnership. . . . So I was evaluated on how well I achieved the goals which I took a primary role in developing . . . It was not an evaluation based on my personal traits but how well I achieved what I committed to do . . . Then Norman asked me to give input into Frank's evaluation.

Frank had knowledge of Rose's input, and each expressed satisfaction with the way things had been done. Rose said "I felt by far the most comfortable with this last way that we did the evaluation."

In interviews, the female VMDs stressed the importance of evaluation more than the males, yet seemed to feel the greatest discomfort with the subject. Figure 3 shows that of the seven female VMDs, all but one have

limited experience working at salaried jobs outside the home. This indicates that they have had less opportunity for formal performance evaluations. It may be that the women felt more discomfort because of less exposure to the formal review process, yet desired it for the benefit of personal growth and career planning.

One of the AMH vice-presidents suggested another explanation. He believed that women who became management-level volunteers often lacked the experience and training that gave males a sense of confidence about themselves in management roles. He thought the apprehension about evaluation may have resulted from an awareness that more skill development was needed. This observation supports the beliefs of Frank and Rose (Site 2, Region 1) who thought women volunteer leaders were in need of special help with career planning and acquisition of the management skills to increase their self-esteem and effectiveness as managers. The vice-president wondered whether it was possible to implement a uniform procedure for conducting the VMD evaluation without damaging the self-esteem of the volunteer if they had not acquired strong management skills before they reached this level. This subject of evaluation seemed--especially for the women--to be related to the succession planning theme.

A second major concern that created dissatisfaction was the lack of clear corporate policy with regard to what was referred to in the organization as succession planning. In half of the cases, a matter of great concern was what the VMDs could do after their three-year term expired that would not be viewed as a demotion. During their terms, NOAH did not promote succession planning in any organized way to help resolve the

problem. In some cases, the VMD or both partners initiated their own plan before the end of the VMD term. SMD Frank and VMD Rose (Case study 5, Site 2), planned how they could prepare Rose and her credentials for application for a seat on the national governing board. There was a vacancy from her area, and Rose was able to fill it. VMDs Howard and Marshall (Case studies 6 and 7, Site 2), who had already served on this board, became engaged in volunteer consultant roles in their region. VMDs Helene and William (Case studies 3 and 1, Site 1) became proactive in designing and proposing to NOAH new job roles that they might fill. These suggestions were welcomed and they worked quickly into new roles.

Four out of ten of the retiring VMDs suffered some physical illness or mishap. These incidents may have been purely coincidental, but during the second round of interviews one VMD Stated:

> I am wondering if these things are not stress related. It is a terrible come-down to hold such a responsible, respected job one day and the next day you are not sure what to do with yourself. Even though I know in time I will find something important and meaningful to do, it is an awful feeling momentarily.

Another VMD said, "It is my belief that people are scrambling around looking for things for me to do at the local level just so I'll feel needed." Yet another said, "It's a little like being turned out to pasture." In these interviews where the VMD expressed anguish in dealing with this issue, there also was a hopeful note something like the statement made previously: "I know in time I will find something important and meaningful to do." This VMD's statement highlighted an important point. Leaving the job was not the issue. In the second round of interviews, seven of the ten VMDs acknowledged they were relieved to have a rest from the fast pace

and demands of the VMD jobs. They also were aware of NOAH's policy to set specific time limits on terms for leadership volunteers so there is an opportunity for many volunteers to move up the career ladder as a reward for investing time and energy in NOAH. The issue they were raising was concern over prior planning for a new and significant role (by their perceptions) they might fill in the organization when the VMD term expired.

A growing awareness about these concerns resulted in a response from national headquarters. Within a year of the expiration of the first VMD terms, a comprehensive manual was completed for both salaried and volunteer staff on preparing for the NOAH career ladder. In addition, a task force has developed a model for succession planning for the volunteers.

A final succession planning concept that may be valuable was stressed by Gregg, the SMD at Site 1. Gregg moved back to the management of a large local unit at the end of the first three year term of the VMDs. He stated:

> We need to find some way for volunteer and salaried staff to feel comfortable moving up and down the hierarchy of positions in NOAH. Experiences at all levels enrich our understanding of the organization. I believe I am a far better manager at the local level and can contribute more since I have worked for the national sector and now have a total perspective on NOAH as an organization.

During the month of June, 1987, NOAH released a publication titled, Up is Not the Only Way. The contents of the publication deal with the issue that Gregg raised just 12 months prior to its release.

A third factor which Herzberg identified as a potential source of dissatisfaction was an individual's relationship with peers in the work setting. During the data analysis an important theme emerged that

indicated the lack of frequent communication and strategies for confronting controversial issues created feelings of dissatisfaction within some partnerships. By the second round of interviews, the SMDs were into the ninth month of their new partnerships, and they were able to make comparisons between their first experience and the second. One SMD said:

> I am realizing for the first time how important communication with the VMD really is. All during the first partnership, I had this nagging feeling that I was not doing enough communicating, but sort of let it slide. Well, my new VMD said to me, 'Look, you either keep me informed on a regular basis, or I'll go somehere else because there are lots of organizations who want my time.' Believe me, I now take time for regular communication.

Both SMDs and VMDs indicated that conflict issues were difficult to manage, and some VMDs believed they did not have the authority and/or confidence to challenge an SMD. One AMH vice-president, responding to a question about how the SMD and VMD could share the kind of feedback that a peer team partnership calls for, said:

> I think that in order for there to be that kind of exchange and respect for one another and the ability to be forthright, you've got to be able to establish some good ground rules and a good climate for exchange. I am not sure in most cases that kind of climate exists between the paid and volunteer manager where we can all provide good, honest, direct feedback, and we've got to create a climate to allow that to happen.

In several of the partnerships where a great deal of complementarity existed between the two partners in terms of skills and primary categories of need fulfillment, such as achievement versus affiliation, there was also a considerable amount of dissatisfaction with aspects of the partnership. In other partnerships where this complementarity existed, the partners made the most of their different areas of strengths and needs to negotiate job tasks in such a way as to produce strong expressions of satisfaction with

partnership arrangements. The factors which appeared to make the difference in outcome was the openness of communication and feedback that flowed between the partners.

Another source of dissatisfaction that affected peer relationahips had to do with a turnover of personnel in the SMD position. The data indicate that one of the aspects of a satisfying partnership is being in it long enough to survive what one SMD called the "life cycle of a partnership." The SMD described it this way:

> I believe there's probably a "life cycle" in this relationship . . . At first you spend a lot of time getting to know each other and how you can best complement each other in getting the job done . . . Once you work through this period, you can work and plan together very productively . . . If I were to go back and use communication as an example, the amount of time both [partners] spend in sharing written correspondence and verbal communications starts off on a very high level, and I would say that continued probably up until this year . . . Then you begin on the down swing of the life cycle . . . I don't think the quality of the working relationship has changed but the frequency of communication definitely has changed during the last year . . . We both pretty much know what each other's expectations are for doing certain jobs and we just do it.

Other SMDs and VMDs talked about this kind of development in the partnership although they did not refer to it as a life cycle. In the partnerships where more than one SMD came and left during the VMD's three-year term, both partners indicated extra time and energy were used up expediting the process of learning how to work together, while--at the same time--the SMD was learning how to manage a new job. A situation such as this meant added stress for both partners in a job that was already highly demanding.

The "life cycle" analogy highlights what may be an important point made by several SMDs, and stated by one as follows:

> In NOAH we are always stressing orientation to the job as crucial for new volunteers, and we really don't have an orientation as such for new VMDs, or SMDs for that matter, when they take on such an important top-level job. I think we know enough about how to do these jobs now to design such an orientation. . . . This would sure eliminate some down time at the beginning of the relationship and speed up the productivity of the management team.

A final theme which created dissatisfaction and interferred with the sense of peer relationship betwen the partners had to do with the way that the VMDs were selected for the first round of three year terms. The selection process for the VMD positions was carried out by the AMH vice-presidents, working in consultation with other national staff members. According to the new field service model, the volunteer vice-president makes the appointment with the advice and consent of the salaried vice-president. Since many of the SMD positions were being filled simultaneously, there was little opportunity for SMDs to have input into the process. For those who were already in place, they acknowledged that both jobs were so new they hardly knew how to select a suitable VMD. SMD Martin (case study 7) described the process this way:

> I was asked for my suggestions about a VMD, but since the job was so new I really did not have a notion as to who would be best suited for the job. I told our headquarters vice-president I would trust others to make a judgement for me.

By the end of the first term of partnerships, most of the SMDs were expressing strong feelings about being involved in the recruitment of the VMD. The primary need was for a person who would complement the skills and personality of the SMD, and assist with specific regional needs. As one SMD stated, "You need a VMD that can deal with the special 'problem children' that are unique to a region." In other words, each region typically has unique problems that call for special management skills.

When the time approached to begin a new term of partnerships, the SMDs worked with their VMD counterparts to solicit ideas and input from field staff throughout the region. Then a selection was made by the SMD in consultation with the VMD partners and the recommendation went to the AMH vice-president and his volunteer counterpart for approval. Details of the process were slightly different among regions, but in no case did the AMH vice-president team fail to approve the recommendation.

SMDs were pleased to have influenced the process; however, several pointed out that this matchmaking was not simple. They were inclined to believe that the national headquarters needed to develop a system that would help in analyzing those factors crucial to making a good match. The input of the SMD into the process, along with the knowledge that the VMD talents and skills provided a complement to those of the SMD, appeared to be important to the satisfaction of the partners as long as there was frequent and open communication about how to best use their differences in skills and personality to achieve the goals of the region.

The question posed in 2a was "Which of Herzberg's hygiene and motivator factors are related to the performance of the volunteer job and in what way are they related?" All those factors which Herzberg identified as motivators proved to be quite important to the volunteers as motivational factors in attracting and keeping them in the demanding job position of volunteer managing director. In addition there were five major concerns that proved to function as "hygiene factors" (as defined by Herzberg) which created dissatisfaction with the job in those cases identified as mixed cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9 and 10). Close examination of the data provides evidence that in the highly satisfying cases (Cases 3, 5, 6, and 7) these concerns were

overcome. This was achieved in large measure through the planning process, supervision, and administrative policy (factors identified by Herzberg as hygiene factors) of the AMH vice-president in cases 5, 6 and 7. However, these concerns were alleviated in part as a result of the VMD characteristics and SMD management style in all four highly satisfying cases, especially in case 3. These specific characteristics on the part of the SMD and VMD ultimately were related to the peer relationship between the partners which is yet another of the hygiene factors identified by Herzberg as a demotivator if not dealt with constructively. These facts will be more apparent in the discussion of data presented in answer to the following section, secondary question 2b.

It is important to mention that the top-level of the national administration of NOAH programs has made significant strides since the expiration of the first VMD terms to deal more effectively with administrative policy impacting on the evaluation process and succession planning, two major VMD concerns. Feedback from volunteers articulated from one level of volunteer management to the next appears to have been important in creating awareness of these problems at the national administrative level. This provides evidence that the new field service plan has, in fact, provided better communication for the volunteer ranks to the national headquarters as it was designed to do.

Secondary question 2b. What other job content and job context factors are related to the volunteer's satisfaction that are not suggested by the literature?

While there were similarities across all cases that motivated volunteers to perform the VMD job, there were four partnerships (cases 3, 5, 6, and 7) that were unique in terms of the presence of strong expressions

of satisfaction by both SMD and VMD and virtually no expressions of dissatisfaction. This strong sense of satisfaction appeared to result from a set of themes that cannot be explained directly by the literature. The themes are related to characteristics of the partnerships as well as certain unique characteristics of site 2 Area Management Headquarters that affected the organizational climate in that setting.

The partnership characteristics that reflected a set of related themes were as follows:

1. A sense of shared control through frequent negotiation of the SMD/VMD job content as opposed to delegation.
2. Mutual clarification of expectations by the partners.
3. Frequent communication update between partners.
4. A shared sense of a peer relationship by partners.
5. A sense of high self-esteem on the part of the VMD.
6. A strong sense of accountability on the part of both the VMD and SMD.
7. The socialization experiences of the VMDs to volunteerism.

Close scrutiny of the data indicated these seven characteristics were related to an unusually strong, genuine sense of trust between the partners and respect for what each contributed to the organization. As these partners discussed how the **renegotiation of the SMD/VMD job** tasks took place **on a frequent basis**, the language suggested the sharing of control by co-equal partners as opposed to delegation of work by SMD to the VMD. In case study 6, SMD Milton talked about the job as a "marriage where the division of labor is constantly being negotiated." He could not remember either partner discussing who would take the lead. That role "just happens

naturally . . . depending on the skills needed and the time available at the moment."

As illustrated in Chapter IV, SMDs Chuck, Milton and Martin all demonstrated a high level of trust in the volunteer to do an effective job. The VMDs sensed this level of trust and regarded it as a form of support and recognition. Chuck's attitude, typical of the other three SMDs, is shown in these words:

> I don't believe there is anything that a paid staff person can do that a volunteer can't do. It's just a matter of time, motivation and interest . . . but you're never going to have the trust, if you don't give the volunteer a chance to prove whether they can do it . . . so you [the salaried manager] have to let go and not feel that you have to be in control of the volunteer.

This statement takes on special meaning when related to a statement made by his VMD Helene, who said at one point in her interview, "The fact that they trust you to do such responsible jobs and continue to ask you to do more is both a kind of recognition and a way of supporting you."

This sense of shared control was demonstrated in several ways. In each of the cases discussed, the volunteer felt as comfortable as his or her salaried counterpart in delegating assignments to other volunteers at the level for which the partners had supervisory responsibility, if they were confident the volunteer had been provided the necessary resources and training. Howard (case study 6) illustrated this point well. He said:

> One of the ways Milton and I handle the span of control for this job is not only to delegate but to insure after we delegate that we are delegating to a person who can do the job with a minimum amount of supervision, which means that we have to have them ready to do the job when we turn it over . . . by giving responsibilities to others and challenging them we discover that we free ourselves to do other things.

One of the reasons job content could be (and was) renegotiated from time-to-time was that both partners assumed responsibility for expressing ideas and opinions and making sure that each understood the other's expectations. As Helene (case study 3) stated, "If I hear about things that I think I may not be informed of, I call Chuck up and ask him, 'What's going on with regard to this matter' and then 'What would you like for me to do about this, if anything?'". In return, Chuck made Helene feel perfectly comfortable about asking questions, and even challenging his ideas about what should be done in a given situation. Both believed they were able to listen and share their views on a situation without becoming defensive. This experience was quite different from that of another VMD who said "I never was sure what was expected of me in this role, and I did not feel comfortable broaching the subject." This theme of **mutual role clarification** was related to the theme of **frequent communication updates**.

Both the SMD and VMD in these four partnerships (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7) felt a mutual sense of responsibility to communicate with each other, and they did so on a regular bases. When talking about how she and Frank (case study 5) shared in decision making as partners, VMD Rose also described their communication process. She said:

> You know, Frank and I are many miles away in separate cities . . . and you would think 'well, those two people would have to be in the same town to do this job,' but that hasn't been an obstacle that can't be overcome . . . We talk together [by phone] at least three times a week at a set time in the morning, and sometimes it's even more, depending on what the situation is . . . and in the early phases of the partnership, we made a commitment to meet face-to-face at least once a month.

Marshall described the close communication between SMD Martin and himself (case study 7) when he stated:

> What we don't cover by telephone, Martin keeps me informed of by copying me on his correspondence, and I do the same thing. In most cases, he doesn't make a move unless he discusses it with me to determine if we both concur on whatever action he should take on any particular problem.

One of the most revealing incidents regarding communication happened when the new term was beginning for a VMD in Region 3. Helene (case study 3) was asked by the new VMD to explain why she hadn't been informed on something she regarded as highly important. Helene talked about this:

> It truly is impossible [she said] for the SMD to keep you informed on everything. So you have to get accustomed to this and call him once a week and say, 'What's going on that I should know about?' I always kept notes on my work, and I'll call Chuck and say, 'This is what I've done and what I found,' and I'd send him copies of every letter I'd written and keep him informed. You really can't expect the SMD to take all the responsibility.

Frequent communication was considered so important in all four of the cases for purposes of mutual clarification of expectations, and frequent negotiation of who would do what in the partnership, that it was obvious to the interviewer. When asked how decisions were made about travel, VMD Howard replied:

> I go on an "as needed basis" . . . This job could be all consuming . . . Unfortunately, I have to earn a living so I don't travel as much as other VMDs . . . But hardly a week goes by in which Milton and I don't make two or three phone calls to each other, and I spend at least 30 minutes every morning going through correspondence and reports, and then Milton and I decide whether something is such an important problem in the field that we both need to travel to the site in person. . . . We jokingly say to our people in our region 'If you see both of us, you're in trouble'.

These examples are in stark contrast to the experiences of certain other VMDs. One said, "I find out some of the most important things going on in my region from people in the field." Another VMD stated, "I feel the SMDs talk to each other, and the VMDs talk to each other more than there is talk between SMDs and VMDs." These feelings and comments were missing in the four cases where high satisfaction was expressed; the factor that appeared to to be important in them was the mutual sense of a peer relationship. The feeling that both the **SMD and VMD regarded each other as peers** has already been demonstrated in many quotations from the interviews of the partners in these four partnerships (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7). The point of importance is that it was not enough for the SMD to regard the volunteer as a peer. This was well illustrated by one case in the mixed category. The SMD expressed belief in the peer relationship concept. At the same time, the VMD counterpart demonstrated that she saw herself as being subordinate to the SMD, instead of working as a co-equal partner even though it was a partnership where there was frequent and open communication. When the AMH vice-president was asked if he could explain this phenomenon, he responded:

> You have to understand that this particular VMD has spent much of her adult life in military settings and is very tuned in to military protocol. My guess is that it is very hard for the person to relate to lateral relationships as opposed to hierarchical kind found in the military. . . . So in a sense the VMD imposes on the relationship the perception that the role must be that of a subordinate to the SMD.

Another example of the lack of a mutual sense of the peer relationship was provided by one SMD who frequently referred to the volunteer counterpart as a peer who was a good teacher. The SMD stated that they had been

good partners in facilitating growth in each other. The following statement, however, indicates that the VMD did not feel like a peer:

> Equal is not a word that works well in this team concept. Although supposedly it is a peer relationship, there is no way that the volunteer can have the authority to do what the SMD does. The SMD is accountable for and has to do the direct management. The VMD is more of a salesperson from my perspective.

A factor which seemed to contribute to the concept of both the SMD and VMD feeling like co-equal partners or peers was inclusion of the VMDs in AMH management retreats. In all four high satisfaction partnerships (cases 3, 5, 6, and 7), this factor was mentioned by the VMD as either a form of support or a show of respect and recognition for the place of VMDs on the management team. Both Sites 1 and 2 included VMDs in their management retreats. This raises the question "How was it that the partners in case studies 1, 2, and 4 at Site 1 did not experience the strong sense of a peer relationship that partners in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7 did?" The expressed sense of peer relationship by both partners in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7 appears to have been related to the presence of all seven characteristics discussed in this section (secondary question 2b) and, in particular, the characteristic of **high VMD self-esteem** and **mutual accountability**.

Throughout the interviews in case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7, the interviewer observed that the four VMDs in these partnerships had a positive view of themselves as volunteers and the possibilities of what could be done through the partnerships. Illustrations have been provided in Chapter IV in all four of these cases of the feeling of being valued by their salaried counterpart, as well as by the whole AMH staff, in general, in cases

5, 6, and 7. None of the four VMDs expressed discomfort over the tasks they needed to do to perform in their job.

The confidence which they displayed in handling the tasks involved in their job may well have been related to the breadth and length of their volunteer involvement in NOAH. With the exception of Edith (VMD, case study 2) these four VMDs had worked at a greater variety of roles at all levels of program delivery and administration than other VMDs. Their years of service ranged from 17 years for Rose, with the least, to 36 years for Helene, who had served the longest of the four. Other VMDs such as Chella (case study 8), with 37 years of service, had served in important roles, but their experiences did not include the diversity of roles found in these four cases. The variety of roles ranged all the way from Chairperson of a local service delivery unit to being a member of the national governing board. It is quite possible that the sense of confidence which the SMDs expressed in their volunteer counterparts in these four cases was a reflection of their respect for their (the VMD's) work experience in the organization.

The confidence of the VMD, and the SMD's awareness of it, reinforced the SMD's openness to shared control in each partnership in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7. This led to a **shared sense of accountability** as well for achieving regional goals on the part of both members of the partnership. VMDs Helene, Rose, Howard, and Marshall spoke of the heavy sense of accountability that they felt for the end results of the partnership. The four VMDs acknowledged that they felt a special obligation since, by virtue of not residing at the area headquarters on a regular basis, they could not be responsible for certain aspects of the day-to-day operations. It was expressed by Howard in his Siamese twin analogy:

> It's like the Siamese twin thing again. If I sit down on the job, I pull Milton right down with me. It limits severely his potential for achieving regional goals . . . and I know that if I don't do my part to get the job done, Norman's volunteer counterpart, who assists our vice-president, and has direct supervisory capacity over me, would not reappoint me for the next year of my term.

Helene stated, "If I get in trouble, Chuck's in trouble. If I goof, it reflects on Chuck." Howard, who talked about how he and SMD Milton trained volunteers to do things that had never been done by volunteers in their region, said, "I am given the responsibility to hire and fire volunteers in this job, and I have input into the hiring and firing of paid staff." Howard believed that if his job performance did not enhance Milton's work, the AMH vice-president and his volunteer counterpart would have the right and authority to fire him or Milton. Marshall (VMD, case study 7) stated, "I view my role as being Martin's right hand." In case study 3, SMD Chuck stated, "For all practical purposes, we are effectively working as one individual." These kinds of analogies were not offered in other case interviews.

The concept of accountability appeared to be linked to another theme that tied all the others together in cases 3, 5, 6, and 7: a strong sense of support from the AMH vice-president and support staff. This support resulted in a pattern of strong self-confidence and satisfaction for both members of the partnerships. Three of these partnerships in which strong support was perceived were located at Site 2 AMH. Examination of dimensions of contrast across cases indicated that some unique characteristics at Site 2 AMH contributed to this perception. This left unexplained how Chuck and Helene (case study 3, Site 1) were able to feel this sense of support without the benefit of the Site 2 characteristics.

Further scrutiny of their case, however, provided insight as to how their attitudes, beliefs, experiences, and ways of perceiving events compensated for some of the unique characteristics found at Site 2.

At Site 2 AMH, certain kinds of statements kept recurring in the interviews which suggested major themes. These themes provided the basis for plausible hypotheses about interrelated themes that produced a pattern of highly satisfying partnerships in cases 5, 6, and 7. The characteristics were centered around certain aspects of the vice-presidents' management style, the way the AMH support staff was organized, the working relationship of the advisory council and the management teams, celebrations at Site 2 AMH of staff successes (both salaried and volunteer, and what appeared to be the special effects of the "midwestern volunteer culture."

According to perceptions of the volunteer and salaried managers, all three of the AMH vice-presidents were extremely supportive of the management team concept; all gave a considerable amount of latitude to the teams in carrying out their work, and all were highly committed to the NOAH mission. What then could have created the unusual expressions of support that occurred in the Site 2 interviews?

Two unanticipated domains emerged during the analysis entitled "a characteristic of an AMH vice-president" and "characteristics of an AMH site." The volume of data bits in these domains for Site 2 was over four-times the volume for Site 1 and Site 3. In other words, in answer to the same questions that were asked across all cases, information specific to this site or vice-president was offered frequently as being relevant to the questions.

It is important to recall that vice-president Norman had replaced a retiring vice-president after almost two years of the first term of the three-year partnership had expired. One of the SMDs recalled the new adjustments to the vice-president's management style:

> At first I was frustrated. We were spending, oh probably, twenty percent of our time in meetings doing planning and reaching consensus about what our goals and objectives or grand plan should look like and, more specifically, how we would involve those people in our region impacted by regional goals in the planning process. Under the previous VP we were really free most of the time just to work at doing our job however we decided, even though we had to account for it with a horrendous amount of paperwork. But what I suddenly realized was that this was more effective. No doubt about it. Everyone impacted by the plan bought into it because they had input into developing it, and yet the management teams all have a lot of latitude about the way they achieve their regional goals and those regional goals may look very different. One team doesn't have to be tied to what other teams are doing in the other two regions.

This "loose-tight" management style was alluded to--in some way--by all three Site 2 SMDs. It was "tight" because Norman insisted on a participatory planning process to specify organizational direction in terms of end results. It was "loose" because there was enormous latitude for volunteer and salaried staff to arrive at the agreed-upon end results, as long as the means didn't violate the ethical values of human service prized by the national organization. It appeared that involvement of the VMDs in this **participatory planning process** had resulted in the keen sense of accountability which they felt for achieving the goals of the region, as well as the feeling that they were valued and supported in their role. Howard, Region 2 VMD, emphasized that Norman was extremely skilled in getting people to share talents and ideas. This belief was shared by Marshall,

Region 3 VMD, who said, "Norman is committed to the corporate well-being in the total sense."

Chuck, the SMD in case study three, also engaged in a highly participatory management style with Helene, a practice which likely emanated from his belief that volunteers can be just as competent as salaried staff if allowed the chance to demonstrate their competence by sharing control for the work of the region. This seemed to affect Helene's sense of feeling accountable for results in Region 3. This may partially explain how this partnership compensated for some of the unique characteristics present at Site 2.

Another factor which led to a strong feeling of staff support at Site 2 was mentioned several times by both VMDs and SMDs. Frank (Region 1 SMD), for example, talked about this in great detail. When asked, "In what way are you supervised, if any?" he began his reply by talking about supervision, but it led into a long discussion about how the AMH support staff had been **reorganized for maximum assistance**:

> I'm supervised in the sense that Rose and I are accountable to Norman--on any issue that has very specific objectives--and I give him reports and he insists there be no surprises, in a nice way. . . . He sets a climate that makes it pretty clear that we are accountable, we are responsible, but he'll support our teams in every way he can. . . . This being accountable in certain emergency situations made it very frustrating the way we used to be organized . . . because you might or might not have the support staff personnel to help your region when it was needed since they all reported to the VP and served the whole area in general. . . . So we had a management retreat and came up with a new plan where certain of the support staff are assigned to each region according to kinds of needs that are most typical for that region . . . Others who direct support services still report to the VP and serve the region at large. . . But the management teams now feel that they have their own support team they can always count on, and the directors of support services feel a new importance and sense of ownership in their role . . . and when I'm out of the office, one of these directors

> serves as my assistant so that people from the field can call in and still get help in my absence, and that really makes them happy.

This response represents another example of Norman's participatory management style in creating solutions to difficult problems. Region 3 VMD Marshall commented: "Since the reorganization, there is such teamwork, rapport, and good spirit, staff-wise. The support staff has a much better feel for what goes on in our regions. It's been a real morale builder."

Another unique way at Site 2 of providing the management teams with a sense of support grew out of a **working relationship with the advisory council.** In addition to the traditional nominating committee, four subcommittees were formed that revolved around functions important to the organization: 1) Policy and Procedures, to help staff and volunteers develop recommendations to send to the national governing board, 2) Services and Issues, to help with personnel and program problems, 3) Public Relations and Fund-raising, and 4) a subcommittee to assist with monitoring performance standards for Site 2 AMH.

These working committees, described by both Norman and Martin, sometimes brought in other volunteers and staff persons on a temporary basis to work with the committee to help resolve an issue. The VMDs in particular were impressed that the management teams were invited to sit at the table with members of the advisory group at their biannual meetings. They provided information regularly about their regions, and worked with advisory group members on their subcommittees. The nature of the advisory committee structure and the relationship with salaried and volunteer staff typifies today's "state of the art" thinking of recognized

leaders in the area of nonprofit advisory boards and councils (Carver, 1986; Conrad & Glenn, 1983; O'Connell, 1985;).

The importance of the advisory council approach was that it was also a consensus-building process that solicited views of the professional staff (both salaried and volunteer) to decide how to: 1)" create a sense of ownership for the advisory council," as Norman said, and 2) help management staff deal with issues important for optimal service delivery and effective programs in all regions. It was this kind of support from the advisory council and the recently-formed AMH support staff teams for each of the regions that led to Martin's statement: "My frustration with the scope of this job has decreased geometrically since the reorganization of the support staff and advisory council committee structure."

As the VMDs talked in the interviews about their participation in the work of the advisory council and input on reorganization, they offered such statements as: "The VP is highly interested in the volunteer viewpoint and interpretation of issues" (Rose, case study 5). "We are highly respected for our input into the decision-making process" (Martin, case study 7). Howard (case study 6) commented:

> There are a lot of little things that are indicative of the fact that I am a part of the organization. When I go to meetings, I sit with the staff. When I go to advisory council meetings, I sit with the whole group, and my input is called upon . . . I have influence in getting things done by volunteers that are normally done by paid staff, and my influence is respected by Milton and by Norman and others.

These feelings were in stark contrast to those expressed at other sites. One VMD at Site 1, for example, said:

> We went to the advisory council meetings and sometimes were called on to give a report or provide information, but the feeling was we were there to be seen and not heard . . . And that's

> kind of hard to accept because most of us served on this advisory council at some point under the old structure when there were four national field service offices.

One SMD observed that--at some point (he did not remember when)--the management teams had moved to the table to sit with advisory council members. During the second round of interviews, two SMDs indicated that they were building with the advisory council strong informal working relationships that were helping them with the work of their region. It appeared from the second round of interview data that the Site 2 example was affecting the thinking of SMDs at Site 1. If so, it illustrated one of the remarkable strengths of NOAH that was apparent throughout the interviews: There is an openness about sharing ideas, and a willingness of the staff to try new ideas for making the organization self-correcting in a vital and fast-paced way.

Again, at Site 3, the management teams felt a sense of separateness from the advisory council. One SMD said:

> We attend the meeting and are called on to give reports, but we really don't feel it is our advisory council because we don't have a significant relationship with their work. We sit behind them instead of at the table with them.

When asked if this relationship reflected the AMH vice-president's idea about a proper relationship, the SMD quickly responded, "No, I think it is the members of the council that do not want a more direct working relationship with us, and Dave is merely respecting their wishes."

In spite of the lack of special support features characteristic of Site 2 AMH, Helene, the VMD in case study 3 at Site 1 seemed to feel a strong sense of support. She commented, "I don't feel like I need an invitation to show up at Site 1 AMH. I always feel welcome and can approach John [the

vice-president] with ideas and questions." It seemed that her self-confidence and personal sense of self-esteem, coupled with the participative management style of the SMD and strong positive feelings toward the vice-president, allowed her to view them both as being very supportive of her role as VMD.

Another pervasive theme in the Site 2 interviews was **"celebrations."** Region 3 SMD Martin (Case study 7) commented on this subject at length:

> We're encouraged by the VP to celebrate our successes in our meetings, by telephone, at ceremonial and social events--celebration is a pretty important thing. . . . We've [Marshall and I] really confronted successfully some very thorny, long-standing problems. We've had a lot of successes, and so we keep reminding ourselves of that. . . . So every time we gain an inch or two, we hoot and holler about it.

When Martin was asked to describe what takes place when the staff at Site 2 AMH celebrate, he replied:

> Sometimes in the case of our partnership, it's just expressions of appreciation for Marshall's leadership, for his risk taking, for his decisiveness, for his steady hand at the wheel. He is a good counterbalance for me. . . . Other times it's the public celebrations I've alluded to with tangible rewards . . . Norman insists that we go occasionally to ceremonial stuff we are invited to in our region just to celebrate with our people their successes, even though we do not serve an official role. . . . Once a month we have an all- building meeting here at AMH and a birthday celebration with a table set up for all the staff whose birthdays fall in that month, with balloons, cupcakes, party hats, and hand-lettered signs, and we have a couple of staff people who trade off in reading the star charts that always are just so outrageous and irreverent, and we sing. You know, just all kinds of morale and affiliation builders . . .We do this at regional meetings too, and when the VMDs end their term we'll probably have one of our roasts which we're so famous for . . . So it's really a bonding process between all of us who work together [volunteer and salaried staff] that's important, but not to the exclusion of getting the work done . . . It's just a way of getting it done most effectively.

vice-president] with ideas and questions." It seemed that her self-confidence and personal sense of self-esteem, coupled with the participative management style of the SMD and strong positive feelings toward the vice-president, allowed her to view them both as being very supportive of her role as VMD.

Another pervasive theme in the Site 2 interviews was **"celebrations."** Region 3 SMD Martin (Case study 7) commented on this subject at length:

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The interviews with both the SMDs and VMDs revealed that these celebrations were energizing; coupled with the trust and positive strokes of the vice-president (which they frequently mentioned), they felt empowered to be all they could be.

During the interviews at Site 2, a new theme began to appear. The theme had to do with what appeared to be characteristics found specifically associated with volunteers socialized in the Midwest. When it occurred in more than two of the seven interviews at this site, a decision was made to explore it in the second round of interviews. The theme was first apparent in the interview with Martin, Region 3 SMD, as he described how the ideas of the management teams about the reorganization of the AMH support staff roles were being discussed and evaluated by the appropriate advisory council subcommittees. He said that turning such issues over to the subcommittees has been

> fulfilling to the volunteer advisory council members in terms of meaningful involvement and providing the time and work necessary to wrestle an issue to the ground so that the council at large has the needed information to make wise recommendations . . . Points of view were solicited and taken heavily into account. And a lot of strategies were discussed . . . It's a very open environment here among the staff and volunteers that seems peculiar to this part of the country. There is no shortage of passion when it comes to key issues about which people feel very strongly. But it's done in a way that doesn't rend the social fabric of the headquarters and doesn't destroy productivity of the working relationships . . . People just agree to disagree.

The next question to Martin was, "What do you think creates this kind of climate, and how do you think it differs in this part of the country from other regions?" He responded:

> My sense is it's a cultural thing that is pervasive in the Midwest among volunteer efforts. I think it goes back to the agricultural and rural kind of roots. I think you would find this

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> way of dealing with issues in a head-on direct kind of way in churches, civic organizations, educational institutions and political structures in the Mid-west to the degree that people's confidence and security permit this style. I even see it in the field service staff . . . My father was a construction engineer, so I've lived in several regions of the country, and I haven't observed this openness in other regional cultures.

In the next interview, a salaried manager whose NOAH career had taken him to several regions of the country to live was asked if he had observed any cultural differences in the volunteers. He responded that he had and followed with this explanation:

> In the East, I observed a kind of historic volunteerism. A lot of volunteers have been in the organization 20 to 30 years in respected positions. . . . These are kind of high-status positions that are earned through a long history of involvement. In the West, we had young short-term, project-oriented volunteers. The city where I was a manager is a very young professional city; I mean we had an amazing corporate release time program there as well as after working hours volunteer assignments . . . Now, in the Midwest, there is more of a pioneer volunteer spirit, sort of every body helping everybody else because it's the right thing to do. and they've been doing it in a variety of organizations most of their lives.

A close examination of the domains that related to VMD job context revealed that none of the VMDs at Sites 1 and 3, except Helene, felt nearly as comfortable in dealing with organizational conflict and "challenging up" as those at the Site 2 headquarters. Helene was born and reared in the Midwest and had first learned about volunteer roles from her father who "was a great community volunteer" and her mother who was a church volunteer.

All three of the mid-western VMDs at Site 2 had by far the broadest experience in volunteer roles in multiple organizations. Helene, who did not have an extensive history in multiple organizations, was the only VMD who had been able to devote almost her entire career life to NOAH. She had no

children and had worked at a salaried job for only a short period. She had served in numerous roles within the NOAH organizational setting although she had not been "to the top of the mountain"--serving on the national governing board. On the second round of interviews, two of the VMDs at other sites talked about coming to grips with the fact that there were things they had resisted doing on the job because they simply were not comfortable with those assignments, in spite of the confidence their SMD counterparts had in their ability. It is conceivable that these highly satisfied VMDs had been socialized into these roles in a way that made them feel self-confident and secure about facing virtually any volunteer challenge.

On the second round of interviews, SMDs and VMDs were asked where they were reared, and in what regions of the country they had worked with volunteers. If they had worked with volunteers in more than one region, they were asked if they had observed any differences in the volunteers. Their responses indicated that there might be such a phenomenon as regional volunteer cultures.

Their comments included the following views:

1) Volunteers in the West do not have as much experience or training as those in the East or Midwest. They tend to be attracted to short-term project-oriented volunteering.

2) Volunteers in the West and Northwest seem to be interested in serving on volunteer boards to enhance their business image in the community rather than being highly committed to the value of volunteer service.

3) Volunteers in the South and East are more interested in the prestige of the job than in other regions.

4) Volunteers in the South have to be convinced that there is really a good reason why they personally should be involved in fund-raising or direct service volunteering, but will do these forms of volunteering if convinced there is a good reason.

5) Volunteers in the Midwest, as a rule, simply need to be asked to do fund-raising and direct service volunteering because they are already convinced it is important and needed for the welfare of the community.

6) Volunteers in the West exhibit a less cooperative spirit than those in the East or Midwest in terms of pulling together to achieve group goals.

7) Volunteers in the Midwest confront controversial issues, and deal more comfortably with resolving conflict than volunteers in other regions.

8) Volunteers in the Midwest are socialized early to believe that helping people through volunteering is an important value.

The question posed in 2b was "What other job content and job context factors are related to the volunteer's satisfaction that are not suggested by the literature?" While Herzberg's major categories of hygiene factors indicate those aspects of the job context that can cause dissatisfaction in the work setting, the theory provided no way to anticipate the specific factors that were related to high satisfaction with the management team partnerships in cases 3, 5, 6 and 7. Data has been presented in answering secondary question 2b to indicate that there was one theme related to a job content characteristic and other themes related to job context characteristics that affected the level of partnership satisfaction and alleviated dissatisfying elements.

Some of these themes discussed as characteristics of the partnerships in case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7 were also found in other cases. The total constellation of themes, in conjunction with the theme of perceptions of strong AMH support, appears to have made the critical difference in the level of satisfaction for both the SMD and VMD in the partnerships in these cases. The interaction of these themes seemed to set up a cycle of

reinforcement that created mutual respect between the partners and comfort with the sharing of control and accountability.

Summary statement for primary question two. Data presented in the two sections above answer the question, "Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a management-level job related to certain aspects of job content and job context affected by the planning and supervision of salaried staff?" In answering the two secondary questions related to primary question two, the unique characteristics of the highly satisfying cases (case studies 3, 5, 6 and 7) and the mixed cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9 and 10) have been presented. A comparison can be made as to the difference in the relationship between co-workers who are considered peers when administrative policy, supervision, and specific characteristics of co-workers create working conditions conducive to security in the relationship. These factors reflect the effects of what Herzberg called hygiene factors.

Relationships in the mixed cases were strained by the presence of one or more of the following problems: 1) concerns created by lack of evaluation and feedback, 2) lack of succession planning, 3) lack of adequate strategies for communication and conflict resolution, 4) interruption of the "partnership life cycle" by turnover of the SMD position, and 5) problems related to the complementarity of the VMD's skills with the skills of the SMD. In contrast, the partners in the highly satisfying cases found none of these dissatisfactions to be creating strain in the work conditions due to the presence of a constellation of certain characteristics unique to these partnerships. The characteristics appear to eliminate the problems in the mixed cases.

One characteristic was related to job content. This was the frequent negotiation of the job content (as opposed to delegation) by the partners leading to clarification of expectations on both sides. There were five additional characteristics related to job context. The renegotiation of job content was possible because each partner took responsibility for frequent communication updates. The first two characteristics were facilitated by a third - the shared sense by both partners of a peer relationship. The shared sense of a peer relationship was facilitated by the VMDs confidence and self-esteem which appeared to be a function of their breadth of management experiences within the organization and their socialization experiences with volunteerism. These four VMDs (Case studies 3, 5, 6 and 7) had been first socialized to the culture of volunteerism in the Midwest. They shared the common characteristics of being unusually able to engage in open communication and conflict resolution in the management team relationship.

A final characteristic, the sense of shared control and accountability in these partnerships, appeared to result in part from the participative management style of the SMDs. Again, this style may have been a function of the self-confidence of the SMDs created by a long and wide breadth of management experiences within the organization. A final factor that appeared closely related to the sense of shared control and accountability for three of the highly satisfying partnerships was five unique characteristics of Site 2 AMH, four of which were related to supervision and administrative policy.

The characteristics unique at Site two were: the highly participative management style of the AMH vice-president who included <u>all</u> AMH staff,

salaried and volunteer, in the planning process; the reorganization of the AMH support staff and advisory council to give maximum support to the work of the management teams; and celebrations of significant personal life events and achievements with the entire AMH staff. These characteristics encouraged the management team partners to take the risk of innovative solutions to problems because they knew that responsibility and accountability for organizational outcomes was shared by all staff members, both salaried and volunteer.

Primary Question Three

3. What are the practical implications suggested by the findings of this study for the supervision and management of volunteers in management-level jobs?

Secondary question 3a. What do the findings suggest that salaried staff can do to insure that both job content and context will be motivating to the volunteer in performing a management-level job?

The findings from this study suggest that salaried staff can take some specific actions to create a climate that is personally motivating for the volunteer. Frequent renegotiation of the job content with the volunteer should take place, for example. A strategy should be developed that fosters clarification of expectations for both partners. This means that the salaried manager should make a commitment to participate in frequent communication updates with the partner. A plan needs to be developed whereby significant responsibilities are negotiated with the volunteer, and he or she should be held accountable through some kind of planned strategy for mutual goal setting and evaluation and/or regular feedback sessions. In addition, support staff need to be organized to provide maximum assistance

for the volunteer, as well as the salaried manager, in carrying out the job duties.

Special efforts to identify the forms of social exchange personally valued by the individual volunteer will allow salaried staff to plan the kind of recognition, support, and training opportunities necessary to attract and retain management-level volunteers. Plans for negotiated job duties for the volunteer should reflect perceptions of the relative importance of job tasks that provide the opportunities for affiliation, achievement or exercising positive power. These perceptions should be sought from the volunteers and others who work closely with them. Finally, salaried managers need to heighten their awareness of the special realms of influence which a volunteer has and utilize these to maximum advantage.

Secondary question 3b. What do the findings suggest about the resources, training, and support that salaried staff need in order to work effectively with volunteers as a management team?

The findings of this study imply that salaried staff need strong organizational support from the highest levels of management in order to build successful volunteer/salaried staff partnerships. In an international organization such as NOAH, development of career ladders and training are necessary to help staff develop a pool of individuals who have had enough breadth of experience to insure that self-confident, experienced volunteers are available for management-level jobs. Only those volunteers who demonstrate that they have already acquired strong management skills should be considered for such positions.

Special training may be necessary for salaried staff to learn how to be constructive role models and mentors for developing volunteers. Training

for the salaried staff needs to be offered on a regular basis, especially for developing skills for conflict resolution, providing constructive feedback, and open communication. In addition, a certain portion of organizational funds must be set aside to provide for the training, travel and maintenance of the management volunteers. Training in board development and board/staff relationships for all members of management teams (both salaried and volunteer) can lead to more productive relationships with advisory councils.

The findings indicate that assistance needs to be provided in three more areas to develop effective relationships. The first is developing strategies for making the best possible match between the skills and personalities of the salaried and volunteer partner and the specific needs of the region. The second area is providing the salaried manager with a strategy for succession planning with the volunteer, from the beginning of the volunteer's term until its expiration. Finally, the development of a formal orientation for management-level volunteers would ease them into the position with a maximum of understanding of the demands and expectations for the job, and a minimum amount of frustration in the initial phase of the "life cycle" of the partnership.

A final point relates to the SMDs' perceptions of organizational support. When asked in what way they had received support in their job as an SMD, the most common response was illustrated by the SMD who said, "I don't feel there is a whole lot. Of course, we all know our AMH vice-president is very supportive of us in our jobs, but I would say my main sense of support is another SMD." In other words, most SMDs felt the greatest sense of support came from each other. One SMD spoke directly of the stroking and encouragement given by the VMD, and in seven of the ten

cases the SMDs made comments that implied in some way that the amount of work accomplished on the job would be impossible without the assistance of the VMD. Gregg (case study 1) exemplified this when he said, "If it wasn't for William and his tremendous contributions . . . we wouldn't have been able to accomplish as much as we did in our region."

A theme that emerged in the interviews relating to the subject of support, and pervasive enough to merit comment, led to the development of an unanticipated domain entitled, "a characteristic of national headquarters." While all SMDs were unquestionably dedicated to the mission of the national organization, a vague feeling of discomfort was expressed in over half of the interviews about the level of communication with national headquarters. A typical comment was expressed by one SMD in the following statement:

> We [the SMDs and management teams] are sort of caught in the middle trying to rationalize some of the national policy and philosophy to field service staff and local units. Lots of times we don't feel all that much support from national.

Another SMD stated that "national headquarters has recently done a great job of gathering input from the grass roots up in developing national policy and guidelines; but it seems like somewhere along the line, much of the input gets homogenized like peanut butter and translated into something different from the original statement and intent." Other SMDs were concerned that increased emphasis was being put on products or end results and important aspects of process were being ignored. Some thought this was because many new national staff members did not have an understanding of certain important aspects of the human service history and tradition of NOAH.

These concerns may relate in part to the numerous changes National management staff have been faced with in the past several years. The area management headquarters were originally staffed in 1983 for management oversight only. One year after the development of the regional management plan, the national headquarters underwent an important reorganization in the structure of hierarchical reporting lines. The emphasis changed from linking persons who were responsible for the specific programs to linking persons who were responsible for certain functions. For instance, all persons whose job function was related to human resource development were linked in a reporting hierarchy regardless of the NOAH program with which they specifically worked. At this point, the regional management teams took on a new responsibility to interpret to the field the new national structure and how it supported the field-service personnel. It is possible that the discomfort of the SMDs with their sense of support from national headquarters grew out of the demands of learning a third role, in addition to that of managing director and member of a volunteer/salaried staff peer management team.

This theme of dissatisfaction with recognition and support was minor compared to the positive aspects stressed by the management teams, but it is important to note that personnel in several SMD positions changed one or more times during the first three-year term of VMDs, while all VMDs stayed the full term, and Marlene (case study 9) continued in her unexpired term as VMD. Since the most important job motivation acknowledged at the explicit level by SMDs was the opportunity to achieve, it may be that some left the position as a result of their perceived lack of support and recognition for achievement. As one SMD said, "In this job, if you don't

create some of your own positive strokes, it can be pretty thankless." Since perceived forms of support and recognition may be important in order for the SMD to feel he or she has achieved in a satisfying way, the data reported in these two domains for SMDs are provided in Appendix F.

After examining the unique characteristics at Site 2 and the contrasts between the mixed cases and highly satisfying cases, it appears that strong organizational support acknowledging the appropriate role of the volunteer manager for shared accountability of management outcomes may be one of the most important forms of organizational support to the SMD. This means, of course, that volunteers must have the necessary resources and support staff to back up their work if they are to be charged with this responsibility along with the salaried manager.

Summary statement for primary question three. The data discussed in secondary questions 3a and 3b indicated that there are many important strategies that salaried staff can engage in to enhance an organization's ability to attract and retain skilled management volunteers. In addition to these strategies, strong organizational support provided in a variety of ways for both salaried and volunteer managers is likely to increase the satisfaction of management team partners and, ultimately, productivity of the team. Possibly the most important form of top management support that can be provided is dealing with the issue of shared accountability since this factor appears to be a major source of strain in the working relationship of management team partners.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The specific purpose of this study was to analyze factors affecting the motivation of individuals to accept a management-level volunteer job and remain in it for a specific time commitment. Knowledge of these factors is important to the leaders and managers of nonprofit/voluntary associations in the years ahead for several reasons. Throughout American history (as was documented in Chapter II) nonprofit voluntary associations have been the most important means, aside from the family, for the delivery of human services in communities. Over the last 100 years, government agencies have been the most important source of support for the human service organizations (Salamon, 1984).

At a time when government support is decreasing significantly and the family is becoming increasingly unable to meet these needs, the demands for human services are greater than ever (Coleman, 1987; Salamon, 1984). Two-thirds of all 501(c)(3) organizations (exclusive of hospitals and universities) have come into existence since 1960. These organizations must, by definition, have a public-benefit goal as their primary reason for existing. If religious organizations are excluded, there are 375,000 of these organizations according to the records of the Internal Revenue Service, 119,635 of which are classified strictly as human service organizations (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1986; Salamon, 1984). Of the 82.2 million Americans who volunteered in 1985, 80% did volunteer work in nonprofit/voluntary associations (Independent Sector, 1986). The demise of these organizations would almost certainly mean a sharp decline in the

availability of human service programs. The health and survival of the nonprofit/voluntary sector has become such a matter of interest that the Yale University Press has recently published a research handbook on the subject (Powell, 1987).

The for-profit corporates are arising to meet the need to support the nonprofit/voluntary sector more quickly than any other source. One of the most important forms of assistance they are providing is human resources (as opposed to strictly financial or material resources) through corporate volunteer programs which are growing in number daily (Vizza, Allen, & Keller, 1986). This pool of volunteers represents a wide range of skilled and talented persons who are anxious to use their time effectively. Competition for their commitment to human service programs is great (O'Connell, 1984; Vizza, Allen, & Keller, 1986). If organizations are to attract these volunteers, management staff must understand the factors that motivate volunteer participation and on-going commitment to a program.

This study was designed to contribute knowledge about those factors that attract talented volunteers to accept management-level jobs and remain in them for a specific time commitment through answering the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to volunteers, in the performance of a management-level job?

2. Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a job related to certain aspects of job content and job context that are affected by the planning and supervision carried out by salaried staff?

3. What are the practical implications suggested by the findings for the supervision and management of volunteers who perform management-level jobs?

Data were gathered to answer these questions by conducting ten case studies of management team partnerships within one organization at three different sites in the United States, designated as Sites 1, 2, and 3 in the study. Each management team consisted of one salaried and one volunteer manager responsible for management oversite of one of ten national management regions for the human service organization referred to in this study by the pseudonym NOAH. The ethnographic interview process was used to collect data at the three sites. A structured method of analytic induction was used to do content analyses of data. Additional information was gathered for the purpose of data triangulation through document analysis and interviews with the operational vice-presidents at the three sites and staff at NOAH corporate headquarters.

The remainder of this chapter consists of two sections. The first presents a summary of findings related to the research questions and a discussion of those findings that emerged from the data analysis which go beyond the questions to explain the relationship of variables that contributed to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the management team partnerships. These findings are of importance because of the relationship documented in the research literature between motivation, job satisfaction and organizational productivity. The second section discusses interpretations and recommendations for future research.

Summary of Findings

Content analysis of the data was accomplished through domain analysis, a structured methodology for arranging data into meaningful categories of information. Four theories were used as tools to search for

categories (i.e. domains) of information that would be useful for answering the three primary research questions. The primary theory used was Peter Blau's theory of social exchange. This theory is frequently used in the literature to explain the participation of individuals in voluntary associations. The other three theories were those of David McClelland, Abraham Maslow, and Frederick Herzberg. These theories are often used in the literature to explain the motivation of individuals to engage in salaried and volunteer work-related behavior. In addition, unanticipated domains emerged from the analysis that were not suggested by the literature dealing with these theories.

Once all data were aggregated, a theme paper was written for each case study, noting patterns of themes that characterized the management team partnerships that constituted the unit of analysis for the case. A search was then conducted for dimensions of contrast and similarity across cases. This resulted in the discovery of four patterns of minor themes and one major theme related to all four of the patterns of minor themes.

The first set of themes was related to seven characteristics that were common across all cases. The characteristics explained the factors that attracted the salaried and volunteer managers to their job in the management team partnership and created satisfaction with a job position that was very demanding in terms of required talent, time and effort, and travel.

These characteristics were as follows:

1. Each salaried and volunteer manager had had past experiences with either role models, mentors or support persons, both within and outside the organization, who encouraged them to engage in work with voluntary associations to meet human needs in the community.

2. The work commitment of the salaried and volunteer manager that constituted each management team partnership was rooted in a common value system based on the principle that meeting human needs within the community is valuable work to be doing.

3. All salaried and volunteer managers had developed the skills and earned the respect which qualified them for their job by working up through the ranks of NOAH.

4. The salaried managers were motivated in their jobs by the opportunities for achievement and the exercise of positive power to influence others in achieving the work of the organization.

5. The volunteer managers were motivated in their jobs by opportunities for affiliation, achievement, and personal growth without the constraints of a full-time salaried job.

6. The volunteers expressed appreciation of many special forms of support and recognition.

7. The salaried managers believed that volunteer managers exercised positive power, in the form of special influence with other volunteers and community members, that helped achieve the goals of the management team.

Analysis of the data that documented the presence of these characteristics indicated that social exchange played an important role in attracting the volunteer managers and retaining them in the position. According to social exchange theory, most human behavior is purposive and goal oriented. The action of individuals is contingent on the rewarding reactions of others and will cease when these expected reactions are not forthcoming.

Blau identified six major categories that motivate the social interaction of individuals: 1) the intrinsic reward of personal attraction that results in satisfying affiliation with others, 2) the intrinsic reward of social acceptance that creates internal esteem through engaging in behavior that is valued by self and others, 3) the extrinsic reward of social approval that generates esteem through the tangible signs of the approval of others for

specific acts of the individual, 4) the extrinsic reward of instrumental services that enhance one's ability to achieve intellectual, relational, and objective ends, 5) the unilateral reward category of respect and prestige which bestows status upon recipients for a generalized appraisal of their worth, and 6) the unilateral reward of power and compliance which is offered in return for some superior trait which the recipient possesses. The data indicated that the characteristics identified as common across all cases, with the exception of number one, were directly related to social exchange rewards.

There was considerable evidence that the volunteer managers were receiving rewards in all six categories. The category which appears to have been by far the most motivating was respect and prestige. A **major theme** that recurred in many of the domains of analysis can be stated by the principle that volunteer work is valuable to the organization and, therefore, volunteers accrue respect and the status that is commensurate with that respect, for their work. This theme was related to the minor themes inherent in the characteristics common across all cases. The second most valued reward, opportunities for affiliation, fitted the category of personal attraction. The three rewards in the category of instrumental services that were most motivating for the volunteers were an adequate travel and maintenance budget to do the job, opportunities for personal growth through training and development, and opportunities for achievement.

There was one factor that was important to the volunteers in attracting and retaining them in their jobs that was of no relevance to the salaried managers. This factor was their willingness to take the job because it provided them with unusual opportunities for personal growth and

development without the constraints imposed by a full-time salaried position. This allowed them to continue to make other interests, such as involvement with family or professional goals outside the organization, their first commitment, with NOAH running a close second.

The salaried managers had been exposed to socialization experiences, much like the volunteers, that encouraged them to engage in the work of a voluntary association through the encouragement and example of role models and mentors both within and outside the organization. This was the one factor that attracted them to the job that was not directly related to rewards that fit within Blau's categories of social exchange. The data provide evidence that the salaried managers were receiving rewards in all six categories of social exchange. However, they perceived themselves to be receiving fewer rewards, with the exception of two categories; the category of instrumental services and that of power and compliance.

The instrumental services most important to salaried managers were opportunities for achievement and the opportunities for career development through training provided by NOAH. All but one of the SMDs were dependent on their salary for a livelihood. However, salary was emphasized by only two managers in the interviews as a job satisfaction. The salaried managers were very aware that their position afforded them considerable power to influence others in achieving the regional goals for program delivery. They also acknowledged that at times they yielded this power to the volunteer manager whom they perceived to have special influence with other volunteers in the organization and community, particularly members of the corporate community who provide both volunteers and financial support for the organization.

The dimensions of similarity across cases (i.e. common characteristics) provided information for answering the first research question: **Is there a difference in the factors that motivate salaried staff, as opposed to volunteers, in the performance of a management-level job?** Concepts associated with the theories of McClelland, Maslow and Herzberg were helpful in analyzing the data for factors that fit within the reward categories of social exchange theory. The factors which motivated the volunteers to accept the job were the same for salaried staff with the one exception, the desire of volunteers to receive certain benefits without the constraints imposed by a salaried position. Social exchange factors appeared, however, to differ in terms of the valence of specific categories as motivators for the volunteers as opposed to salaried managers. It is possible that social exchange factors were more powerful in retaining volunteer mangers than salaried managers since there was no turnover in the VMD positions during the three-year term and there was turnover in three of the salaried manager positions. However, this may simply indicate that volunteers were provided with more rewards in such categories as approval and respect, not that salaried managers valued them less.

In spite of the evidence that social exchange rewards played an important role in attracting the management team partners to their jobs and retaining the volunteers, in particular, for the three year term, this theory did not explain certain other findings that emerged from the data analysis and possibly represent the most important findings of the study. These findings emerged from exploring dimensions of contrast across cases. The fact was noted that four of the management team partnerships (case studies 3, 5, 6, and 7) were characterized by an unusual amount of

satisfaction with the working relationship for both partners in the team and aspects of dissatisfaction were absent. These were labeled the **highly satisfying cases**. The remaining cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10) were characterized by many satisfactions, but they also contained various elements of dissatisfaction with the management team partnership on the part of either the volunteer or salaried manager or both. These were labeled the **mixed cases**.

The contrast between these groups of partnerships led to information useful in answering the second research question: **Is the motivation of volunteers to perform a job related to certain aspects of job content and job context that are affected by the planning and supervision carried out by salaried staff?** Herzberg's theory of work motivation and job satisfaction proved to be valuable in analyzing the data associated with a pattern of minor themes resulting from the unique characteristics of these two groups of case studies. One job content factor and certain job context factors which Herzberg referred to as hygiene factors were helpful in explaining the contrasting characteristics of the two groups.

NOAH's recently implemented field service plan for program operation (that established the management team concept) called for the salaried and volunteer managers to operate as peers. In the highly satisfying cases (3, 5, 6, and 7) there were six characteristics that allowed the salaried and volunteer managers to function truly as peers. The six characteristics led to a sharing of control and accountability for the achievement of management team goals. This peer relationship reinforced the major theme found operating to some extent in all cases-the principle that volunteer work is valuable and respected and, therefore, accrues status

for the volunteer as a co-equal partner with salaried staff in the organization.

The mixed cases (1, 2, 4, 8, 9, and 10) were characterized by five areas of concern that were ultimately related to a theme found in these cases that stood in contradiction to the major theme stated above. The interview data indicated that the unique characteristics of the mixed cases interfered with the sense of peer relationship in these management team partnerships. The themes that revolved around the six characteristics in the mixed cases were ultimately related to a central theme that can be stated by the principle that salaried staff are more accountable than volunteers for the achievement of regional goals. It was difficult for the partners to see themselves as peers if one was more responsible than the other for program outcomes. In these cases, the volunteer appeared to be subordinate to the salaried manager, thus weakening the partners' acceptance of the prevailing organizational theme that the volunteer is valued and respected as a co-equal partner with salaried staff.

One of the factors that contributed to the unique characteristics of the highly satisfying cases was a strong sense of organizational support for the management team partnership. This sense of support was important in resolving the conflict related to the issue of accountability. This feeling of support was related to the characteristics of the partners and certain aspects of organizational climate (job context factors) at Site 2. Stated in brief, the specific organizational characteristics were: the highly participative management style of the Site 2 area management headquarters vice-president of involving all staff, salaried and volunteer, in the planning process, the organization of the Site 2 support staff for

maximum assistance to the management team partnerships, the working relationship of the Site 2 area advisory council with the management team partnerships, and celebration of special events and achievements of the entire Site 2 staff. In addition, the volunteers in the four highly satisfying management team partnerships had in common certain characteristics. The data indicate they were unusually confident, service-oriented volunteers who constructively confronted organizational issues. Resolving these issues appeared to create comfort with shared control and responsibility for the work and program outcomes.

While the factors associated with job context that explained the presence of an unusual amount of satisfaction in some cases and elements of dissatisfaction in others, are not directly related to the problem of identifying the factors that attract and retain volunteers in management-level jobs, they are important. These factors hold importance for managers of voluntary associations because of the positive relationship between motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational productivity indicated by the research literature.

Interpretations

The very nature of the processes involved in the analysis and reporting of qualitative data calls for the on-going interpretation of data as the analysis proceeds. **In answering the third research question,** there are several interpretations that hold implications for managers of nonprofit/voluntary associations if they hope to attract talented volunteers to fill management-level positions to work in partnerships with salaried staff. These are as follows:

1. A certain portion of the organization's resources must be set aside for

   a) recognition of significant volunteer contributions,
   b) training and development programs for both volunteer and salaried staff,
   c) a travel and maintenance budget for volunteers that is adequate to support the work they are expected to accomplish, and
   d) the development of a human resource management system that provides for evaluation and career development planning for both salaried and volunteer staff.

2. Since commitment to volunteer jobs appears to be rooted in a value system that is common to that of the organization, the organization must be clear about its' value system and program planning and delivery should be guided by this system of values.

3. Attention must be given to clarify with volunteers the needs they hope to meet through the volunteer job with particular attention being given to aspects of organizational climate that foster productive work relationships between salaried and volunteer staff.

4. The most important training need for both salaried and volunteer staff is for the development of strong communication skills to foster a joint planning process and constructive resolution of conflict.

5. Strong organizational support must be provided in a variety of ways from the top down for both salaried and volunteer staff, but especially for salaried staff whose need for support in management-level partnerships is more likely to be overlooked.

6. Youth and young adults need experiences with volunteerism, role models, and mentors within an organization at an early stage to develop the commitment and skills necessary to fill a demanding management-level volunteer job.

Two major interpretations were made during the analysis of data that are central to this study. The first is the notion that NOAH provided a subculture within the wider culture of American society in which individuals can achieve status based on the value of their volunteer contributions to the organization. This was based in large part on the constantly recurring theme in many domains that the volunteers are respected by the organization for the value of their volunteer work. In addition, the interpretation is based on the concept initiated by the new field service plan

that the volunteer/salaried staff management team partners would be regarded as peers.

A second major interpretation was that this peer relationship is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve if salaried staff are held more accountable for the outcomes of the work of the management team than the volunteer. If the peer concept is to work, strong organizational support must be provided for both the volunteer and salaried staff partners. Such support is needed for each partner to be willing to take on the risk and responsibility of sharing control and accountability for the work of the management team. This study indicates that the closer the volunteer/salaried staff partners come to operationalizing the peer concept, the greater the satisfaction will be with the management team. The conflict that is set in motion by an organization which creates policy that says management volunteers are peers with salaried staff and then continues to hold salaried staff more accountable than the volunteer for outcomes will inevitably become a source of on-going organizational strain. This strain is likely to drain off time and energy from productive work relationships between salaried and volunteer staff.

Recommendations for Future Research

The most important question raised by this study for future research is: Do volunteer/salaried staff management teams increase organizational productivity? Preliminary findings of the research division of NOAH's Department of Corporate Planning and Evaluation indicate that these partnerships do show promise for increasing organizational productivity in very significant ways.

Sociologist James Coleman (1987) states that if the U.S. is to solve the pressing social problems affecting communities across the country today, Americans must find new ways to replenish the eroding social capital which has been the cement of community cohesion in the past. One source of social capital is the social services delivered by voluntary associations. Managers of such organizations may be able to continue to deliver effective programs, in spite of decreasing government support, if they create the kind of organizational climate and rewards needed to attract talented volunteers - volunteers who will take on management-level jobs in partnership with salaried staff.

As stated in Chapter III, a study of this nature leads to postulates that may be used as working hypotheses for future research. The findings suggest the following postulates to guide the design of research valuable to managers and leaders of voluntary organizations for involving management-level volunteers in leadership roles:

1. There is a positive relationship between the job satisfaction of management volunteers and the provision of resources for training and maintenance of the volunteer in the job role.

2. There is a positive relationship between the time commitment of a management level volunteer and the commitment of the volunteer to the mission of the organization.

3. There is a positive relationship between the breadth of management experience of salaried and volunteer staff members within an organization and the level of satisfaction for both members of a salaried/volunteer staff management team.

4. There is a positive relationship between the satisfaction of volunteer and salaried partners in a management team and their skills for open communication and conflict resolution.

5. There is a positive relationship between the complementarity of the management team partners' skills and the productivity of the management team if both partners demonstrate strong skills for communication and conflict resolution.

6. There is a positive relationship between the extent of the volunteer manager's socialization experiences with volunteerism and the willingness to commit time and effort to an organization.

7. There is a positive relationship between the satisfaction of volunteer and salaried partners in a management team and the presence of a shared perception of a peer relationship.

8. There is a positive relationship between a volunteer's satisfaction in a management position and the level of individual self-esteem.

9. There is a positive relationship between the satisfaction of volunteer and salaried partners in a management team and their perceptions of support from others in the organization in carrying out their job functions.

10. There is a positive relationship between the sharing of control and accountability in a management team partnership and the satisfaction of both partners.

11. There is a positive relationship between the participation of a volunteer manager in the planning process and the volunteer's sense of accountability for program results.

12. There is a positive relationship between opportunities for need fulfillment through various kinds of social exchange as a volunteer manager and the extent of the volunteer's commitment of time and effort to the job.

Perhaps the single greatest value of the description of the NOAH management team partnerships has been expressed in this statement by SMD Anne, Region 3, Site 3:

> One of the things that has really happened in our organization with these volunteer managers is that this fear has been dispelled that you can't get volunteers to do tough jobs. That notion has really been blown out of the water.

The partnerships in this study indicate the kind of "tough jobs" volunteers can do. They hold promise for implementing a practice which could allow effective human service programs to maintain, or even increase, their level of service delivery in the future.

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Appendix A

JOB DESCRIPTION FOR THE SALARIED MANAGING DIRECTOR

Position Reports To: AMH Vice-president

1. **Overall Purpose of Duties and Expected End Results:**
   Supervise field service directors and provide managememt oversite to local service delivery units within a geographical region to assure delivery of needed services, working in conjunction with a volunteer managing director to achieve expected end results.
2. **Major Duties:**
   a. Assist field service staff to recruit, train, develop and effectively utilize volunteers' skills for field service delivery.
   b. Exercise management oversight, evaluation and assistance to key resource units and regional centers to insure attainment of corporate performance results. Directly accountable for monitoring the performance of and in initiating appropriate corrective action for those units not performing up to standards.
   c. Supervise, coordinate and evaluate the work of the field service directors.
   d. Plan, promote, organize and participate in regional meetings.
   e. Coordinate available resources to provide needed assistance to field service staff and local service delivery units.
   f. Evaluate and plan regional activities, using data base and other resource information.
   g. Prepare and control the regional budget.
   h. Perform related duties as assigned.
3. **Decisions Made in this Position:**
   a. Decisions you make on your own authority:
      Approve budget expenditures within delegated authority; interpret national and regional policies, directives, and procedures; plan regional meetings; develop time, work and itinerary schedules for self and volunteer resources.
   b. Decisions that require approval of a higher authority:
      Expenditures that exceed authorized budget; exceptions to regulations, policies, directives and procedures.
4. **Minimum Work Experience and/or Level of Education Necessary to Perform the Duties of Your Position:**
   Bachelor's degree, preferably in community organization, public or business administration, or one of the social sciences, and evidence of participation in continuing educational activities. Master's degree desirable. Minimum of ten years NOAH experience in broad management or administrative positions in both local and national sector preferred. Work performance reviews or equivalent appraisal documents must reflect performance which frequently exceeds the standard level.

   Demonstrated competency in working in a management team relationship with a chairman, in motivating, organizing and establishing effective volunteer relationships; planning, organizing, leading, and controlling; fiscal management and financial development; supervision; training and developement of salaried and volunteer staff; oral and written communication, and leadership skills. Working knowledge of the major types of service delivery units and labor principles.

   Mobility within the U.S. and extensive travel required.

JOB DESCRIPTION FOR THE VOLUNTEER MANAGING DIRECTOR

Positon Reports to: volunteer counterpart of AMH VP

1. **Overall Purpose of Duties and Expected End Results:**
   This is a volunteer management position that participates with the salaried regional manager to supervise field service staff; to provide management oversight to key resource units within a geographical region to assure delivery of needed services and to promote the principle that the activities of the VMD are led and carried out by qualified, highly motivated volunteers.
2. **Major Duties:**
   a. Assist SMD to recruit, train, develop and effectively utilize volunteers' skills for field service delivery.
   b. Assist the SMD in providing oversight, evaluation and assistance to key resource units and regional centers to insure attainment of corporate performance results and in monitoring the performance of and in recommending appropriate corrective action for those units not performing up to standards.
   c. Work with the SMD to supervise, coordinate and evaluate the work of field service units.
   d. Provide primary responsibility to plan, promote, organize and participate in regional meetings.
   e. Work with SMD to assure that needed assistance is provided to the four major types of field service units.
   f. Evaluate and participate with the SMD to plan regional activities using data base and other resource information.
   g. Assist the SMD to prepare and control the regional budget.
   h. Perform related duties as assigned.
3. **Decisions Made in this Position:**
   a. Decisions you make on your own authority:

      Approve budget expenditures within delegated authority; interpret policies, directives, and procedures; plan regional meetings; develop time, work, and itinerary schedules for self.
   b. Decisions that require approval of a higher authority:

      Expenditures that exceed your delegated authority: exceptions to regulations, policies, directives and procedures.
4. **Minimum Work Experience and/or Level of Education Necessary to Perform the Duties of Your Position:**

   The volunteer should preferably have experience and knowledge in community organization, public or business administration or one of the behavioral sciences, and evidence of participation in continuing education. Management or administrative experience in both local and national sector preferred. Knowledge of major types of field service units desirable.

   Demonstrated competency in: working in a management team relationship with a manager in motivating, organizing and establishing effective volunteer relationships; planning organizing, and controlling; fiscal management and financial development; supervison; training and development of volunteer and salaried staff; oral and written communication, and leadership skills.

   Travel required.

Appendix B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
(First Round)

The following questions were designed to elicit indirect responses to the primary and secondary research questions, without leading interviewee response:

Questions for Volunteers

1. Tell me about your job: What are the kinds of things you do in this job; the events you participate in; the people you interact with; etc.?

2. How did you get involved in volunteering?

3. Why did you take this job as opposed to other options?

4. What aspects of the job lead to the greatest satisfaction for you?

5. What aspects lead to the greatest dissatisfaction?

The following questions were used to probe further if responses to the first five broad descriptive questions did not elicit enough information:

1. How is your role as a volunteer:

   a) like the salaried staff job?
   b) different from the salaried staff job?

2. What are the ways salaried staff provide:

   a) supervision for you on the job?
   b) encouragement and support?
   c) recognition?

3. What are the ways you:

   a) have opportunities for achievement on the job?
   b) have affiliation with other people?
   c) have influence on others?

4. How do these three aspects of your work compare in importance in terms of job satisfaction?

5. Who are the friends, peers, relatives, and co-workers you have known who do volunteering?

Questions for the Salaried Staff

1. Would you please begin by describing to me what you do in your job?

2. What career/volunteer experiences led you to this job?

3. What are the most important factors that keep you in this job?

4. What aspects of the job lead to the greatest satisfaction?

5. Which aspects create the greatest dissatisfactions?

The following questions were used to get additional information if the first five broad descriptive questions had not elicited the information:

1. How is the volunteer job like your own?

2. How is the volunteer role different?

3. What are the ways in which you provide the volunteer with:

   a) supervision on the job?
   b) encouragement and support?
   c) recognition?

4. In what ways are you provided with:

   a) supervision on the job?
   b) encouragement and support?
   c) recognition?

5. What are the things you do that:
   a) have opportunities for achievement on the job?
   b) have affiliation with other people?
   c) have influence on others?

6. How do these three aspects of your job compare in importance in terms of job satisfaction?

7. Who are the friends, relatives, peers, or co-workers who have done work similar to yours?

8. How does the volunteer role help you in getting your job done?

9. How does the volunteer role hinder you in getting your job done?

The following demographic data were gathered at the end of each interview with a one-page written form:

1. Age
2. Marital status
3. Children
4. Years of work outside the home
5. Income level
6. Need to work in paid job
7. Average hours per week on the job
8. Level of education

Informant Code _____

The following demographic information is necessary to develop a profile on each of the case study participants for the purposes of this study. This information will be identified by code only and will be kept in strict confidence.

Researcher _____

Please fill in the correct answer or check the appropriate category for each of the following questions.

1. Age _____.

2. Marital Status: Married _____, Single _____.

3. Number of children and ages: _____.

4. Years of work outside the home: _____.

5. Income level:

   $10,000 to 20,000 _____, $20,000 to 30,000 _____

   $30,000 to 40,000 _____, $40,000 to 50,000 _____

   $50,000 + _____

6. Do you feel that working at a paid job is an optional choice for you? yes _____ no _____

7. <u>For volunteers only</u>. Do you work in a paid job as well as a volunteer job? yes _____, no _____

8. Average hours per week on the job:

   10 to 20 _____, 20 to 30 _____, 30 to 40 _____,

   40 + _____

9. Level of Education:

   High School _____, Some College _____,

   Bachelor's Degree _____, Masters Degree _____,

   Doctorate _____, Other (specify) _____

QUESTIONS FOR THE SMDs - TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS

1. How is your new partnership different from the first one, if at all?

2. Describe how the new volunteer managing director was chosen? How was this procedure different from the first time?

3. In what part of the country were you reared?

4. Which areas of the country have you worked in during your employment with NOAH?

5. In what ways were the volunteers different from one part of the country to another, if at all?

6. What is your relationship with the operations area advisory council?

7. How has this changed over the past four years, if at all?

8. Reflecting on your experiences of the past four years, how do you believe evaluation of the VMD should be handled?

9. How many directors were in the SMD position in your region during the VMD's term?

10. Was the VMD there the entire three-year term?

11. How often did you communicate, and in what ways?

12. How long did it take to function smoothly as a team?

13. Based on your first experience, what are ways you see to improve on a partnership?

14. How does your family feel about the level of intensity of your job as a SMD?

QUESTIONS FOR THE VMDs - TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS

1. Have you taken another job in NOAH since the expiration of the VMD term?

2. How does it feel to be in this job as opposed to the VMD job?

3. In what part of the country were you reared?

4. In what other areas of the country have you volunteered for NOAH, or for any other organization?

5. What differences, if any, do you see in volunteers in different areas of the country?

6. What was your relationship to the area operations advisory council?

7. How did that relationship change over the past 3 years, if at all?

8. Were you evaluated during your three years as a VMD?

9. How many different SMDs were in your region during your term?

10. Were you in the VMD position the entire three-year term?

11. Did you work with national headquarters in any way before you became a VMD?

12. In your job as VMD, did you relate to the volunteer side of staff, salaried side, or both?

13. How did you and your SMD counterpart go about clarifying expectations for each other?

14. In retrospect, what do you see as ways that the management team partnership could be improved, if at all?

15. How does your family feel about your volunteering?

Appendix C

DOMAINS

SMD = Salaried Managing Director
VMD = Volunteer Managing Director

Semantic Relationship: Means-end (x is a way to do y)

- a way to support the SMD
- a way to recognize an SMD
- a way to supervise an SMD
- a way the VMD helps the SMD get the job done
- a way to support the VMD
- a way to recognize the VMD
- a way to supervise the VMD
- a way to improve the partnership

Semantic Relationship: Attribution (x is a characteristic of y)

- a characteristic of VMD
- a characteristic of the VMD's job content
- a characteristic of the VMD's job context

- a characteristic of SMD
- a characteristic of SMD job content
- a characteristic of SMD job context

- a characteristic of operations headquarters
- a characteristic of a partnership
- a characteristic of the national corporation
- a characteristic of an AMH/VP
- a characteristic of an AMH area

Semantic Relationship: Strict Inclusion (x is a kind of y)

- a kind of VMD job satisfaction
- a kind of VMD job dissatisfaction
- a kind of achievement for VMD
- a kind of affiliation for VMD
- a kind of positive power for VMD
- a kind of problem for a VMD
- a kind of partnership problem
- a kind of volunteer role model/mentor
- a kind of next career step for VMD
- a kind of SMD job satisfaction

a kind of SMD job dissatisfaction
a kind of achievement for an SMD
a kind of affiliation for an SMD
a kind of positive power for an SMD
a kind of problem for the SMD
a kind of SMD role model/mentor

Semantic Relationship: Cause-effect (x is a cause/result of y)

is a cause of reorganization
is a result of reorganization

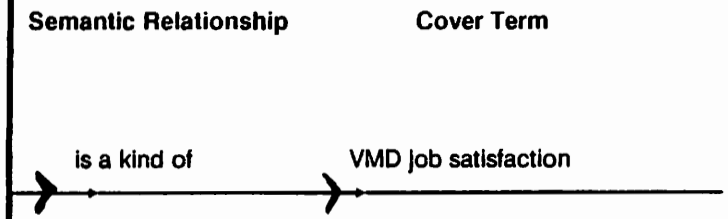
Semantic Relationship: Rationale (x is a reason for doing y)

a reason for becoming an SMD
a reason for doing the VMD job
a reason for selective recruitment and matching of the VMD with SMD

1. **Semantic Relationship:** STRICT INCLUSION
2. **Form:** X is a kind of Y
3. **Example:** an oak is a kind of tree

Included Terms

- travel opportunities that can fit with family needs **tr4Bp9**
- love being with all kinds of people **tr4Bp11**
- the people contacts provide balance with what I did in my university job which was very isolated **tr1Bp13**
- training and personal development **tr2Bp11**
- my work is an "open sesame" to wonderful people contacts **tr2Bp11**
- to be pioneers in the first experiment with the VMD concept **tr3Bp19**
- having faith in being able to delegate to other volunteers to do parts of this job **tr6Bp10**
- a genuine expression of appreciation from the area management headquarter VP **tr8Bp28**
- the fact that the organization cares for people both on the inside and outside **tr10Bp26**



KEY = TR4Bp9
tr = transcript
4 = case number
A = SMD
B = VMD
p = page number data appears on

Appendix E

Below is a listing of the forms of recognition and support that were mentioned in the VMD interviews. The number that a single form was mentioned is indicated by the number following the item instead of repeating all data bits that occurred in the domains.

A Way to Recognize a VMD

- access to special on the job training (4)
- special service awards given by NOAH (3)
- letters from SMD that document VMD's authority and (4) credibility as a manager
- acknowledgement from SMD for hard work
- "seeing people get back on their feet as a result of your work" (work of the VMD)
- VMD receiving a copy of a good evaluation after a workshop
- VMD being included in the activities of a volunteer recognition week
- banquets and receptions honoring VMD work (4)
- personalized gifts (10)
- receiving verbal praise for job performance from someone within the organization
- flowers, cards, letters with special messages from others in the organization
- being taken to lunch
- a toast to the volunteer at a reception
- SMD praising the work of the VMD in public and to others in the organization
- giving the VMD additional responsibilities (2)
- SMD utilizing new skills of the VMD acquired through training

- a note from the AMH/VP praising the volunteer for a job well done (2)
- the national president of NOAH talking in public about a good piece of work done by a VMD
- salaried staff affirming appreciation for the value of the work of the VMDs at an AMH management retreat
- an SMD "honoring my feelings" by revising the contents of a letter to field staff
- giving the VMD a travel and maintenance budget (3)
- being asked to do performance reviews for field staff
- compliments from staff on conferences the VMD has planned
- VMD enjoys same rights as SMD to communicate with field staff
- SMD holding the VMD accountable for results
- assistance to VMD from SMD to apply for a seat on the national governing board
- sitting with the staff at regional meetings
- wearing a special badge at the national conference designating the VMD as management staff
- SMD putting the VMD "up-front" at meetings
- SMD speaking publicly about the VMD as a leader (2)
- the SMD sending letters of appreciation for the good work of the VMD to the person who supervises him in his salaried job
- VMD receiving verbal thank you's from AMH staff and SMD (3)
- VMD's spouse receiving special treatment at conferences, meetings, or social gatherings
- the honor of being asked to be a VMD (3)
- invitations to annual meetings of local service delivery units

- opportunities to consult with field staff
- VMD being asked for advice by SMD
- VMD being given "handsome certificate"
- ceremony for the VMDs at the end of their 3-year term at the AMH site
- a letter to VMD from AMH/VP's volunteer counterpart saying you've done a good job
- SMD gives VMD important jobs
- support of VMDs work by AMH services staff
- people expressing pleasure over the VMD being present at the AMH site and showing up in the field at local units
- invitations to speak to groups within the organization
- SMD putting VMD in leadership roles
- VMD making joint decisions with the SMD
- VMD receiving letters of appreciation from staff and volunteers in the field
- being asked to play a role in one of NOAH's educational films
- VMD being asked to assist with interviewing job candidates for the SMD position

A Way to Support a VMD

- SMD communicates by phone frequently with VMD (5)
- SMDs open door policy extended to VMD
- a travel and maintenance budget adequate to do the job (7)
- special training and development opportunities for developing management skills (6)
- SMD working directly with VMD to learn skills as a presenter
- SMD verbally expressing confidence in VMD (2)
- SMD giving feedback on VMD's work
- SMDs "patting us (VMDs) on the back for the things we've done"
- SMD providing expressions of encouragement to VMD
- SMD helping VMD to understand NOAH protocol
- SMD sending communications from national to VMD
- SMD "serving as a buffer between VMD and field when tempers flare"
- SMD writing letter in support of VMD's right to function as a manager to field staff (2)
- SMD doing a work performance review on the VMD
- SMD providing orientation to the VMD at the beginning of the three year term
- secretarial staff provides services to VMD whenever needed (5)
- SMD demonstrates trust by delegating work to VMD and letting go (4)
- VMD included in management retreats (4)
- AMH/VP and directors of services provide resources, advice and positive strokes to VMDs

- AMH/VP volunteer counterpart makes VMDs feel they are vital to the organization through verbal expressions
- support from national headquarters on technical matters
- AMH staff celebrating regional successes with verbal and public praise (3)
- VMDs included in the planning and developing of regional and AMH goals (3)
- public praise of VMDs work by SMD
- SMD puts VMD's signature on correspondence to the field along with SMDs own signature
- compliments from field service staff on VMDs work on difficult problem solving efforts (2)
- an SMD who never fails to say thank you to the VMD for coming to work
- SMD expresses satisfaction with VMD's work
- SMD shares information with VMD relevant to doing the regional management duties
- SMD indicates in a written report that the VMD has done good work

Appendix F

Below is a listing of the forms of recognition and support that were mentioned in the SMD interviews. The number that a single form was mentioned is indicated in the number following the item instead of repeating all data bits.

A Way to Recognize an SMD

- a letter of commendation from a co-worker
- "lots of thank yous" from field staff (2)
- expressions of respect from people in the field
- positive strokes from people within the AMH service departments
- a personalized gift from a VMD
- a message of appreciation from a VMD
- the SMD paycheck
- SMD being asked to take on new responsibilities by AMH/VP
- salary raises for the SMD
- AMH/VP complimenting SMD's work publicly
- SMD generating his own satisfaction over accomplishments
- SMD receiving "bread and butter notes" from field staff
- invitations to attend annual meeting, dinners of celebrations of local service delivery units

A Way to Support an SMD

- SMD receiving positive strokes and encouragement from VMD (3)
- management training programs for SMD
- VMD calling attention to a new perspective on an issue
- SMDs come together to provide support for each other
- AMH/VP encourages initiative and risk taking in problem solving with the field
- AMH/VP not punitive when mistakes are made
- AMH/VP works with management teams to consider new strategies when annual regional goals fall short of accomplishment
- advance travel vouchers for travel expenses
- AMH/VP is supportive of SMD's in partnership roles (8)
- AMH/VP is supportive by providing a structure for determining direction for regional goals (4)
- SMD receives support from AMH specialized service personnel (5)
- VMD provides program support (4)

Appendix G

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO DO THE STUDY

Dear Ms. Asche:

I am pleased to inform you that permission has been granted for you to conduct a study of our national volunteer/paid staff management teams that are in charge of operations for our ten national regions. It is understood that the findings will appear in a doctoral dissertation, but that the identity of the organization and the participants in the study will be held in strict confidence. I further understand that arrangement for your on-site visits and interviews will be made by you, and you will be responsible for all costs involved in carrying out the study.

Sincerely,

Ms. Jane Ann Asche
Extension Specialist in Volunteerism
Center for Volunteer Development
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA 24061

Note: This letter has been removed from the original letterhead stationary to protect the identity of the organization.

APPENDIX H

LETTER REQUESTING VALIDATION OF CASE STUDIES

VIRGINIA COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

VIRGINIA TECH

VIRGINIA STATE

Center for Volunteer Development

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

June 9, 1987

Dear _____:

Thanks so much for agreeing to review the case studies and other portions of the document of which you would have special knowledge. I realize this is a considerable imposition on your time, but I am hoping that checking with you will help me identify those misstatements of fact and interpretations that should be corrected before publication.

It is my intent to present a faithful and readable account of the characteristics of the successful top management level salaried/volunteer partnerships which your organization has been a pioneer in developing. If I have failed to do so, I would appreciate your suggestions as to how it might be improved.

If possible, I would like to have your corrections and/or comments by June 19. I can be reached at home (703) 953-0274 or at the office (703) 961-7966 if you prefer to call.

Please accept my sincere thanks for your assistance in validating the case studies.

Sincerely,

Jane Ann Asche
Extension Specialist for Volunteer Development
Western Region

JAA:shs

Sponsored in part by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation

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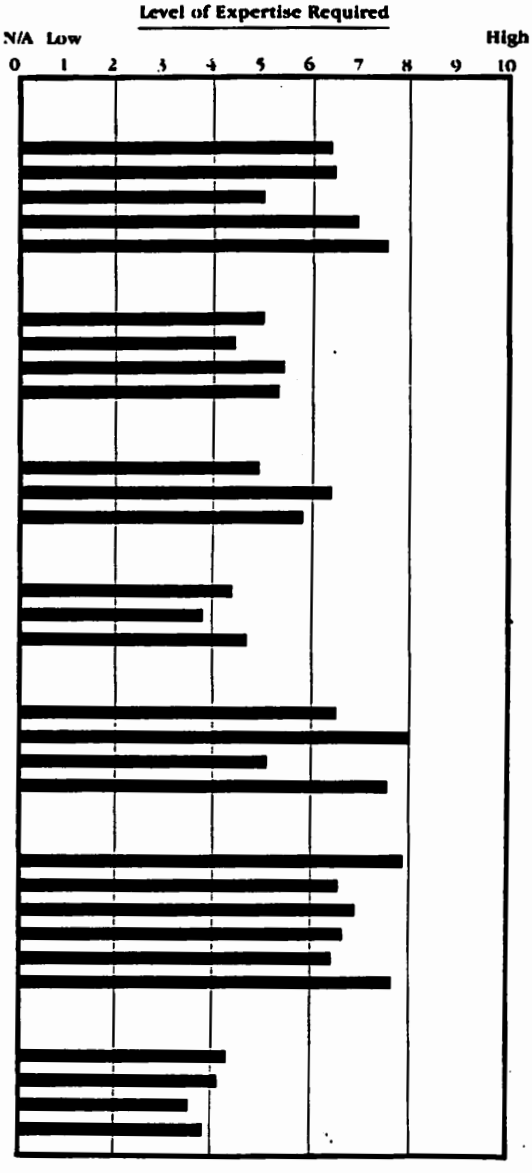
APPENDIX I

Position Competency Profile:

Volunteer Managing Director

Knowledge, Skill, or Ability (Competencies)	Average Importance Rating
Planning and Evaluation Skills	
1. Strategic Planning	7.4
2. Operations Planning	7.8
3. Project/Work Planning	6.1
4. Needs Assessment/Analysis	7.0
5. Program Evaluation	7.9
Product/Service Development and Delivery Skills	
6. Research and Development	5.3
7. Marketing/Sales	4.1
8. Distribution/Delivery	5.6
9. Customer Service	5.6
Public/Community Relations Skills	
10. Media Relations/Management	6.0
11. Community Relations/Information	8.4
12. External Organization Relations	6.5
Financial Skills	
13. Budgeting	5.1
14. Financial Management	5.2
15. Financial Development/Revenue Generation	6.0
Human Resources Management Skills	
16. Personnel Systems Management	7.5
17. Human Resources Development	8.8
18. Board Development/Support	5.5
19. Supervision	8.5
Leadership Competence	
20. Values Orientation	9.4
21. Systems Thinking	7.8
22. Visioning	7.9
23. Risk Taking	7.8
24. Adaptability/Flexibility	8.0
25. Decision Making	8.6
Technical Competence	
26. Health Promotion Activities	4.5
27. Biomedical Activities	4.9
28. Social Support Services	4.1
29. Emergency Services	4.8



Management Competency Definitions

Planning and Evaluation Skills

1. **Strategic Planning**—Formulates long-range goals for human resources, products and services, communications, and finances based on analysis of a variety of internal and external environmental factors impacting the organization.

2. **Operations Planning**—Develops medium-range objectives and strategies to support strategic goals. Monitors or sets a course of action to accomplish annual business plans and strategic goals and to deal with contingencies.

3. **Project/Work Planning**—Structures the unit, distributes project or work assignments, establishes administrative controls, and allocates the necessary human, material, financial, and space resources according to priorities to accomplish short-range action plans that support annual plans.

4. **Needs Assessment/Analysis**—Draws conclusions based on information gathered formally and informally to determine unit(s) financial requirements, community/market needs for existing and new NOAH products and services, and the number and types of volunteer and paid staff needed and to establish priorities.

5. **Program Evaluation**—Determines the degree to which unit goals, objectives, and action plans are accomplished and assesses the overall effectiveness and efficiency of unit operations and products. Sees that necessary improvements in productivity, quality, and effectiveness are made.

Product/Service Development and Delivery Skills

6. **Research and Development**—Monitors the research, development, and production of new products or services, or the adaptation or revision of existing ones in response to community needs and market demands. Sees that products and services meet required standards and quality controls.

7. **Marketing/Sales**—Facilitates the use of effective marketing and sales strategies (product profiling, pricing, promotional, delivery) to achieve annual plans and to increase market share.

8. **Distribution/Delivery**—Monitors the distribution and delivery of unit(s) products and services to assure effective, efficient, and uniform customer service.

9. **Customer Service**—Demonstrates commitment to the customer in modeling and promoting a customer service orientation throughout the unit. Sees that mechanisms to identify problem areas, to take corrective action in a timely manner, and to ensure customer satisfaction with NOAH products and services are in place and working effectively.

Public/Community Relations

10. **Media Relations/Management**—Provides accurate, favorable, and timely media coverage for NOAH activities. Keeps volunteer and paid staff informed about key organization issues and positions and unit procedures and protocols for media coordination.

11. **Community Relations/Information**—Sees that the organization's purpose, mission, values, products and services, and human and financial needs are effectively communicated to the public, customers, community leaders, and contributors to enhance their understanding of the organization and to secure their support.

12. **External Organization Relations**—Represents the unit and the organization in interactions with outside individuals, groups, and organizations and forms collaborative relationships to enhance the overall effectiveness and efficiency of the unit and the organization.

Financial Skills

13. **Budgeting**—Develops, presents, and executes the budget to support local and corporate priorities. Anticipates and responds appropriately to contingency situations.

14. **Financial Management**—Applies sound financial principles to the effective management of debt, capital, and inventory to maximize unit financial resources in compliance with generally accepted accounting procedures and appropriate NOAH systems and controls. Manages in a way that minimizes risks to the unit and the organization.

15. **Financial Development/Revenue Generation**—Utilizes volunteer and paid staff resources, fund raising, grantsmanship, and sound business techniques to increase unit financial base.

Human Resources Management Skills

16. **Personnel Systems Management**—Administers or establishes systems and programs (performance management, succession planning, salary and benefits, awards and recognition, and recruitment, selection, and placement) for the cost-effective management of volunteer and paid human resources.

17. **Human Resources Development**—Identifies staff (volunteer and paid) with career potential or performance problems and assists them in the development of realistic career or performance improvement plans. Identifies and grooms replacements for key positions in the unit and the organization.

18. **Board Development/Support**—Effectively recruits, orients, involves, and develops community leaders and key

professionals serving on unit or organization boards and policy-making committees. Sees that they are committed to the organization and are motivated and prepared to assume leadership roles beyond the unit and the organization.

19. **Supervision**—Monitors work accomplishment and uses appropriate situational leadership style and effective communication skills to delegate, guide, and support volunteer and paid staff. Demonstrates commitment to people in showing sensitivity to the needs, concerns, and capabilities of individuals, giving timely developmental feedback, and providing appropriate awards and recognition.

Leadership Competencies

20. **Values Orientation**—Demonstrates commitment to the organization in supporting the mission and in operating by the basic values of the organization. Communicates organization mission, priorities, and core values to volunteer and paid staff and sees that these are incorporated in unit operations and activities. Keeps up to date with key organization policies, procedures, standards, issues, and decisions and maintains a balanced sense of organization priorities.

21. **Systems Thinking**—Uses an integrated approach to management that results in collaboration within the unit, among NOAH units, and within the community. Considers the impact of actions on each facet of the unit, the organization, and the community and sees that persons (volunteer and paid) key to successful planning, implementation, and evaluation are involved.

22. **Visioning**—Uses creative ability to visualize the desired future state of the unit and the organization and to help set direction for a specified time period. Communicates this vision to facilitate a common direction and alignment of individual and organizational efforts.

23. **Risk Taking**—Takes appropriate risks and accepts responsibility for own actions. Shows creativity in organizing and managing difficult, complicated, and risky innovations and in directing and managing change within the organization.

24. **Adaptability/Flexibility**—Demonstrates tolerance for stress, ambiguity, and change in ability to handle setbacks, to deal with new or unexpected situations, and to perform under less than optimum conditions. Is open to new ideas and willing to try new approaches and methods. Appropriately modifies own behavior and approaches to deal effectively with different situations or persons.

25. **Decision Making**—Employs analytical and integrative ability, conceptual skills, intelligence, and logical and sound judgement in using organization resources, determining courses of action, and arriving at solutions to problems. Is decisive and able to act independently when warranted.

Technical Competence

26. **Health Promotion**—Applies discipline-specific knowledge of health and safety education, health screening and counseling, and health and first aid products to the effective management of the unit(s).

27. **Biomedical Activities**—Applies discipline-specific knowledge of blood banking, special laboratory services, tissue and organ services, and donor recruitment to the effective management of the unit(s).

28. **Social Support Services**—Applies discipline-specific knowledge of non-emergency assistance in the areas of general assistance (food, clothing, and shelter), transportation services, in-home assistance, counseling and support groups, social knowledge and skills, and recreation programs to effective management of the unit(s).

29. **Emergency Services**—Applies discipline-specific knowledge of emergency assistance in the areas of mass care, general assistance, communications, and counseling and referral to effective management of the unit(s).

VITA

Jane Ann Asche

Address: 2309 Capistrano Street, Blacksburg, VA 24060

Date of Birth: June 24, 1939

Education:

Virginia Polytechnic Institue and State University, Ed.D., Adult and Continuing Education, 1987

Northern Arizona State University, M.A., Elementary Education, 1971

Ball State University, B.A., Chemistry and Mathematics, 1961

Professional Experience:

Extension Specialist, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA, 1983-present

Administrative Intern, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA, 1980-1982

Teacher, Clarke County Public Schools, Athens, GA, 1973-1976

Teacher, Lancaster Elementary Public Schools, Lancaster, CA, 1961-1963

Jane Ann Asche

Jane Ann Asche