Factors Influencing the Recruiting and Retaining of Volunteers in Community Organizations.

The factors influencing recruitment and retention of volunteers in community organizations were identified through a literature review. The following were among the key findings: (1) helping others is the main reason people volunteer; (2) personal invitation is the most effective means of recruiting volunteers; (3) individuals who are satisfied with their personal life are the most satisfied volunteers; (4) volunteers' satisfaction lies in a sense of self-knowledge and finding a good fit between personal values, motives, and skills for the volunteer position; (5) minority communities are an untapped population to be recruited for volunteer service; (6) Black American and Hispanic American men have been the most difficult groups to recruit; (6) interviews are an important factor in recruiting, and they prove beneficial to individuals seeking to volunteer and organizations; (7) recruiting through the use of advertising requires additional resources and time and is not as effective as personal invitations are; (8) volunteers continue to serve when they have interaction with others in the organizations and when they believe that they and their work are recognized; and (9) organizations utilizing volunteers must be equipped to recruit and retain volunteers that will benefit the organization's mission, objectives, and population served. (Contains 22 references.) (MN)
Factors Influencing the Recruiting and Retaining of Volunteers in Community Organizations

By: Kyle R. Davis
Introduction:

Many years ago it was the responsibility of the church to care for the poor in communities. Over the years as the government increased its care for the poor through public assistance, the church slowly phased out of the care-giving role they had once led. Although the government was making financial provision for families, the deeply rooted emotional, physical, mental and spiritual needs were not being dealt with.

The government has acknowledged its control of public assistance as an ineffective system. In 1996, the U.S. Congress and the President through the Welfare Reform Act of 1996 overhauled the public assistance system. This gave control back to local communities where compassionate solutions, including those offered by the church could be explored and implemented. (Beach 2000, p. 13)

Oklahoma Governor Frank Keating appointed Brad Yarbrough to serve as the state’s faith-based liaison. Mr. Yarbrough is involved in informing the faith community of Oklahoma the opportunities they now have to serve the poor with access to funds provided through the government for welfare reform. The funds will allow churches to develop necessary ministry for the state’s poor. In an interview with Christopher Beach, Mr. Yarbrough stated “Through welfare reform, every day more and more of the nation’s poor will be turning to their local faith community for assistance” (p. 13). Mr. Yarbrough went on to say “Case after case shows that faith-based ministries are more successful because they deal with more than just the external issues of existence and environment; they get to the root causes of poverty and homelessness. The faith community alone specializes in the issues of the heart” (p. 13).

Missouri Senator John Ashcroft included a provision in the 1996 Welfare Reform Act called Charitable Choice. Charitable choice not only allowed the involvement of faith-based organizations to provide services but also protects their rights as well as the beneficiaries they serve. (Beach p. 13)

The opportunity and responsibility that Charitable Choice has made available for Oklahoma churches to provide compassionate care to the physical, emotional, financial, and spiritual needs of the state’s families is tremendous. Oklahoma churches will need countless volunteers to step into the opportunity that now exists to reach out to their own neighbors in need. How will the churches recruit and retain the vast amount of volunteers that will be needed for the opportunity that is now before them? This paper will look at the factors that had influence on the recruiting and retaining of volunteers in community organizations, with the intent that it will help Oklahoma churches as they work with volunteers in new ministry opportunities.
Title
Factors Influencing the Recruiting and Retaining of Volunteers in Community Organizations.

Problem Statement
Recruiting and retaining volunteers for community ministry and/or urban outreach, will continue to be a need for Oklahoma churches.

Purpose
The purpose of this study is to review current research to identify factors influencing volunteers in community organizations: recruiting and retention.

Objectives
1. To review literature regarding recruiting and retaining of volunteers in community organizations.
2. To review and critique literature looking at content and structure of research design.
3. To identify factors influencing recruiting and retaining of volunteers in community organizations.

Definitions:

Volunteer:
One who enters into, offers himself/herself for any service of his/her own free will.

Motivation:
That within the individual, rather than without, which incites him/her to action; any idea, need, emotion or organic state that prompts to an action.

Satisfy:
In general to fill up the measure of a want (of a person or a thing); hence to gratify fully the desire of; to make content.
Recruit:
To strengthen or supply with new men or troops; to fill up by enlistment; also, to muster; raise.

Retain:
To keep in a fixed place or condition.

Review of Literature

Overview of Volunteerism:

What does the word volunteer bring to mind? Candy striper’s and pink ladies in hospitals, a little league coach, Scout leader, or blood donor? American’s have probably heard the word volunteer from the time they were in first or second grade. The teacher would say something like, “do I have anyone to volunteer, or I need some help, would anyone like to volunteer?” Yes Americans have grown up with the word and the action of volunteering being a part of life. So who is a volunteer, and what is volunteerism?

Community Ventures provided an excellent definition of the word volunteer.
“Volunteers are broadly defined as individuals who receive no monetary reward for helping others” (Butler, DePhelps, and Gray, 1995, p. 5).

The literature indicates volunteers have made an impact on America, either as a volunteer or being served by a volunteer.

“Try to imagine a city without civic or community leaders. Think of the social climate of a community that doesn’t have Scout programs, help for the needy, services for seniors, child care centers, counseling and rehabilitation programs for those who are in need. Voluntarism and community leadership are services, which are needed desperately, especially with today’s inflation making everything so expensive and with the fine limits accorded to human, environmental and financial resources” (Murk, and Stephan, 1990 p.1).

“Volunteers are a community-based organization’s greatest asset, especially in times of decreasing public and private financial resources. Local citizens are effective in identifying community needs and employing ways to solve problems creatively. Volunteers bring a fresh perspective to an organization’s work and infuse new enthusiasm and energy” (Butler, DePhelps, and Gray, 1995 p. 5).
Grube and Piliavin (2000) cited the Independent Sector (1994) “in 1993 the formal volunteer work for organizations done by 89.2 million Americans was worth an estimated $182.3 billion, using the average hourly wage for nonagricultural workers as the rate of pay” (p.1108).

Murk and Stephan (1990) cited former Governor Otis R. Bowen, (1982) “voluntarism represents a uniquely American tradition of citizen participation in community affairs. Indeed, our nation’s history is replete with examples of individual’s vigor and idealism mobilized within the structure of volunteer organizations and associations for the purpose of improving quality of life within the American society” (p.1).

Characteristics of volunteers:

What does a typical volunteer look like? Are volunteers all mom and dads? How old is the person who regularly volunteers? What are the demographic characteristics found throughout the review of literature.

Safrit and King (1994) conducted research on five Ohio, (USA) cities and surrounding urban communities using random telephone surveys of 2742 urban households with a 78 % response rate, and a 51 % completion rate finding the following characteristics. “The typical adult volunteer respondent was a white married female between 30 and 40 years of age with a high school diploma or GED (Grade Equivalency Diploma). She was employed full time with a total household income between $25,000 and $50,000, who had resided at her current residence more than three years” (p. 7).

Another researcher depicts the demographic characteristics of 306 4-H volunteers from northeastern Oklahoma. The instrument was a mailed questionnaire which had a 45 % completion rate. The findings indicated the dominant characteristics of volunteers were white, female, 41 years old, with a high school or GED. Regarding occupation, the highest percentage was teacher/education; the second highest percentage was homemaker. (Burris p. 27)

Research conducted by Kravitz, (1987) in three organizations which utilized volunteers, either to supplement services or provide all the services was in the state of Florida, Dade County. The population was a stratified sampling of 700 persons in the population of volunteers from three organizations, the desired sample was 50% of the 700 volunteers, or 350 volunteers. The sample size of 350 was selected with a cutoff level (alpha level) for accepting the null hypothesis on tests of statistical significance set at .05 or less, with a corresponding confidence level of .95 or greater. A questionnaire was specifically designed for this study, which incorporated portions of existing questionnaires with additional research questions, which evolved through the researchers review of literature. (p.69-77)
Kravitz (1987) research found the demographic characteristics of volunteers was predominately white, female, the majority over 60 years of age, and retired. These volunteers had attended school beyond the secondary level, with a combined household income of over $25,000. (p. 130)

Research on volunteers within community arts organizations conducted by King and Fluke, (1990) utilized a questionnaire with the following categories: gender, age, education, income, as well as questions regarding number of hours and type of participation. Stating that the research was neither “scholarly nor scientific” the goal was “to simply learn a little more about America’s volunteers for the arts” (p. 51).

What the research found about America’s volunteers for the arts indicated women donated more time per month than men; the majority of hours volunteered was 10-20 per month. The representative of the largest group of volunteers was between the ages of 31-35, ages 65 and older represented the smallest group. The education level of volunteers in the arts was quite high with almost 77% of Executive level board members holding a college degree. Over 36% of Board members have college degrees, with at least 82% of chairpersons holding college degrees. (p. 54-55)

**Reasons why people volunteer:**

But why do people volunteer? Why should we be interested in the reasons people volunteer?

“Understanding why people volunteer is important in establishing a reasonable expectation for the level and type of volunteer participation and in creating mutually satisfying volunteer situations” (Butler, DePhelps and Gray p. 4).

In the *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* a review of research published over a twelve-year period, Brudney (1990) cited (Van Til 1988) “concern for others, while not always purely altruistic, remains an important motivating force for much voluntary action” (Brudney p. 67).

In a 1988 Gallup poll cited by Brudney, (1990) helping others was the most frequently cited reason by 56% of volunteers. Religious reasons for volunteering were stated by 22%, enjoyment of the work was ranked by 35% of the population. Almost 30% volunteered because of an interest in the activity; and 9% volunteered because of a desire to learn and gain experience. The percentages do not total 100% because individuals can have more than one reason for volunteering. (Brudney 1990 p 93-94)

Other than surveys Brudney (1990) also cited studies by Van Til (1988), Pearce (1987), Moore(1985), and Sills (1957). The indication of salient reasons for volunteering are reflected by the opportunity to socialize, be recognized by peers and an organization, and contributing to a larger purpose by supporting the goals of an organization. (Brudney 1990 p. 94)
According to King and Fluke’s (1990) research the number one reason people volunteer in the arts is their belief in the arts. “For women, the ability to meet people is followed by their desire to help others” (p. 52).

For men “their need to perform a patriotic and civic duty within their community” is the number one reason. When volunteers in the arts were questioned regarding their other volunteer interests “both men and women stated that civic activities were next in priority” (p. 53).

Statistics from Safrit and King’s (1994) research identified why volunteers contributed their time, energy and talents. “Reasons (and corresponding percentages) include: helping others (99%); makes you feel good (98%); enjoy activity (97%); belief in a cause (94%); being asked (94%); friend/family involved (83%); gaining experience (82%); friend or family benefited (82%); personally benefited (75%); time available (73%); meet others (68%); knew someone doing similar work (68%); religious beliefs (66%); required by a group (60%); benefits your career (46%); media advertisement (28%); status (22%); and required by employer (21%)” (p. 8).

Motivation:

What motivates people to volunteer? According to Butler, DePhleps and Gray (1995) “motivations that prompt volunteers to devote their time and energy to a cause or organization are as varied as the spectrum of individuals involved” (p. 4).

Farrar (1985) cited Wlodowski in defining motive as “any condition within a person that affects his readiness to initiate or continue or sequence activities” (p. 28-29). Leaders in any organization are concerned about motivation of staff, whether paid or volunteer. Leaders want to know how to get people to do what they can do, and why do efforts to motivate people work one time and not another.

The study of human motivation has been widely written about, especially in the area of volunteer participation. Butler, DePhelps, and Gray (1995) provided a clear outline of motives of volunteers.

Altruism: is a belief in a specific cause and something done for the good of others

Self-Interest: Perceived benefits might include social visibility, professional recognition or association with a prestigious organization. Individuals may want to increase their knowledge and skills in a particular subject.

Social Outlet: The desire to meet people with similar interests or to fill free time with worthwhile activities may motivate youths, the elderly, homemakers and new comers in the community.
Training and job experience: students ...find volunteer positions useful in building a record of experience while enrolled in school. Women not employed outside the home...test the waters before entering or re-entering the job market...

Obligation: Someone who has benefited from the work of an organization in the past may feel obliged to respond to a call for volunteers. (p. 4).

Ilsley (1990) cited Keller's (1983) definition "Motivation, by definition refers to the magnitude and direction of behavior. In other words, it refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect. As such, motivation is influenced by a myriad of internal and external characteristics. People respond to their environment on the basis of inner reflexes, impulses, perceptions, and goals, and on the basis of perceived and actual opportunities and reinforcements in the external environment" (p. 16).

In looking at the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motives related to volunteer participation Ilsley (1990) cited Kidd. (1977) "Intrinsic motives are those that prompt a person to act 'for the sake of the activity', such as pleasure gained from the act of volunteering, the chance to utilize special skills, the opportunity to work with a team of peers, or the fulfillment of a need for something to do. Extrinsic motives refer to an end product or payoff resulting from "the value associated with the activity" such as finding employment or gaining recognition as a result of the experience" (p. 17-18).

Ilsley's (1990) Enhancing the Volunteer Experience was a research project over a four-year period based on qualitative grounded theory. The project was conducted by graduate students within three states, which included seven cities and towns, with a representation from urban, suburban and rural areas. (p. 22) Information was obtained through over 300 interviews of 180 individuals in 34 organizations. The individuals were a sample of paid staff, managers as well as volunteers. (p. xiii)

Ilsley (1990) defined inexperienced volunteers, as "those who have been in service for less than six months" (p. 22) when asked why they volunteered, could explain with out any hesitation In contrast to experienced volunteers who had difficulty explaining why they continued volunteer work. In questioning this finding Ilsley (1990) indicated "motivation changes over time" (p. 31) Reasons for volunteering become more fluid as volunteers become more involved. Gaining understanding of norms, values and traits of an organization, volunteers expectations are modified and do change. (p. 31)

Kovacs and Beverly (1999) cited Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) "volunteers act not from a single motive or category of motives but from a combination of motives that can be described overall as a rewarding experience" (p. 27).

Farrar described motivation best as a cyclical process that began with a need, which resulted in the establishing of a goal and an action to achieve the goal, and ended with a satisfaction. (p. 38)
The study of human behavior regarding motivation for volunteer participation most widely recognized was Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of needs. Maslow’s hierarchy was on a priority triangle with the most focus on the lower level ascending to the most abstract at the highest level.

The literature by King and Fluke (1990) cited Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy regarding reasons why people volunteer.

- **Physiological needs:** Needs of the body for food, water, shelter, clothing, air, sleep, sex, activity, protection: desire toward self-preservation; satisfaction of these needs are necessary for survival.

- **Security needs:** Need for a predicted and organized environment; physical security is one’s desire to be safe from personal harm; economic security is one’s desire to reach a reasonable economic level for security about income.

- **Social, love needs:** Needs one has to feel she belongs, she is an accepted member of a group and an integral and important part of the organization to which she belongs, the desire to give and receive affection, and status.

- **Psychological needs:** Needs that represent one’s ego in operation and include such things as status, recognition, prestige, esteem and self-respect.

- **Self-Actualization:** Needs one has for feeling they are making progress towards reaching their full potential, whatever that may be; that they are doing what they are best fitted for in terms of skill and ability; desire to become all that one is capable of becoming.

- **Knowing and understanding:** Needs which fills one’s curiosity, learning

- **Aesthetic needs:** needs that pertain to beauty, order and balance. (p. 59)

Regarding faith, theology and religion as a motive for volunteerism, Farrar’s (1985) research of various Protestant denominations indicated “faith or theology was the strongest motivation for volunteers serving in the church, scoring at 8.0 on a possible range of 0 to 10” (p. 64).

Research by Hoge, Zech, McNamara, and Donahue (1998) indicated “Protestant denominations (Lutheran and Presbyterians) volunteer less than Baptists to help their churches but more to help nonchurch organizations” (p. 472). Their research further indicated, “Frequency of church attendance was strongly associated with level of volunteering, consistent with all other research. Church size was associated with volunteering only for Catholics and Lutherans; in denominations volunteering was highest in medium-sized churches” (p. 474).
The research conducted by Wilson and Jaonski, (1995) in a three-wave Youth-Parent Socialization Panel Study, in 1965, 1973 and 1982 faith based research. Wilson and Jaonski (1995) found “Among young adult conservative Protestants, frequency of church attendance is related to volunteering, but the relations was curvilinear. Those who attended church very frequently were as unlikely to volunteer as those who never attended. By 1982, this relation had become linear, such that the most infrequent church attendees were the most likely to volunteer, but the differences (at least in this sample) are not significant” (p. 146). “The large group of moderate Protestants were unaffected by frequency of church attendance in either wave of the study. Of the young adult Catholics who attended church weekly .59 were more likely than infrequent attendees .23 to volunteer, and the difference had become more marked by the time they reached middle age” (p. 146).

Wilson and Janoski’s (1995) research indicated church attendance definitely impacted the volunteer participation variable. “ The mean volunteer rate for conservative Protestants who never attended church was .38; for the conservative Protestants who attended church weekly the mean volunteer rate was .71. (This difference is significant at the .035 level.) The conclusion is obvious: Conservative Protestants do volunteer work more if they are integrated into the church...” (p. 150).

Satisfaction of Volunteers:

Webster’s dictionary (1956) defined satisfy as, “In general, to fill up the measure of a want of (a person or a thing); hence, to gratify fully the desire of; to make content” (p. 751). Satisfaction for the volunteer, or assuring the contentment of the volunteer could be crucial as a factor for retaining and recruiting.

“The issue of volunteer satisfaction is important, for it could determine if a volunteer will continue to serve. Furthermore, if a volunteer shares this experience with others, it could have a motivational effect on a potential volunteer” (Farrar p. 57).

Farrar’s (1985) purpose for research was to determine what factors motivated volunteers in church related activities, and gave them satisfaction in their area of service, why some volunteers become dissatisfied and ceased to volunteer, and why some did not volunteer. (p. 7-8)

Factors that indicated satisfaction of volunteer experience by Schindler-Rainman and Lipitt (1971) as cited by Farrar (1985) were volunteer expectations, appreciation for service rendered, relationship with church staff, attitudes of families, morale and working conditions, the impact of their involvement, and personal sense of fulfillment. (Farrar 1985 p. 56-57)
There was remarkable unanimity among various Protestant congregations concerning the relative satisfaction they received from serving as volunteers. “The greatest satisfaction was expressed by the members of the Church of Christ and the 20-34 age group (40.5), and the least satisfaction was expressed by the age group 35 and over (38.4). The difference is a slight (2.1) between them” (Farrar p. 72). The highest average score of 2.7 regarded the area of greatest satisfaction was a response to “Do you feel that your involvement as a volunteer has helped you become a better person” (Farrar p. 77)? The area of least satisfaction (2.3) related to recognition, recognition by church staff and those they served. (Farrar 1985 p. 77)

One hypothesis of research by Kravitz (1987) was based on the assumption that volunteer satisfaction is believed to have relevance for the parallel issue of volunteer job satisfaction in the workplace. (p 43-44) The research examined how individuals who worked in selected organizations perceived their job and the satisfaction experience relating to the job.

Kravitz (1987) defined satisfaction by citing Campbell, Converse and Rogers (1976), “Level of satisfaction is the perceived discrepancy between aspiration and achievement, ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation” (p. 41).

Kravitz (1987) also cited Naylor (1973) in defining satisfaction. “Job satisfaction is dependent primarily on the manner in which a person perceives and evaluates particular aspects of his or her own job satisfaction, one’s level of expectation, aspiration, reference group levels and need levels. The nature and objectives of the work itself, the way the person feels about doing the work, and job attributes influence job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction” (p. 41).

Kravitz (1987) modified K. P. Cross’s (1981) chain-of-response model to address participation as a volunteer rather than participation in adult learning activities. “Point A on the model is self-evaluation, which means a sense of well-being resulting from knowledge of one’s personal resources. Kravitz cited a study by Hunter and Linn (1980) of adults over age 65 that found volunteers to have a significantly higher degree of life satisfaction. Another study Kravitz (1987) cited was by Tobin and Neugarten (1961) regarding 187 cases over age 50 which used the Life Satisfaction Ratings as the measure of well-being. The results of the study indicated that “social interaction is positively associated with life satisfaction and that engagement is more closely related to psychological well-being than disengagement” (p. 44 & 47).

The modification of point B on Cross’s model from attitudes regarding education to attitudes regarding volunteering, compared in Kravitz’s (1987) research to the indication of job satisfaction of workers who wanted freedom and decision making capabilities regarding job assignments. Workers job satisfaction was linked to continued learning of new skills, and those skills being fully used on the job.
Kravitz (1987) cited Naylor (1973) regarding worker life satisfaction and participation related to the volunteer. The volunteer who enjoys the work and does well is likely to develop or reinforce a positive self-evaluation, which in turn contributes to doing well as a volunteer. (p. 49 & 51)

In modifying Cross’s model at point C, Kravitz (1987) indicated the importance of goals and the expectation that goals will be met. In this way volunteers who participate have their own goals, as well as the goals of the organization and expect that those goals, personal or organizational will be met. Point D is reflected by life transitions on Cross’s model. To coincide with this point, Kravitz (1987) cited Knox’s (1977) stages of life transitions of marriage, birth of children, new job, divorce, death and retirement. Volunteer participation will begin and end for people reflected by life transitions. (p. 52-53)

Life Transitions moved those who worked with volunteers on to point E, the “creation of opportunities and the removal of barriers” (p. 54). To view opportunities and barriers Kravitz (1987) cited studies by Herzberg (1966), Herzberg & Mauser, Peterson & Capwell (1957) and Herzberg, Mauser & Snyderman (1959). Variables included recognition for achievement, professional task responsibility, professional advancement, and interesting work. This would provide personal involvement in the position or task, psychological growth, and fulfillment of self-actualizing needs. (p. 56-57)

Point F on Cross’s model is information. In regards to this point, if accurate up-to-date information is not received by volunteers, it will not matter how motivated they are or even how great the opportunities are. (p. 57)

The hypotheses stated by Kravitz (1987) was that the following independent variables would have an effect on volunteer job satisfaction. 1) Demographic Characteristics, 2) volunteer background experiences, 3) situational life satisfaction, 4) perception of personal life satisfaction. The findings did indicate individuals who were very satisfied in their personal life were satisfied in their volunteer experience. (p. 138) Regarding the hypothesis on demographic characteristics and prior volunteer experience, the findings indicated there was no influence on satisfaction in volunteering. (p. 110) According to Kravitz (1987) the main factors that influenced satisfaction in the respondents volunteer situation was being able to help others and having a sense of accomplishment with a mean of 4.4. The factor that was significant in the respondent’s previous volunteer experience was having a sense of accomplishment with a 4.5 mean. (p. 106 and 108)

Stevens’ (1988) research was related to “what contributes to differentials in rates of retention for older volunteers” (p. 1). The issues looked at were role theory, and goodness-of-fit related to retention. Role theory is defined as the life positions and accompanying qualities, which relate to an individuals sense of identity and well-being. (p. 31)
Stevens' (1988) research was conducted on current and former volunteers in the New York City Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP). The instrument utilized was a questionnaire, which was group-administered to current volunteers at the job location and mailed to the residence of former volunteers. (Stevens p. 46) The sample population of 248 was selected by identifying who became a volunteer during a three-month period in 1985.

The research indicated those volunteers with at least 5 to 9 years of in community service had the highest level of satisfaction at 48%. “The relationship between pattern of community service and volunteer role satisfaction is significant at a level of p<.05” (p. 105-106).

For older adult volunteers Stevens's (1988) research indicated that travel to and from the volunteer assignment was a significant factor related to volunteer satisfaction. The findings regarding transportation indicated that of volunteers who did not receive transportation assistance or reimbursement 24% had lower satisfaction compared to 10% who did receive transport. Of these volunteers, 29% showed the highest level of volunteer satisfaction, compared to 59% of those who received transportation. (p.109)

Recognition was a factor Stevens (1988) found affected volunteer satisfaction, received both from people at the job and from organizational management. Stevens (1988) found that volunteers who had the lowest recognition expressed the lowest satisfaction 50% of the time and highest satisfaction 23% of the time. Volunteers who indicated the highest recognition expressed lowest satisfaction 12% of the time and highest satisfaction 60% of the time. (p. 110)

Stevens (1988) developed the following prototype of a volunteer who was the least satisfied with volunteer work. The individual would have a lower level of life satisfaction, less than for four years of community service, more proximity to volunteer assignment, no transportation assistance, and less recognition for volunteers work. (p. 117)

**Recruiting:**

It is obvious in every community adults continue to be interested in volunteer service. Safrit and King (1994) found the major concerns for adult volunteers surveyed were time, level and type of commitment. They recommended that adult educators needed to examine the “costs” of the volunteers they work with, costs; whether actual expenses or time away from their job and family. (p. 16)

Safrit and King’s (1994) viewpoint was that adult volunteers preferred a more informal basis in direct service to others, rather than service through an organized agency or group-oriented opportunity.
Suggesting not relying on traditional extrinsic methods of recruitment (i.e. mass media and campaigns), rather to promote opportunities to directly help others, such as mentoring programs. This type of recruitment would allow for informal volunteerism, considering personal time commitments. It would also meet the interests, needs and motivations of the volunteers surveyed in urban communities. (p.16)

Butler, DePhelps and Gray (1995) brought to mind one of the major reasons people volunteered, “they were asked.” When recruiting think of friends of volunteers and members of the organization. Individuals who themselves have benefited from the organization often become volunteers, and excellent recruiters. “The best recruiter is an enthusiastic, satisfied volunteer already involved with your organization. His or her enthusiasm is infectious and springs from first-hand experience” (p.14).

In reiterating this idea Clifton and Dahms (1993) stated “It should not be forgotten that people commit to people so board members and current volunteers are the most successful recruiters” (p. 77).

The procedure of recruiting volunteers would be carried out by different organizations in various ways. Some organizations would utilize highly selective recruiting procedures; others would approach recruiting in a more casual manner.

Ilsely (1990) stated, “No single degree of structure or approach to volunteer management procedures will work for all organizations” (p. 91). There is no one-size fits all as far as recruiting techniques, but researchers provided suggestions for organizations to use.

Ilsely (1990) explained two types of recruiting. The first was Impersonal Techniques: Brochures and Announcements. Brochures and announcements could mislead potential volunteers regarding the volunteer experience. Ilsely (1990) referred to one volunteer as an example who felt misled by an announcement in a church bulletin asking for volunteers whose ideas would be welcomed and discussed openly. The volunteer found the agenda was already set, and opinions were not welcome only labor.

For successful recruiting encouraged the dissemination of accurate and complete information regarding the organizations mission and type of experience offered. “Honesty breeds loyalty” (Ilsely p. 92).

Ilsely’s (1990) second recruiting suggestion was, Personal Techniques: One-to-One Recruiting. One volunteer coordinator interviewed said he obtained names from other volunteers or a friend then calls them on the phone. “I’ll call and talk their ear off if I have to. It works for me…” (p. 93). Another volunteer coordinator stated “we used to place ads in the newspaper under ‘jobs available.’ Plenty of people came around, including people who needed work, and lots of them stayed. But after awhile we realized this sends out the wrong message. We’re not offering people jobs, we’re offering them a chance to help. Now we simply announce when the next orientation session will be” (p. 94).
Although there would be an emphasis on emotional appeal, the one-to-one recruiting would need to be accurate in the portraying an organization’s mission, just as printed literature would be. “The purpose of both impersonal and personal recruiting is not merely to attract volunteers but to attract volunteers who will stay with the organization” (Ilsely p. 94).

Instead of recruiting through announcements, oral or written such as in a church, Farrar (1985) cited Schaller (1975) “selective invitations to particular individuals seemed far more successful” (p. 21). Farrar (1985) citing Naylor (1973) “the one to one individualized approach is the most effective recruitment device” (p. 21).

The right fit for volunteer and organization is crucial. Interviewing for paid positions for a workforce is considered key for potential employers and employees. Do interviews play a key role in recruiting volunteers?

Clifton and Dahms (1993) recommended that if an organization has large expectations for its volunteers and wants to make sure a particular person will be right for a job and gain satisfaction from it then there should be an interview process. The interview is to determine if the volunteer is the right fit for the position, is available, and motivated for the commitment. Interviewing would provide the staff member the opportunity to determine training, support and recognition for the volunteer. (p. 78)

The purpose of the interview would be an exchange of information. The organization would learn about the volunteer’s attitudes, beliefs and motives. At the same time the volunteer obtains information about the organization’s purpose, programs and rules. When viewed as a mutual assessment, the interview would benefit both the organization and the volunteer. (Ilsely p. 94-95)

Regarding the issue of the right person for the right job Farrar (1985) cited Drucker (1966) “It is not true that every job has to have a person qualified for all facets of its performance, or no one would be appointed. Effective executives know that they have to start with what a person can do rather than with what a job requires” (p. 22-23).

Farrar (1985) cited Naylor (1967) “one may step into shoes to little and never be comfortable, but one may step into shoes to big and grow to fill them” (p. 23). Farrar suggested not placing volunteers in jobs too simple or too large, the placement needed to allow room for a volunteer to grow, thus contributing to a satisfied volunteer. (p. 23)

Clifton and Dahms (1993) suggested the need for job descriptions in recruiting. “Volunteer job descriptions must outline the title of job, the responsibilities entailed, qualifications required, training and supervision provided, time requirements and most importantly, the benefits which will result for the volunteer” (p. 76).
According to Clifton and Dahms (1993) the following were important considerations for recruitment. (1) To not expect volunteers to do things no one else wanted to do, then wonder why the organization could not attract volunteers. (2) Determine the amount of time commitment for board and staff. (3) Have available the specific resources needed to do the job (e.g. for mailing; envelopes, stamps etc.) (p. 77).

When recruiting resolve any questions and describe clearly the aspects of the commitment. A volunteer must be informed about the job to be done, the time to be committed, skills needed, location of service, mileage reimbursement or provision of transportation. (Butler, DePhelps and Gray, pp. 12 & 15)

Other issues and considerations regarding recruiting volunteers when taken into account will benefit both the volunteer and the organization. Brudney (1990) cited Langton (1988a); and Borkman (1986) who suggested organizations “should consider flexible schedules for volunteering outside the traditional work week” (p. 157).

In line with this thinking Brudney (1990) cited Ellis (1985a) “volunteer organizations have not begun to tap the large numbers of potential members who do not work “normal” hours. These included occupants of jobs that require shift work, evening hours, weekend days, and variable schedules” (p. 157).

When recruiting think of corporate programs, many corporations have sponsored community service projects, which allowed employees or retired employees to participate. Youth have been recruited through internships or work-study programs. “If youths had good experiences volunteering, they will likely continue with volunteer activities as adults” (Butler, DePhelps and Gray pp. 12-13).

“Times of the year play a role in volunteer recruitment as well. In September and January adults tend to be more receptive to taking on new projects, while teenagers and college students are likely prospects during the summer months” (Butler, DePhelps and Gray p. 15).

Those involved in recruiting of volunteers should consider a non-traditional perspective. The ‘typical’ volunteer; a white educated middle-class married female is no longer available in large numbers. The U.S. population has come of age, with the fastest growing segment over sixty-five years of age, this group of retired individuals has great potential. Students at the high school and college level age would provide another potential group of volunteers. Brudney (1990) cited Kantrowitz (1989)”since 1987 the California State University system encouraged (but not required) students to perform thirty hours of community service annually. School officials stated that about a quarter of the system’s 400,000 students had participated in the program” (p. 161).
Retention:

Any one working with volunteers would acknowledge that retention of volunteers is an important issue, if there is a high turnover rate it would be costly to an organization. Stevens (1988) cited Kallan and Leyendecker, (1977) in defining retention as the “Continuation or discontinuation of volunteer service” (p. 83).

The costs to an organization are manifested in disruption of service provision, limitation on type of services to be offered, and huge demands of staff for training and placement of volunteers. (p. 17) Stevens citing Lauffer & Gorodezky (1977); Litwak (1985); and Rakocy (1981).

According to Kallan and Leyendecker (1977); Sainer and Zander (1971) who Stevens (1988) cited, the factors indentified regarding retention of senior volunteers was work assignment, sense of accomplishment, appreciation, staying busy, relationships with peers, staff and other volunteers. (p. 18)

Stevens (1988) researched the correlation of role satisfaction and retention in regards to goodness-of-fit in senior volunteerism. “By assessing the association between personal characteristics of the senior volunteer and the characteristics of the volunteer role, to learn which combination of personal and role qualities would best maximize satisfaction and retention” (p. 37). This would be ‘goodness-of-fit’ between the volunteer and the volunteer experience.

The findings from Stevens’s (1988) research concluded two personal characteristics were factors that significantly related to retention of senior volunteers. Those characteristics were employment status and pattern of community service. (p 120) The volunteers who were not employed were most likely to continue to volunteer. Of the volunteers not employed, 79% continued compared to 52% of those who were employed. Stevens (1988) also found that volunteers who provided community services for more than ten years were most likely to continue to volunteer, 83% compared to 76% who served one to four years. (p. 121)

The role characteristics associated with retention were; role-set interaction, role congruence, role competence and role recognition. Stevens (1988) defined role-set interaction as that which allowed involvement for the volunteer with others on the job. 59% of volunteers who expressed the least interaction discontinued volunteer service, compared to 10% of volunteers who expressed the most interaction. Volunteers who indicated low amounts of interaction continued to volunteer only 41% of the time, compared to 90% who indicated high level of interaction. (p. 123)

Stevens (1988) also concluded that the agreement between the volunteer’s expectations and actual volunteer experience, or role-congruence was a factor in retention. Those volunteers who indicated low role congruence, 63% had low retention, in comparison to only 22% of volunteers with high congruence.
Role competence, or the more knowledge and skill the volunteer perceived to have accounted for higher retention. The study found of the volunteers who revealed low role competence, or knowledge and skill for the job, 52% had discontinued, compared to 22% who revealed high competence. In addition 48% of volunteers with low competence continued, compared to 78% of volunteers with high competence. (p.125-126)

The last factor that Stevens (1988) concluded regarding volunteer retention was role recognition. Discontinuation of service was expressed by 46% of volunteers who indicated the lowest level of recognition compared to 33% who expressed the highest level of recognition. (p. 126)

Recruiting and Retaining Minority groups as volunteers:

Nontraditional sources such as minority groups would also bring useful insights into organizations. The amount of research material was minimal on this subject. What was available is provided here for those involved in working with volunteers, with the intent that the reader will pursue further research and implementation of strategies for recruiting and retaining minorities in volunteer work.

Applebaum (1992) cited The Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto (1990), which stated the 1986 census, had a population of 2,173,890. Of this population the same census indicated, “31% of the Metro Toronto’s population reported a mother tongue other than English or French” (p. 6). The Minister of Employment and Immigration (1990) as cited by Applebaum (1992) stated “In 1990 a five year plan for immigration would see over 200,000 immigrants coming to Canada each year through 1995” (p. 6).

According to Applebaum (1992) if the projected immigration and settlement patterns were realized, this would have significant implications for human service volunteering. The most obvious implication was that as the immigrant population grows there would be an increased need for human services to meet their needs. (p 6) The likelihood of new immigrants who will be non-English or French speaking, would indicate an increased demand for volunteers from minority communities who could provide culturally and linguistically sensitive services. (p. 9)

“Visible minorities/racial minorities as defined by the Federal Standing Committee on Multiculturalism (1987) and cited by Applebaum (1992) was: Canadians who consider themselves partially or fully of origins other than European or Native and are visibly identifiable as such. They are usually identified as persons who trace their origins to Asia, Africa, South and Central America, and the Pacific Islands” (p. 18-19).

Applebaum (1992) defined the term minority as “in contrast to dominant cultural and economic groups in Ontario and Canadian society that have traditionally and continue to be made up of white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestants, with men usually in the predominant positions of most major institutions” (p. 20).
Volunteering in Canada was promoted by the Federal Government as part of Citizenship education, and as a means to eliminate racial discrimination in Canada. Multiculturalism and Citizenship Canada published a pamphlet that encouraged Canadians to "look at the voluntary groups they belong to, including local government, institutions and human service agencies, and encourage people from all cultures and races to participate" (p. 16-17).

Applebaum (1992) cited Duchesne's (1989) statistics that found in 1987 "5.3 million Canadians or 27% of the population over age 15, volunteered through an organization. Duchesne's statistics showed that Ontario, which is in the district of Toronto, ranked first in absolute numbers of volunteers and fourth in proportion of racial minorities, immigrants, and non-English, non-French peoples among the ten Canadian provinces. The percentage of people in these groups who participated in formal volunteering was only 19.2%" (p. 22-23).

For Applebaum (1992) the 19.2% indicated that further research was needed regarding recruiting and retaining minority volunteers, which is the basis of his research. Regarding the need for this research, Applebaum (1992) cited Asche and Janey (1989) and Connelly (1990). Asche and Janey "found significant demand for research about volunteering among specific ethno-cultural groups: Black-Americans, Hispanic-Americans, and Asian-Americans" (p. 24). "In England, Connelly called for the development of case studies that would illuminate organizational practices regarding the recruitment and retention of Black-American volunteers" (p. 24).

Applebaum (1992) cited O'Connel's (1976) opinion regarding the promotion and guarantee of involvement of minorities in volunteerism. O'Connel felt that involvement for minorities should start at the board level, and recommended a quota for minorities to be represented. "Obviously there has to be a realistic commitment and experience sadly teaches me that commitment has to be backed up at least in the formative stages with a quota system. They're undemocratic, discriminatory of themselves, abhorrent to a free society, and on and on. There's only one thing good about them—they make us do the job" (p. 36).

In reference to racial minorities and ethnic groups being under-represented as volunteers in Canada Applebaum (1992) cited Chapin's (1977) study. Chapin concluded the under-representation could be due to the costs of volunteering (i.e. transportation, time not working, child care, meals, etc.). The probability was that people from higher socio-economic strata volunteer because they possess the resources-time and money. (p. 38)

O'Connel (1976) as cited by Applebaum (1992) indicated recruitment of minority board members could best be accomplished by networking with leaders in the minority community. Regarding retention, the suggestion was to offer sensitivity training for white board members and openness to new perspectives and agendas that minorities bring to the board. (p. 36)
A study by Chambré (1989) cited by Applebaum involved the recruiting and retaining of volunteers from Black-American and Hispanic-American communities for Big Brothers Inc. of New York City. (p. 42) Chambré found two key elements for successful involvement of minorities. The first was to use an outreach approach that communicates directly to minority groups that they are needed and that they have the capability of contributing to the organization.

The second is the need of the organization to communicate to volunteers that they are an integral part of the organization and necessary to its success. (p 45) Chambré concluded the following ingredients were needed for a successful recruitment plan. “1) The organizations existence and purpose 2) the volunteer’s role and responsibilities 3) the value of volunteering for that specific organization 4) the benefits derived by the individual 5) the organization’s need for volunteers” (p. 45).

Chambré found the most difficult groups to recruit were Black-American and Hispanic-American men. The techniques found to recruit these groups successfully incorporated a focused effort to promote the role of Big Brother with issues of masculinity. Another successful technique was the significant use of advertising, preferably through mass media (radio and television). Chambré’s research concerning recruiting the market segment of Black-American and Hispanic-American males found insights through demographics. The demographics suggested successful recruiting would target Black-American men “with only high School diplomas, as well as older men” (p. 50). For Hispanic men, “the younger age range (18-24) was the promising group, consisting of 30,000 individuals” (p. 51).

Regarding retention of minorities, Chambré found the need for follow-up after advertising was crucial, as well as the need for counseling support for volunteers if needed. Other factors of retention was the opportunities for growth for the volunteer both in the same role, and for moving into other roles, and a recognition system. (p. 46-47)

Applebaum (1992) cited Tomeh’s (1981) “three factors required for the successful recruitment and retention of minorities. First, people must be informed of opportunities and motivated to volunteer; second, available and attractive positions; and third, linkages and support systems between people and positions” (p. 54).

Research conducted by Applebaum (1992) as a case study approach of a small sample of fifteen administrative and service volunteers of the Children’s Aid Society of Metropolitan Toronto (CASMT) was to investigate how “traditional mainstream institutions could recruit and retain volunteers from minority ethno-cultural communities” (p. 2-4).

Applebaum (1992) found documentation from the 1980’s of major advertising campaigns of the CASMT, which used newspapers, T.V., radio and brochures targeted to recruit minorities. “However, no record remains of the effectiveness of these activities in recruiting volunteers for CASMT programs” (p. 102).
During interviews of CASMT staff, Applebaum (1992) discovered that two staff members had started recruitment among minority communities. These staff members recruited individuals as chairpersons on a Multicultural Advisory Committee who in turn recruited minority volunteers for the Multicultural Recruitment Committee.

The members of the Multicultural Recruitment Committee were to develop strategies to recruit minorities. Although the 1980’s saw both internal and external struggles for these committee groups and their members, by the end of the 1980’s committed individuals had sustained the work. Thus minorities were represented as volunteers both in service and administrative areas including the Board of Directors. (p. 125-127)

The CASMT staff stated that the most effective means of recruiting was by staff and volunteers personally inviting someone else. As the minority base of staff and volunteers grew, more minorities became involved. The use of outreach recruiting through religious organizations was successful in reaching minority communities. (p. 128)

During interviews Applebaum (1992) conducted with administrative and service volunteers in regards to recruiting, the most frequent recommendation was the need for public education about the organization. The media (radio and television) was highly recommended for educating the public. The second strategy was personal recruitment, the third was presentations to ethno-cultural organizations, specifically religious institutions. (p. 167-168)

The interviews Applebaum (1992) conducted regarding retention revealed staff believed it was necessary to maintain a significant number of visible minorities on the board and committees. Quality training programs and opportunities for socializing with staff and all levels of volunteers was indicated as a major factor in retaining volunteers. (pp. 132, 135)

Retention strategies that volunteers suggested to Applebaum (1992) were more opportunities for socializing, such as retreats, and interaction other than attending meetings. The opportunity for advancement from service volunteer to administrative volunteer was also cited. (p. 176-177)

When Applebaum (1992) asked administrative volunteers why they continued to volunteer the following reasons were given. Commitment to the cause of the organization was primary, followed by desire to have input into the organizational changes to regarding minorities, and working with a team towards the same goal.

Service volunteers cited the following reasons for continuing to volunteer. Commitment to the individuals the agency served; especially long-term commitment, support from the agency and staff, and training provided. (p. 174-175)

Applebaum (1992) summarized by stating that “Organizations that hope to be successful in recruiting and retaining volunteers will need to confront racism at all levels of their organization” (p. 210).
Applebaum (1992) suggested the establishment of anti-racism policies, setting numerical goals for recruiting minorities, and making a commitment to include minorities at all levels of the organization. (p. 210).

"To truly make volunteering open to the full range of people from all ethno-racial communities, determination and a clear sense of direction on equitable representation in organizations with volunteer programs will be needed by government and community organizations" (p. 210).

**Summary:**

Volunteers are broadly defined as individuals who receive no monetary reward for helping others. The literature indicated volunteers play a large and increasingly important role, as citizens participate in community affairs for the purpose of improving the quality of life within the American society.

**Demographic Characteristics:**

The demographic characteristics are similar between Safrit and King's, Burris, and King and Fluke's research, but very different from Kravitz's research. The typical adult volunteer respondent was a white married female, between 30 and 40 years of age, with a high school diploma or GED (Grade Equivalency Diploma). She was employed full time with a total household income between $25,000 and $50,000. One can guess that Kravitz's population sample of Dade county Florida has a higher percentage of retired adults. Kravitz’s demographics characteristics revealed the typical volunteer as white, female, over 60 years of age, and retired. These volunteers had attended school beyond the secondary level, with a combined household income of over $25,000.

**Why Do People Volunteer**

Concern or helping others was the most frequently sited reason by volunteers. Others reasons for volunteering were cited as: religious reasons, enjoyment of the work, an interest in the activity, or a desire to learn and gain experience.

The opportunity to socialize, being recognized by peers and an organization, and contributing to a larger purpose by supporting the goals of an organization were also cited as reasons.
Motivation:

What motivates people to volunteer? This really ties in with the reasons people volunteer. The review of literature indicated differences of opinion on the source of motivation, yet agreement that persons act as a result of a variety of motives. There was agreement that an individual's motive changed throughout the course of their volunteer participation.

The study of human motivation, particularly altruism was outlined as a motive of volunteers. Another view of motivation was from the standpoint of being intrinsic, or extrinsic. Intrinsic motives are those that prompt a person to act for the pleasure gained from the act of volunteering, the chance to utilize special skills, the opportunity to work with a team of peers, or the fulfillment of a need for something to do. Extrinsic motives refer to an end product or payoff, such as finding employment or gaining recognition as a result of the experience.

Regarding faith, theology and religion as a motive for volunteerism, research indicated church attendance definitely impacted the volunteer participation variable.

Satisfaction of Volunteers:

Volunteer satisfaction is important, for it could determine if a volunteer will continue to serve.

Individuals who were very satisfied in their personal life were satisfied in their volunteer experience. Satisfaction was to be as relevant for the volunteer's job as the satisfaction an employee experienced in the workplace. The same individual may find the circumstances of a volunteer setting unsatisfactory at one stage of life but quite acceptable at a later stage.

The main factors that influenced satisfaction in the respondents volunteer situation was being able to help others and feeling a sense of accomplishment. Travel to and from the volunteer assignment was a significant factor related to volunteer satisfaction. Recognition was a factor, received both from peers and from the organization's management.

Recruiting:

It is not a one-size fits all as far as recruiting techniques, but researchers provided suggestions for organizations to use. Various types of recruiting included brochures and announcements, or one-to-one recruiting. For successful recruiting one was encouraged to disseminate accurate and complete information regarding the organizations mission and type of experience offered.
The major reason people volunteered was because they were asked. When recruiting think of friends of volunteers and members of the organization. Individuals who themselves have benefited from the organization often become volunteers, and excellent recruiters.

Interviewing would provide the staff member the opportunity to determine if a particular person would be right for a job and gain satisfaction from it. The purpose of the interview would be an exchange of information. The organization would learn about the volunteer's attitudes, beliefs and motives. At the same time the volunteer obtains information about the organizations purpose, programs and rules.

Those involved in recruiting of volunteers should consider a non-traditional perspective. The population has come of age, with the fastest growing segment over sixty-five years old, this group of retired individuals has great potential. Students at the high school and college level age would provide another potential group of volunteers.

Minorities are a population which have uptapped potential for serving in organizations. Research indicated involvement for minorities should start at the board level, with the recommendation that a quota for minorities should be represented throughout the organization. Communication to minority groups that they are needed and that they have the capability of contributing to an organization and necessary to its success.

The most difficult groups to recruit were Black-American and Hispanic-American men. The techniques found to recruit these groups successfully incorporated a focused effort to promote issues of masculinity. The means of recruiting most effective was accomplished by staff and volunteers personally inviting someone else. As the number of minority staff and volunteers grew more minorities became involved. Recruiting through religious organizations of all faiths was successful in reaching minority communities.

Retention:

The retention of volunteers is an important issue, if there is a high turnover rate it would be costly to an organization. Being too busy, or private, personal or family reasons, and loss of interest or enjoyment were the reasons volunteers gave for discontinuing their volunteer service.

Volunteers who were not employed, and volunteers who had provided community services for more than ten years were most likely to continue to volunteer. Those with the most interaction or involvement with others on the job continued, compared to volunteers who expressed the least interaction with others on the job.

Regarding retention of minorities, it was stated that it was necessary to maintain a significant number of visible minorities on the board and on committees.
Quality training programs and opportunities for socializing with staff and all levels of volunteers was indicated as a major factor. The suggestions offered by volunteers were opportunity for socializing, and interaction other than attending meetings. The opportunity for advancement from service volunteer to administrative volunteer was also important for volunteers to continue to serve.

**Conclusion:**

Churches are involved in reaching into their community with such programs as Food Pantries, Adult Literacy, Homeless Ministry, and Nursing Home Ministry to name a few. For churches to continue such ministries there will be a need to recruit and retain volunteers.

Helping others is the main reason people volunteer. A personal invitation was by far the most effective means in recruiting volunteers. People volunteer because someone asked them to get involved.

The individual who is satisfied with their personal life was the most satisfied as a volunteer. Their satisfaction was found in a sense of self-knowledge, and finding a good fit with their values, motives and skills for the volunteer position.

The minority communities are an untapped population to be recruited for volunteer service. The most difficult groups to recruit were Black American and Hispanic American men.

One factor to be used in recruiting was the interview process. This was beneficial for both the individual seeking to volunteer and the organization.

Recruiting through the use of advertising required additional resources and time, and is not as effective as a personal invitation.

Volunteers continued to serve when they had interaction with others in the organization, both with other volunteers and management. They also continued to serve when they felt they and their work were recognized.

**Recommendations:**

An organization or event that utilizes volunteers will need to be equipped to recruit and retain volunteers that will benefit the mission, the objectives and the population the organization serves. The following are recommendations to recruit and retain individuals for volunteer service in the community organization.
Personal contacts, and word of mouth should be used as a main means for successfully recruiting volunteers. Friends and staff should be actively inviting people they know. Often it is that invitation that is the initiative for someone to take the first step. They are usually hooked once they know someone else who is involved.

During the interviewing process the following should be provided to the volunteer being recruited; an explanation of the job duties, who would the volunteer report to and work with, the amount of time commitment required for the position. This allows the volunteer to determine if this is the commitment and type of work they want. You as well as the volunteer will best be benefited when there is a good match of volunteer with position.

When recruiting minorities, use networks and contacts within the minority community. Once there are several volunteers from the minority community, let them be involved in recruiting others from their own network. Minorities should be represented at every level of the organization, from the board to direct service. To retain minorities there should be a significant number of minorities involved in the organization. The techniques found to recruit African American and Hispanic men especially as mentors, successfully incorporated a focused effort to promote issues of masculinity.

Volunteers need to be involved in interaction with other volunteers and staff in the organization. Get them involved not only in meetings, but training, and social events. Involvement means more than just doing the work of volunteering, it is important to have socialization, encouragement and just plain fun.

It is so important to recognize the service that each volunteer provides. Recognize them as individuals, but also as an integral part of the organization. Recognition should take the form of verbal praise, special awards, banquets, and the opportunity for advancement. Recognition should come from both peers and from management. Everyone loves to be praised, and often staff and volunteers get so busy in the work that words of encouragement and recognition come to late. Encouragement, and praise given from the heart to another comes back around many times, and can never be done to often.
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