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Motives, incentives, and disincentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations

Rouse, Shirley B., Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1990

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MOTIVES, INCENTIVES, AND DISINCENTIVES OF OLDER ADULT VOLUNTEERS IN YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

by

Shirley B. Rouse

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro
1990

Approved by

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APPROVAL PAGE

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November 21, 1990
Date of Acceptance by Committee

November 21, 1990
Date of Final Oral Examination

ROUSE, SHIRLEY B., Ph.D. Motives, Incentives, and Disincentives of Older Adult Volunteers in Youth Development and Other Organizations. (1990) Directed by Dr. Barbara Clawson. 137 pp.

Objectives of the study were to (a) identify and describe the demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations, (b) examine the relationship between motives and incentives, and (c) explore differences in disincentives according to the demographic characteristics of age, race, gender, and employment status of older adult volunteers.

The study was ex post facto in design. Use of a stratified sampling procedure resulted in the selection of 200 older adult volunteers; 100 represented youth development organizations and 100 represented other organizations not involving youth development activities. The population under study was adults, age 50 and over, who were volunteers in 1989 and 1990. A mail survey was used to collect the data resulting in an 81% response rate.

The majority of the youth development respondents were employed and under age 65; the majority of the other organizations volunteers were retired and over age 65. The youth development group had a higher number of female volunteers, whereas the other organizations had a nearly equal number of male and female volunteers.

Statistical procedures used were chi-square, *t*-test, correlation, and factor analysis. There were no significant

differences in motives or incentives for the two groups, and no relationship between motives and incentives. Both youth development and other organizations volunteers were motivated by achievement and affiliation and preferred purposive incentives. A factor analysis was performed on the 25 disincentives items from the questionnaire. Two meaningful factors emerged, Risk/Uncertainty and Time. There was a significant difference in the Time Factor disincentives with youth development volunteers experiencing time as more of a disincentive than volunteers for the other organizations. The main disincentives were lack of parental support for youth development volunteers and inadequate volunteer training for the other organizations volunteers.

The demographic characteristics of age and employment status were significantly different for the Time disincentive for older adult volunteers; race was significantly different for the Risk/Uncertainty factor. Older and retired volunteers experienced fewer time disincentives than did younger and employed adults. White volunteers experienced fewer Risk/Uncertainty disincentives than did the Black volunteers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The researcher is especially aware and appreciative of the assistance and support of those who made this study possible. Among those to whom the researcher wishes to express appreciation are the following:

Dr. Barbara Clawson, adviser and major professor, for her calm, accomplished, and competent guidance throughout the graduate program; her generous allotment of time; her willingness to share her knowledge, ideas, and experiences; and for believing in me.

Dr. Sandra Powers, Dr. Mary Morgan, and Dr. Mildred Johnson for their assistance, and for their willingness to serve as committee members.

Mrs. Sandra Mangum, Director of Retired Seniors Volunteer Program; Mrs. Farish Cochran and Mrs. Christy Greeson, Directors of the Voluntary Action Center; Mrs. Dona Betenbaugh, Director of The Foster Grandparent Program of Guilford County; Mrs. Elaine Morehead, Field Executive of Tarheel Triad Girl Scout Council; Mr. James D. Thorne, Field Director of General Greene Council; Mrs. Carolyn High, Mr. Darryl Howard, and Mr. Robert Lopp, Extension Agents, 4-H for their suggestions in developing the questionnaire, writing letters of research support, and assistance in obtaining the sample population for my study.

Dr. Daniel D. Godfrey, Associate Dean and Administrator of The North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service at North Carolina A&T State University, for his assistance, interest, and patience during my leave from employment.

Dr. Donald R. McDowell for his statistical assistance throughout the statistics courses.

The North Carolina Extension Homemakers Association for the Ruth Current Scholarship for 1988, 1989, and 1990.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro for the Minority Presence Grant.

Mrs. Vivian Smith for proofreading the questionnaire and typing the correspondence to volunteers.

The volunteers who not only completed the questionnaires, but also wrote notes, comments, and opinions.

Reginald, my husband, for his encouragement and support; Jacques, my daughter, for making sure I had fun while taking breaks from studies; my cousin, Gardenia, for sharing my experiences; and other family members and friends for their prayers, support, and encouragement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the 1970's volunteer activity and volunteer organizations in the United States increased significantly. The renaissance of interest in volunteerism continued into the 1980's effecting a sizable impact on the national economy. It has been reported that volunteer associations account for more than $80 billion of our annual economy and that as many as six or seven million volunteer groups may exist in the United States (O'Connell, 1986). At least 12 new national organizations were formed to foster and promote volunteerism in the 1970's.

Volunteering is being discussed more, promoted more actively, and encouraged more strongly at all levels of society. Federal, state, and local governments are supporting the use of volunteers. At industries and other institutions, employers are placing more emphasis on the value of volunteer services through small-group training for their employees (Rainman & Lippitt, 1977).

Park (1983) reported that in 1981, the Independent Sector--a national forum to encourage giving, volunteering, and non-profit initiative--asked the Gallup organization to conduct a survey of volunteer activities. For this survey,

Independent Sector broadened the definition of volunteering to include helping activities done alone or informally as well as the more traditional structured activitites. With this more inclusive definition, the survey showed that 53% of American adults and 53% of teenagers did at least some volunteer work in the year between March 1980 and March 1981. When formal volunteering is separated from informal services, 31% of the population averaged two or more volunteer hours per week in structured settings, and 10% averaged seven or more hours weekly. With the increase in volunteer services since 1980, the value and importance of volunteer services has also increased. Independent Sector calculated the value of volunteer services performed at $64.5 billion annually.

Ellis (1978) described volunteerism as an instrument which can be used in the service of any philosophy. It is a method of achieving goals, of channeling the efforts of citizens toward desired ends. As such, citizen volunteers are "social capital," perhaps the most valuable natural resource the country has. Ellis contended that the challenge is to use this resource fully, mobilizing the human energy of volunteering to shape our collective future.

A statement by Smith (1973) summarized another important aspect of volunteerism:

> Through participation in voluntary activities a wide variety of people have been able to find or create special social groups that would permit them to grow

> as individuals. This kind of personal growth may be summed up as "self-actualization." Through volunteerism self-actualization takes the form of developing otherwise unused capabilities, talents, skills or potentials. (p. 393)

Rauner (1980) stated that volunteer involvement has a special place in our history. Since earlier days, the people of America have been helping one another. This helping tradition of volunteering has continued, even while social and economic trends were changing.

Statement of the Problem

As society has changed, so have the values, trends, and practices regarding the utilization of volunteers. The move from an industrial to postindustrial to informational society has required more and more human services. At the same time, financial resources have been shrinking. Thus, the need for volunteers to help professionals provide services continues.

Other demographic changes in society also will influence the motivations of volunteers and volunteer programs in the future. An increased number of females in the workplace has decreased the pool of traditional volunteers; changing family lifestyles have increased the need for services outside the home; inflation has changed the ways people spend and save their money; and the population as a whole is older. These changes are related to the changing motives of volunteers as well as some of the causes for the explosion of volunteer opportunities.

The increased number of females in the workplace affects direct-service activities, especially youth development organizations. According to the 1985 Gallup survey, males were less apt than females to volunteer for educational activities. In the past, the majority of volunteers have been white middle-class and upper-class females in the age range of 25 to 55. In the 1990's, females are more likely to be employed. Statistics in 1988 indicate that over 60% of females between the ages of 25 and 65 are working in paid employment (Griffin, 1988). With more females being employed, significantly fewer are willing or able to volunteer. Those who do tend to volunteer for fewer hours.

A second important societal trend that affects direct-service volunteer activities is changing family lifestyles. The traditional American family of two parents--one providing, the other nurturing--no longer exists in large numbers. The rapid rate of change in the family structure is creating crisis, insecurity, confusion, and stress for many young Americans. If the divorce rate remains at present levels, estimates are that 38% of white children born in 1980 will be members of single-parent households for some period of time before age 16. For black youth, the chance of experiencing a single-parent household by age 16 is 75%. In fact, the number of single-parent households grew by 71% between 1970 and 1980, whereas the number of two-parent households

declined by 4% (Skolnick & Skolnick, 1983). For every two marriages, there is one divorce; the proportion of households consisting of single individuals has steadily increased from 8% in 1940 to nearly 23% in 1980 (Skolnick & Skolnick, 1983). As family structures change and more dual income and single-parent families emerge, it is increasingly more difficult for families to provide structure and support for their children. These changing trends have had a particularly detrimental effect on youth, youth development, and youth organizations that have traditionally depended on volunteer workers.

Today's young people are in desperate need of relevant and useful experiential learning activities. Participation in youth development programs such as 4-H or Scouting provides many needed life skills. Wardlaw (1985) conducted a study of over 400 youths participating in 4-H about their perceptions of benefits acquired. It was found that 4-H offers significant positive consequences including knowledge gains, self-attitude development, happiness, environmental awareness, and career exploration. In addition, Rainman & Lippitt (1977) stated that as the young experiment with such complex areas as drug use, premarital and nonmarital sex relations, political activism, and alternatives to the economic system, they have a greater need for the perspectives and emotional support of nonauthoritarian helping adults. Thus the need for adults in volunteer leadership roles is increasingly critical.

Inflation, the third societal trend, will probably affect all types of volunteer activities equally, including maintenance, policy development, social action and advocacy, and direct-service. Inflation has reduced agencies' budgets, depleted their staff resources, and increased the demand for public service employees and volunteers (Ellis, 1986; Harmon, 1972). Increased competition for scarce dollars and volunteers means that volunteers will be in a better position to demand more opportunities and incentives. Schwartz (1984) wrote that the challenge of doing more with less requires utilizing available resources, more creatively merging overlapping activities, finding new funds, and reducing costs. Not to be discounted, of cousre, is the powerful effect of inflation on service organizations. Inflation will probably increase costs, and particularly will mobilize volunteer energy. Another factor contributing to the need for volunteers is the decreases in federal, state, and local budgets for human services. The growing population of older adults with life experience and time to offer is the most likely source for meeting this need.

The trend of an aging population should be viewed from the positive perspective of a potentially new group with more leisure time which can fill needed volunteer activities. America's population is aging; probably no other change in the near future will have a more profound effect on how American society looks, feels, thinks, behaves, and

volunteers. Already about 50 million, the number of people aged 65 and over is expected to increase to 65 million by the year 2030 (Kingston, Hirshorn, & Cornman, 1986). This growing number of older adults could be a major resource in easing the loss of volunteers caused by employment of females, changing family lifestyles, and inflation. Chambre (1987) stated that in 1981 almost one-fourth of adults aged 65 or older, or 5.9 million people, spent some time volunteering.

Changing motivations for volunteering is another trend to be explored. Smith (1972) wrote that the motivation to volunteer is changing from pure altruism to the needs for affiliation, approval, and achievement. Today the motives for volunteering may include wanting to be where the action is, meeting people, or achieving a sense of belonging. There also may be a deepening concern for the needy or the need for experience which may lead to a paying job. Motivation changes with age; therefore, the motives that inspire those aged 35 to 49 are different from those inspiring people aged 50 or older. Peterson (1987) contended that volunteering can address older adults' expressive, contributive, and influence needs. Volunteer activities with youth development programs can give older adults an opportunity to share their experience, wisdom, and skills.

The long-held notion that older adults lack interest and willingness to serve as volunteers has changed, and today they are being actively recruited for volunteer positions (Berliner and the Committee on an Aging Society, 1986).

The voluntary agency that plans to involve older adults in voluntary leadership roles will be in a key position to reap the rewards of intergenerational relationships. The need for more volunteers in youth development organizations raises questions about factors influencing older adults' decisions to volunteer for different types of organizations. As motives for volunteering change, so do incentives and disincentives. Identifying and describing motives, incentives, and disincentives for volunteers in youth development and other organizations is an important step toward understanding older adults and their role in volunteerism.

It is critical that the volunteer experience be as free of disincentives and barriers as possible. Older adults should be presented with sensible and meaningful incentives. Identifying older adults' incentives and disincentives may provide information which can increase volunteer participation in youth development activities. In order to learn more about the needs, interests, and barriers to volunteering for older adults, differences and similarities of individuals volunteering for different types of organizations need to be explored. Little is known about the types of motives, incentives, and disincentives that lead older adults to undertake or not to undertake the unpaid, but productive, role of volunteer.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to examine demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives for volunteers in youth development and other organizations. Youth development organizations include those organizations which involve designing experiential learning activities for youth, whereas the other organizations include organizations in all sectors of the community not related to youth. To accomplish the purpose of this study, the following research questions were formed:

1. What are the demographic characteristics (age, race, gender, income, parental status, educational attainment, employment status, and marital status) of older adults who volunteer for youth development and other organizations?
2. What motives are salient for older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations?
3. What incentives are salient for older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations?
4. What is the relationship between motives and type of incentives preferred by older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations?
5. What disincentives or barriers exist that affect volunteering by older adults in youth development and other organizations?

6. What effect do the demographic characteristics of race, gender, employment status, and age have on disincentives for older adults volunteers?

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

H_1 There is no significant difference in the type of motive meaningful to volunteers in youth development and other organizations.

H_2 There is no significant difference in the type of incentive meaningful to volunteers in youth development and other organizations.

H_3 There is no relationship between type of motive (achievement, affiliation, and power) and the type of incentive (tangible, solidarity, and purposive) for volunteers in youth development and other organizations.

H_4 There is no significant difference in the disincentives affecting volunteers in youth development and other organizations.

H_5 There is no significant difference in disincentives by race, gender, employment status, and age of older adult volunteers.

Definition of Terms

Volunteer: A non-salaried individual who works directly with youth, adults, or others in the community to carry out an organization's mission and program (Park, 1983).

Older Adult Volunteer: Volunteers who are age 50 and over.

Youth: School aged children, 6 through 19 years old.

Youth Development: Educational experiential activities that help young people to acquire knowledge, develop life skills, and form attitudes that will enable them to become self-directing and productive members of society (Wessel & Wessel, 1982).

Other Organizations: Voluntary programs, excluding youth development, in all sectors of the community including recreation, the arts, health, religion, adult education, business, politics, the media, and human services.

Incentives: Rewards, situations, or conditions that motivate performance (Veroff & Veroff, 1980).

Disincentives: Impediments, constraints, or deterrents that hinder performance (Berliner et al., 1986).

Motives: Needs, wants, drives, or impulses within the individual, directed toward goals, which may be conscious or subconscious (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The study of individual motivation to participate in volunteer activities has been a major focus of investigation and interest to volunteer coordinators, youth development specialists, and social behaviorists. Studies of older adult participation and interest in volunteering are beginning to emerge. This study was conducted to identify and compare the demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations.

The review of literature is presented in seven parts: (a) motivation theories related to volunteerism, (b) studies of volunteers using motivation theories, (c) incentives for volunteers, (d) disincentives for volunteers, (e) demographic characteristics of older adult volunteers, (f) research studies related to older adult volunteers, and (g) a model which attempts to integrate the various theories and link the factors that research points to as important in organized volunteer activities.

Motivation Theories

Over the last decade motivational theories have been modified and expanded to explain why humans behave in

certain ways. It is evident that motivation is not constant, fluctuating, and complex. The numerous theories and concepts of motivation all explain to some extent the "why" of human behavior. The motivational theories that are presented in this chapter have been used in management of volunteer programs to help understand the motivational factors underlying volunteer participation.

One concept of motivation has its origins in the principle of hedonism. This theory assumes that behavior is directed toward pleasure and away from pain. In every situation people select from alternative possibilities the course of action which they think will maximize their pleasure and minimize their pain (Vroom, 1982). This approach is consistent with the work of Freud.

A more contemporary theory starts with the Atkinson model of motives-expectancy-incentive. This model assumes that a person is motivated to behave in a particular way by the strength of one's motives (M), the expectancy of attaining the goal (E), and the perceived incentives values attached to the goals presented (I). The model provides the structure for contemporary theories which are used in work and volunteer settings and can be summarized as follows:

Aroused Motivation = M x E x I

Atkinson and Vroom Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory of motivation was developed by Atkinson and modified by Vroom. Vroom (1982) defined an

expectancy as a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. Expectancies may be described in terms of their strength. Maximal strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will be followed by the outcome while minimal, or zero strength, is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will not be followed by the outcome. There are several other important factors that also affect need strength.

Hershey and Blanchard (1988) insisted that two important factors which affect need strength are expectancy and availability. Expectancy tends to affect motives and availability tends to affect the perception of goals. In Figure 1, availability reflects the perceived limitations of the environment. The figure illustrates that motives are directed toward goals that are aspirations in the environment. These are interpreted by the individual as being available or unavailable; the interpretation affects expectancy. If expectancy is high, motive strength will increase. This tends to be a cyclical pattern moving in the direction of the solid arrows shown in Figure 1. To some extent these are interacting variables indicated by the broken line arrows. The presence of goals or incentives in the environment may affect the given strength of motives and other variables.

Additionally, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) stated that felt needs cause behavior, and this motivated behavior is

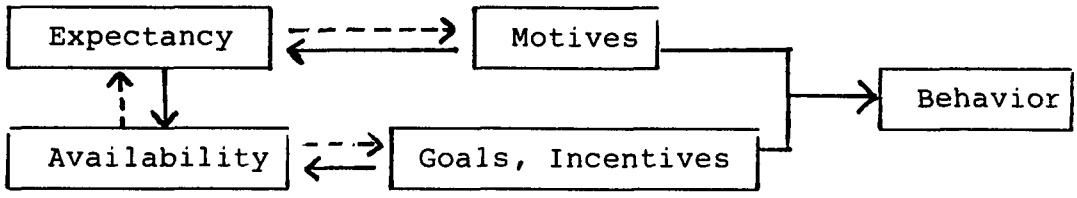

Figure 1. Diagram of a motivating situation. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 30)

increased if a person perceives a positive relationship between effort and performance. They indicated that motivated behavior is further increased if there is a positive relationship between good performance and outcomes or rewards, particularly if the outcomes or rewards are valued. Therefore, there are three relationships that enhance motivated behavior: a positive relationship between effort and performance, a positive relationship between good performance and incentives, and the producing of valued outcomes. They further stated that expectancy is the perceived probability of satisfying a particular need of an individual based on past experience. This concept is in agreement with theories proposed by Atkinson and Birch (1978) and Vroom (1982).

McClelland-Atkinson Motive Theory

Atkinson (Atkinson & Birch, 1978) presented a model of motivated behavior stating that all adults possess the potential energy to behave in a variety of ways. Whether they behave in these ways depends on (a) the relative strength or readiness of the various motives a person has and (b) the situational characteristics and the opportunities presented. The stimuli presented by the situation determine, in large part, which motives will be aroused and what kind of behavior will be generated. McClelland and Atkinson (Atkinson & Birch, 1978) believed that there are three motives that affect behavior: the need for achievement,

the need for affiliation, and the need for power. These three intrinsic motives have been shown to be important variables in volunteerism. Litwin and Stringer (1974) stated that achievement, power, and affiliation needs are qualities of motivation that have been shown to be important determinants of performance and success in work and volunteering. Individuals are attracted to climates which appeal to their dominant needs. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined motives as needs, wants, drives, or impulses within the individual. Motives are directed toward goals; they are the "whys" of behavior.

Rewards, or "volunteer pay," come from the satisfaction of the volunteers' performance. Successful volunteering means more than just the accomplishment of tasks; the satisfying of achievement, power, and affiliation needs are also important. Volunteers are attracted to activities which provide opportunities for success (Henderson, 1979).

Achievement motive. The need for achievement (n Ach) is defined as a need to excel in relation to competitive or internalized standards (Litwin & Stringer, 1974). Sanzotta (1977) contended that individuals differ in the degree to which they find achievement a satisfying experience. Individuals with a high need for achievement tend to prefer situations of moderate risk, situations where knowledge of results is provided, and situations where individual responsibility is provided. Achievement-motivated people seem

to be more concerned with personal achievement than with the rewards of success. They do not reject rewards but the rewards are not as important as the accomplishment itself (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). These individuals have a desire for excellence, a sense of accomplishment, advancement, and desire for immediate feedback on programs (Atkinson, 1978).

Power motive. The need for power (n Power) is defined as a need for control and influence over others. Individuals with a strong need for power usually seek positions of leadership in group activities, they are usually verbally fluent, often talkative, and sometimes argumentative. They are seen by others as forceful and outspoken (Litwin & Springer, 1974). Power motives tend to sensitize men and women to interpersonal influences in social interaction. This motive often affects how much people attend to information about other people. Individuals who score high in power motives compared to those who score low in power motives exhibit overt influence on activity, given that the activity will lead to successful influence (Veroff & Veroff, 1980). The resource that enables a person to induce compliance from or to influence others is power; it is a person's influence potential.

Affiliation motive. The need for affiliation (n Affil) is described as approval seeking, which influences one to be

concerned about relationships with others. These individuals tend to enjoy being popular and desire friendly relations and interactions. They dislike being alone in work or play and like to help other people. Since individuals with a strong need for affiliation want others to like them, they are likely to pay attention to the feelings of others. In group meetings they make efforts to establish friendly relationships, often by agreeing or giving emotional support. They seek out jobs which offer opportunities for friendly interaction. People who have institutionalized helping roles, sudch as teachers, nurses, and counselors, usually demonstrate strong affiliation motive (Atkinson & Birch, 1978; Litwin & Springer, 1974).

Maslow and Herzberg Theories

Maslow and Herzberg, however, considered other needs as the predictors of how and why people behave as they do. Maslow developed a hierarchy of needs as a motivational theory. The needs are: safety, physiological, social, esteem, and self-actualization. His conclusion was that each person has various levels of needs and as people satisfy one need level, they move up to the next. However, if a basic need is suddenly not met, such as not having food or safety, all other needs become unimportant, and one will regress on the hierarchy. Wilson (1978) added that most people in our society tend to be partially satisfied at each

level and partially dissatisfied, with greater satisfaction tending to occur at the physiological and safety levels than at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) remarked that Maslow's hierarchy of needs is not intended to be an all-or-none framework but rather one that may be useful in predicting behavior on a high- or low-probability basis.

Herzberg developed a theory of motivation-hygiene. He collected data through interviews with employees. His conclusion was that there are two different categories of needs that are essentially independent of each other and affect behavior in different ways. It was discovered that when people felt dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working. On the other hand, when people felt good about their jobs, it was because of the work itself. The first category of needs, the "hygiene factor," does not relate to the job directly, but to the contextual elements of work, such as supervision, work conditions, status, and peer relationships. Herzberg stated that not fulfilling them will neither increase nor decrease performance. The second category of needs is called motivators since they deal directly with the content of the job and are effective in motivating people to superior performance (Herzberg, 1976). Motivation factors include the work itself, achievement, growth, and

recognition. These motivational concepts can be used to clarify the preferences of volunteer activities performed by older adults.

Studies of Volunteers Using Motivation Theories

The Atkinson and McClelland, Maslow, and Herzberg motivation theories have been used in many research studies relating to volunteers in work situations. Recently, these motivation theories have been used to explain how volunteers' needs affect their behavior. Two of the most recent studies using the Atkinson and McClelland motive theory were conducted by Henderson (1979) and Vroom (1982). Henderson studied motives and selected characteristics of adult volunteers in Extension 4-H Youth programs in Minnesota. A questionnarie was mailed to 200 volunteers in 4-H. Results indicated that volunteers in 4-H were significantly more motivated by affiliation than by achievement or power. The volunteers were concerned about their relationship to others, particularly youth. They were more satisfied when their volunteer activities allowed them to work directly with youth, experience personal growth, and have the opportunity to affiliate with other volunteers.

Vroom (1982) reported the results of a study that used the thematic apperception method to obtain scores on needs for achievement, affiliation, and power from a national sample of men employed in different occupations. It was

found that strength of need for achievement was positively related to the status of the occupation. Sixty percent of the men working in professions and 59% of the managers and proprietors obtained scores which were above the median on this variable, as compared with only 45% of the unskilled workers and 44% of the farmers. Needs for affiliation and power were not systematically related to occupational status although there were differences in scores received by those in different occupations. The managers, proprietors, and semiskilled workers obtained relatively high scores on the need for power, whereas the professionals and clerical workers had low scores. A strong need for affiliation was also characteristic of the managers and proprietors, but was uncharacteristic of the farmers and unskilled workers.

Adams (1981) examined the relationship between level of need satisfaction based on Maslow's theory and the quality of voluntary service. Results indicated that self-actualizers were more reliable in their voluntary attendance. They tended to be better able to take on the internal reference system of the person in need, rather than imposing their own internal reference system on the other person. They were also less likely to give out information rather than elicit it from the person in need.

Jennings (1974) designed a study to test the applicability of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory to a voluntary

setting and to obtain data for the Suicide and Crisis Intervention Service. The results supported the original formulations of the motivator-hygiene theory: (a) motivator factors were found to be associated with periods of volunteer satisfaction, and hygiene factors were associated with periods of volunteer dissatisfaction; and (b) hygiene factors predominated over motivator factors (among ex-volunteers) as reasons for leaving volunteer service.

Incentives for Volunteers

The few studies that have been concerned with the dimension of incentives have pointed out the increased importance of meaningful rewards. Smith (1972) was concerned with incentives for volunteers. He stated that tangible rewards, solidarity, and purposiveness are the three principal types of incentives for volunteerism. Tangible rewards are goods, services, money, and equivalents. Solidarity incentives are interpersonal rewards such as fellowship, friendship, prestige, and similar positive outcomes from personal relationships. Purposive incentives are those intrinsic, intangible satisfactions that result from feeling one is being a means to some valued end, helping to achieve some valued goal, or feeling one is contributing to some purpose. Smith (1972) further stated that the greater the demands placed on volunteers, in terms of responsibility or time commitment, the greater the selective incentives need to be. This is

important if one hopes to attract and retain high quality volunteers. He contended that there is always some kind of cost to the individual for voluntary activity, even if it is only the opportunity cost involved in not being able to do something else that may bring greater rewards. Smith (1972) insisted that volunteerism levels seem to be directly and positively associated with the ratio of benefits (incentives) to costs (disincentives).

Incentives for excellent performance and fair appraisal of all performance stimulate individuals high in achievement motive to strive for these rewards as symbols of their success and personal achievement. However, a performance-based incentive climate would not be expected to arouse the affiliation motive. The individual high in affiliation motive will be stimulated only if it is perceived that one's strivings will lead to warm, close interpersonal relationships. Personal recognition and approval legitimize the goals of power-motivated individuals (Litwin & Stringer, 1974; Sanzotta, 1977). Awareness of volunteers' motives can assist one in identifying salient voluntary incentives.

Butler and Gleason (1985) contended that providing older adults with a stipend will encourage them to take the first step toward volunteering. Berliner et al. (1986) indicated that multiple incentives are better than solitary ones and that all barriers and most disincentives must be removed.

They further stated that money incentives may well be less important, and affective rewards more important among older adults. Both money incentives and affective rewards are required for older adult volunteers, according to Berliner et al. Chambre (1987) found that three factors were highly correlated with older adult volunteer satisfaction: receiving supervision, having increased responsibility, and receiving recognition. It was also found that there was an even higher level of satisfaction when volunteer jobs were structured like paid jobs.

Butler and Gleason (1985) added that satisfactions derived from volunteering among the elderly included a sense of competence, self-confidence, and professional development; a feeling of accomplishment that derives from direct responsibility; a sense of fulfillment, gratification and personal growth that comes with learning another subject; and a congenial atmosphere that provides companionship and mutual respect. Pride of being able to make a contribution through a group that is more significant than one can make as an individual was also a motivator. Contrary to Butler and Gleason (1985), Cohen-Mansfield (1989) stated that the most frequent attributions for motivation to volunteer are to perform a service to society, to help others, and to fulfill a citizenship duty. Filling time and finding interest in volunteering activity were other reasons for volunteering.

Dunkle and Mikelthum (1983), who studied the reasons that elderly individuals participate in the adopt-a-grandparent program, found that many spoke of the opportunity to be with children as good, invigorating, or giving them a new zest for living. Other reasons were contact with the younger generation, something to look forward to, no grandchildren of your own, and a feeling of usefulness. Freedman (1988) contended that older adults view volunteering as a chance to fulfill the "elder function," the propensity of the old to share the accumulated knowledge and experience they have collected. The older adults interviewed described their experience as meeting their own needs through helping youth by providing attention and caring. Other benefits were getting out of the house, earning volunteer stipends, passing on acquired skills to youth, and an opportunity to build a relationship with a younger person. In the study of attitudes of Americans over 45 years of age, Hamilton, Frederick, and Schneiders (1988) reported that 42% of volunteers volunteered for personal enjoyment and 26% volunteered because they felt a responsibility to society. In summary, the reasons for volunteering are as diverse as the individual volunteering, the volunteer agencies, and the types of incentives.

Different volunteer programs provide different types of incentives. The Retired Services Voluntary Program

provides transportation and lunch stipends for volunteers. The Girl Scout, Boy Scout, and 4-H programs provide training sessions and workshops, pins, certificates, and plaques for their volunteers, whereas the Foster Grandparent program provides stipends, training, and physical exams for their volunteers. Other programs provide incentives such as being selected as the outstanding volunteer of the month and transportation reimbursements.

Disincentives for Volunteers

Little research was found on disincentives, deterrents, or constraints to volunteerism. This is a consideration that needs to be addressed because the disincentives of older adults may be different from those of the other age groups in our society. McGuire (1983) conducted a study on constraints which restrict leisure in the later years. Telephone interviews with 125 individuals ranging in age from 45 to 93 revealed that seven constraints were more significant to older adults than to younger adults. These were lack of leisure companions, fear of crime, feeling too old to learn new activities, health reasons, lack of transportation, not getting a feeling of accomplishment from leisure participation, and a feeling that family and friends would not approve. Lack of time, being too busy with work, having too many family responsibilities, and having more

important things to do were significantly more important to the younger respondents than to the older ones in limiting leisure involvement.

Demographic Characteristics of Older Adults

Older adults, especially the elderly, represent a very diverse group. Kingston et al. (1986) contended that this diversity ranges from economic, work, and health status to race, gender, and age. The eight demographic characteristics of older adult volunteers discussed in this section are income, race, age, gender, marital status, education, volunteer activity, and employment status.

Income

Income is a significant indicator of quality of life of people of all ages. It can provide many comforts, protect against discomforts, and help to sustain self-maintenance (George & Bearon, 1980). The Harris Survey (1983), a national study, cited that of the volunteers age 65 and older, 25% have incomes over $20,000, 25% have incomes between $10,000 and $20,000, 25% percent have incomes between $5,000 and $10,000, and 25% have income under $5,000. Berliner et al. (1986) found that nationally there was a significant relationship between income and volunteering. Men with lower levels of income volunteered significantly less than men with higher levels of income. Older females

with lower income levels are significantly less likely to volunteer for social welfare causes; however, income was not found to be related to women's participation in either church- or youth-related activities. Foner (1986) generally agreed with Berliner et al., and indicated that as with younger adults, socioeconomic status makes a significant difference; the lower the status, the less likely the person is to participate in voluntary associations. Krajewski-Jaime (1987) conducted a study on the determinants of voluntary participation by three ethnic groups of elderly and found that income was the strongest predictor of the number of memberships held. Freedman (1988), who examined the relationship developed between low-income older adults volunteers, found that the mentors who were considered to have led an unsuccessful life were very successful in building wholesome, helpful intergenerational bonds with at-risk youth. The concept that willing adults of all income levels can make a significant voluntary contribution is supported by the literature.

Race

Relatively little is known about racial and ethnic differences in the older population; one could assume that life-style differences between racial groups continue into old age (Chambre, 1987). The Gallup organization (1988) found that nationally, 48% of the volunteers were White,

28% Black, and 24% Hispanic. These percentges, however, represent all volunteers from 18 to 75 and older.

Age

The age categories and percentages of volunteers within these categories vary in different studies. Berliner et al. (1986) reported that 45% of the people in the age group 55 to 64 indicated that they did volunteer work, and 23% of the population over age 65 performed some voluntary service. Forty-three percent of the latter group were 65 to 69, 46% were 70 to 79, and 11% were age 80 or older. It was further reported that since 1981 the volunteerism among people over age 65 who are still in the work force appears to be significantly declining although it is significantly increasing among people over age 65 who have retired.

Fleishman-Hillard (1987) stated that adults 45 years of age and older account for 39% of American volunteers. Fifty-six percent of the volunteers contribute 10 or more hours per month, and 32% spent signifciantly more time volunteering than they did 3 years ago. The Independent Sector (1988) reported that adults from 65 to 74 volunteered the most (6 hours a week), followed by those 45 to 54 (5.8 hours). Kerschner and Butler (1988) discovered that more than 400,000 people over the age of 60 are participating in older American volunteer programs sponsored by the government.

Gender

Gender differences in volunteering appear to be diminishing significantly for people of all ages. Older males and females have about an equal tendency to be involved in volunteering: 55% were females, and 45% were males, according to Berliner et al. (1986). The Gallup Organization (1988), who defined volunteering very broadly, found that 47% of men and 53% of women were volunteers. Although similar numbers of males and females volunteer, gender plays a significant role in the type of organizations for which people volunteer. Berliner et al. (1986) reported that males are significantly more likely than females to participate in recreational and work-related activities; females are significantly more likely to participate in health, educational, and religious activities.

Marital Status

Chambre (1987) found that married older adults volunteered significantly more often than the unmarried. Fleishman-Hillard (1987) results were consistent with those of Chambre; 76% of volunteers were married. Another national study by the Gallup organization (1988) reported 50% of all volunteers were married, 40% were single, 37% were divorced or separated, and 32% were widowed. (Volunteer percentages were based on multiple voluntary activities, which accounts for a participation level over 100%.)

Education

Educational achievement is the most powerful predictor of adjustment to old age. It has the strongest significant impact on volunteer status, and it is the most important determinant of activity level and of perceived health (Chambre, 1987). Older adults at the beginning of the 21st century will have much higher levels of formal education. Sharply lower proportions of older adults will have left school at the elementary or even high school level than is true of older adults today (Berliner et al., 1986). Nationally, 29% of volunteers aged 18 and over are high school graduates, 32% have some college, and 32% are college graduates (Fleishman-Hillard, 1987). A more recent educational breakdown for ages 18 and older indicates that 64% of volunteers are college graduates; 58% have some college; 52% have technical, trade, or business school backgrounds; 41% are high school graduates; and 23% have an elementary school education (Gallup, 1988). (The total does not equal 100% because of multiple responses.) Researchers tend to agree that educational attainment has a strong impact on volunteer status.

Volunteer Activities of Older Adults

Murphy and Florio (1978) reported that the kinds of volunteer roles for older adults are not much different than volunteer work done by the population generally. Health

and mental health activities represent 23% of the activities of older volunteers. As many as 20% of all older volunteers are involved in work that is broadly educational. Others include cultural activities, nutrition, and conservation drives.

Berliner et al. (1986) reported that as people age, they change the type of organization for which they volunteer. Among women 37 to 51 years of age, 28% of the volunteers participated in school activities and in such groups as Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts; 33% did church-related work; and another 30% volunteered for hospitals, clinics, major community drives, and other social welfare or civic causes. Five years later, the same female volunteers (now aged 42 to 56) had somewhat shifted their patterns of volunteering. Fewer volunteered for schools and other child-related activities (less than 20%), and more volunteered for both church-related activities (over 40%) and for hospitals, clinics, community drives, and civic causes (over 30%). Church-related activities appear to be a favorite volunteer activity among older adult volunteers.

Fleishman-Hillard (1987) conducted a national profile study on volunteering; the age category was from 18 years old to 75 and older, with respondents selecting more than one activity. Sixty-four percent of all volunteers work most often for religious organizations, 44% were involved

in educational activities, and 41% were involved in youth organizations. Similar results were found by Hamilton, Frederick, and Schneiders (1988), who reported that 57% of the older volunteers volunteered for church groups, 40% volunteered for community service, and 30% volunteered in school or youth programs (multiple responses).

Employment Status

Contrary to Berliner et al. (1986), who declared that one cannot expect older adults to volunteer just because they have more leisure time, Chambre (1987) reported evidence that a reduction in work activity is related to an increased tendency to volunteer. Chambre (1987) discovered that older people working on a full-time or a part-time basis are more often involved in volunteering (27%) than adults who are fully retired (22%). The highest level of participation, 34%, occurs for the semi-retired, those who have retired but continue to work on a part-time basis. Homemakers were found to be the least often involved in doing volunteer work of the four categories; their rate was 18%. For the entire sample, Chambre mentioned that there was fairly equal participation by adults who are still employed and those who are fully retired. There was a significantly higher level of participation by the semi-retired in all of the age categories. Age categories in her study were 60 to 64; 65 to 69; 70 to 79; and 80 and over. When

volunteers were retired, but continued to work on a part-time basis, the volunteer level was significantly incresed.

Research Studies Related to Older Adult Volunteers

Numerous research studies, papers, and documentaries have described a wide spectrum of programs that are successfully involving older adults in community service, church-related, and educational activities. Research indicates that older adults are successful in a multitude of productive volunteer roles. Examples of some of the types of volunteer activities in which older adults are involved and factors related to that involvement are presented in this section.

Outcomes for Older Adult Volunteers in Other Organizations

Skoglund (1986) cited that health, activity level with friends, employment, and volunteer work were all significantly related to life satisfaction for 140 elderly adults. Health, activity level, employment, income, and volunteer work were all inversely related to depression. Activity level earlier in life was significantly related to current level of activity. Level of depression was related to self-perceived need for personal counseling.

The employment and volunteering roles for 180 elderly adults was the subject of a study conducted by Cohen-Mansfield in 1989. She reported that 81% of the volunteers committed themselves to volunteering at least once a week,

whereas only 15.4% volunteered every day. Over half of these volunteers were involved in direct caregiving or helping individuals, 14% did organizational work in volunteer organizations, and 11% were involved in civil defense. The rest were either volunteering in their previous place of employment or involved in other types of activities. Those employed and those volunteering characterized themselves as either satisfied or very satisfied with their work and volunteering. Workers were found to be significantly more satisfied with their lives than nonworkers. The volunteers had a significantly higher degree of life satisfaction than nonvolunteers. Although volunteers and nonvolunteers did not differ on their health ratings of auditory, visual, and mobility problems, nonvolunteers did more often complain of pain. This finding can be explained by complementary cause-and-effect relationships: either volunteers attend less to their symptoms and are therefore generally more satisfied, or volunteering indirectly improves general well-being, including health, or pain hinders people from volunteering and also causes them to be less satisfied with their lives in general (Cohen-Mansfield, 1989). The results indicated that working is attributed primarily to financial reasons, whereas volunteering is primarily attributed to altruism.

Cutler (1976) studied membership in different types of voluntary associations and psychological well-being in later

life for 438 respondents. He found that among older adults, psychological well-being does not appear to be related to membership in most types of volunteer associations. Memberships in church-affiliated associations, while statistically significant, accounted for only a small proportion of the variance in the measures of psychological well-being. Cutler mentioned that it is possible that older people who belong to church or religious groups are more actively involved than older members of other types of associations.

Ozawa and Morrow-Howell (1988) conducted a study on services provided by elderly volunteers. They contended that elderly volunteers prefer activities involving socializing and reassuring to other types of volunteer services. Their tasks included helping with physical and personal care, making referrals, and providing transportation. The researchers further contended that it is the level of perceived health rather than the level of physical functioning that significantly determines how much time elderly volunteers spend visiting with team members and whether they go beyond providing socializing and reassuring services and engage in instrumental services. Two variables that made a significant difference in determining whether or not elderly volunteers became providers of instrumental services were high educational levels and limiting the number of elderly persons served to small numbers.

Todd, Davis, and Cafferty (1984) explored the question of who volunteers for adult developmental research. They found that although young and middle-aged black and white females volunteered significantly more readily than males in the same age categories, among the 60- to 80-year-olds this differential disappeared. There are no systematic data to explain this change; however, unsystematic interviews with elderly females suggested that both fear of strangers and uncertainty about how their lives would be evaluated by psychological researchers deterred many from taking part. They cited that the most powerful determinant of volunteering was one's position in the agency or company hierarchy. The managerial or supervisory employees in both the university and the insurance company offered to participate at a significantly higher rate than clerical or custodial employees.

Donahoo (1986) designed a descriptive research thesis involving 299 older adult volunteers participating in the Retired Seniors Volunteer Program in Oklahoma. The respondents were predominately females (84%), aged 65 to 79, who were full-time homemakers. The largest occupational group of those who had been employed was the service area (postal, telephone, and others). Results indicated that a high percentage of those volunteers who were living with their children were more likely to volunteer "to have something to do" and "to enjoy the company of other volunteers," whereas

volunteers living with a spouse were more likely to volunteer "to be of help to other people." Most of the volunteer activities included making lap robes, working at the hospital gift shop and information desk, and working at the Senior Citizens' Center. Church and religious work was statistically related to more of the variables than any other type of volunteer work. Church volunteers were more likely to be single, male, in excellent health, a college graduate, and in upper income categories. The main factors which were statistically significant with the enjoyment of volunteering were the work itself and recognition for work.

Older Adult Volunteers in Youth Development

Murphy and Florio (1978) gave a descriptive report of a wide spectrum of successful programs using older adults in educational roles. Called Expanded Horizons, the program was designed to identify and recruit older adults as 4-H club volunteers and bring them together with interested young 4-H members. From September 1975 through April 1976, extension agents and program assistants recruited 763 older adults. In that period the older adult volunteers assisted over 7,500 4-H club members. Once recruited, the older adults worked with the young people in a variety of ways: some gave historical talks on how things used to be; others led small groups or directed 4-H activities. Some came to

club meetings and demonstrated their talents and crafts. Still others took pictures, kept records, and led singing. Everybody benefited from the experience. The young members gained knowledge and skills, old crafts were revived, and the older adult volunteers, through this new relationship with the young, found a fresh outlook on life. Murphy and Florio (1978) indicated that extension agents were surprised at the youths' enthusiasm for quilting, county history, old-time music, and dance. They were impressed by the number of older adults willing to contribute their abundant knowledge and skills if they were properly approached.

Intergenerational programs using five different delivery systems were discussed by Freedman (1988) in a documentary entitled "Partners in Growth." The entire program involved 47 pairs of older adults and youths. One of the programs was Teen Moms of Portland, Maine. The focus of this teen parenting program was on preventing child abuse by contacting teenage mothers early and providing long-term support. Older females were matched with teenagers prior to the birth of their child and remained in constant touch as long as help was needed. The volunteers visited the young mother's home one day a week. Friendship, counseling, and training in life skills were provided. The volunteers indicated that they were meeting their own needs through providing the kind of attention, help, and caring the girls craved. Beyond

simply getting out of the house and earning volunteer stipends, relationships with young females offered the older adults the chance to pass on skills developed over a lifetime. The role also provided the older adults with a challenge: helping young people change their lives. Both the volunteers and the teens were of low-income status.

A study conducted by Carney, Dobson, and Dobson in 1987 discussed older volunteers in the school. Participants were 15 senior citizens, 140 students, and 6 homeroom teachers in a rural elementary school. Data revealed a significant increase in mean self-concept scores for children in Grades 4 and 5. Mean self-concept scores in all three grades were higher when compared to the normative group. Qualitative information from teachers indicated that they believed the children's self-concepts were improved. They based this belief on a decrease in discipline reports from previous years and their day-to-day interactions with the children. Selected "grandparent" statements reflected their evaluations: "I feel that my association with the children and with the teachers has been a valuable experience for me." "Being able to be a part of a program that you feel will be a help to everyone concerned makes me feel mighty good." "I count being asked to help as a great privilege" (p. 141). It was reported that every "grandparent" continued to serve as a volunteer in the homeroom after this initial evaluation. One older adult volunteer was hired as a full-time aide.

Dunkle and Mikelthum (1983) studied intergenerational programming of an "adopt-a-grandparent" program in a retirement community. The adult volunteers were female, married, parents, and grandparents. Their age ranged from 65 to 96. A total of 49 adults and 40 youths were involved in this program over a period of 3 years. Activities included exercises, bingo, parties, a magic show, and an end-of-the-year potluck picnic. Parents were asked to evaluate what they felt their child had learned from this experience. They found that the children had learned they could have fun with older adults, that older adults are significantly interested in youths, and that older adults often participate in significantly fewer activities than they do. One parent reported that her child learned he will not be young forever. The researchers confirmed that the main significant reason the volunteers participated in the program was to be involved with young people.

Summary

A variety of motives, incentives, disincentives, and demographic characteristics influence not only the decision to participate in volunteer activities but also the type of volunteer activities chosen. No one theory was found that satisfactorily related the wide variety of factors into a comprehensive model to explain what motives, incentives, and disincentives are salient to older adult volunteers.

Therefore, concepts from several theories were used to develop the model for this study to explore older adult volunteerism. The expectancy theory (Atkinson & Vroom, 1982) and motives theory (Atkinson & McClelland, 1978) served as the basis for the model used in this study. The expectancy theory states that felt needs or motives are related to behavior (worker, volunteer, or participant) when an individual perceives a positive relationship between effort and performance. According to Atkinson and McClelland's motive theory, individuals volunteer in hopes of filling power, achievement, and affiliation needs to varying degrees.

Another aspect of the model is related to incentives. The definition of incentives for volunteerism used in this study came from Smith (1972) and includes solidarity, tangible, and purposive rewards. Solidarity incentives are defined as interpersonal rewards such as fellowship. Tangible incentives are goods, services, money, or equivalents. Purposive incentives include intrinsic, intangible satisfactions that result from feeling one is a means to some valued end.

A third component studied is disincentives, which discourage some older adults from some volunteer activities, or limit their volunteer involvement. Disincentives such as lack of transportation, skills, energy, companions, and feeling unappreciated are experienced by some older adults.

Using an adapted scale from the writings of McGuire (1983), disincentives for volunteers in youth development and other activities were identified.

Demographic characteristics such as parental status, volunteer activity, and preference for volunteer group as well as age, income, race, and gender have been shown to influence the decision to volunteer (Chambre, 1987, Henderson, 1979; Hiller, 1983; Rohs, 1982). The fourth component of the model used in this study is demographic characteristics.

Using the expectancy theory, a model was adapted to illustrate various factors that influence an older adult's decision to volunteer for youth development or other activities. A schematic sketch of this model is presented in Figure 2. In this model the demographic characteristics influence the motives, incentives, and disincentives; the motives influence the incentives; and the incentives influence the disincentives. The demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives influence the decision of older adults to volunteer for youth development or other organizations.

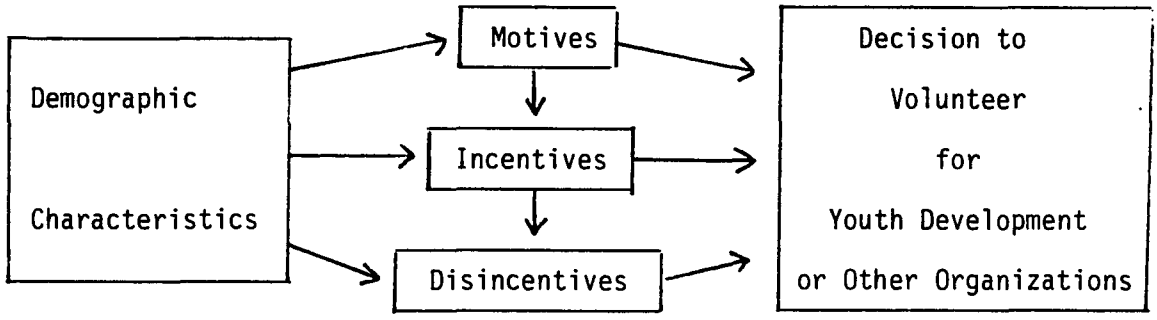

Figure 2. Diagram of factors influenicng the decision to volunteer for youth development or other organizations.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to identify factors which influence older individuals to volunteer for youth development and other organizations. In addition, the demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations were compared. In this chapter, the design of the study, the sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis are discussed.

Design of the Study

This study was ex post facto in design, consisting of two groups. One group of subjects was older adult volunteers from youth development programs and the second group included older adult volunteers from other organizations not related to youth. The volunteers were randomly selected from lists made available from youth development and other organizations. The volunteers were active in 1989 and the spring of 1990 and had a minimum educational level of high school, so that they would not experience difficulty in understanding the questionnaire.

Sampling Procedure

The population for this study consisted of adults, aged 50 and older, who were volunteers in Guilford, Forsyth, and neighboring counties in the year of 1989 and the spring of 1990. The cities of Greensboro, High Point, and Winston-Salem, major cities in the Piedmont, are located in Guilford and Forsyth Counties. These counties were selected because in 1975 Guilford County was the second largest county of residence for persons aged 65 and older in this state; Forsyth County followed as the third largest county (Birdsall, Hallman, & Kapec, 1979). This trend of growth in the elderly population in the Piedmont is expected to continue.

Two groups were selected for this study: one group of volunteers from youth development programs, and one group of volunteers from other organizations. The other organizations' volunteers were from the Voluntary Action Center and the Retired Senior Volunteer Program. The Voluntary Action Center coordinates volunteer placement for teens and adults of all ages in a variety of volunteer positions, whereas the Retired Senior Volunteer Program coordinates volunteer placement for adults age 60 and over in a variety of volunteer positions. Older adult volunteers for the 4-H programs, the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, and the Foster Grandparent programs in the Piedmont served as the population for the youth development group. Foster Grandparent program, 4-H, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts are youth development agencies that

design, promote, and implement experiential learning activities for youth. Since many of the volunteers with youth development agencies were younger than the age desired for the sample population, four youth agencies were used to ensure the desired number of volunteers. Each agency has at least two locations in the Piedmont. Each list obtained from the voluntary agencies included the name, address, race, age, gender, and educational level of each volunteer.

A list of 139 names was compiled for youth development volunteers and 207 names for other organizations; each of these lists were divided by race and gender into four groups--White females, Black females, White males, and Black males. All the Black males (10) and White males (20) in the youth development group were included in the sample because the number was small. A proportionate random sample was selected from the females from both lists. A total of 200 individuals was selected for the study: 100 volunteers from the Voluntary Action Center and Retired Senior Volunteer Programs and 100 youth development volunteers from the 4-H Clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Foster Grandparent program.

Instrumentation

The survey method of data collection was selected for this research because it provides a cost-effective, systematic data collection process. The questionnaire survey

method is a preferred tool to use with heterogeneous samples and presents a high probability that social desirability bias can be avoided (Dillman, 1978). The questionnaire used in this study consisted of closed-ended questions and was divided into four sections: motives, incentives, disincentives, and demographic characteristics (Appendix A).

The motive section of the questionnaire was developed, tested, and refined by Henderson (1979) and Hiller (1986). Their studies were designed to identify the motivations of 4-H youth development volunteers. There were 27 statements describing the motives: 9 statements for achievement, 9 statements for affiliation, and 9 statements for power. Examples of the achievement statements include: enjoy using skills performed well, want to improve my community, and think volunteering is a constructive use of my leisure time. Enjoy helping people, meeting and working with other volunteers, and enjoy the warmth and friendliness of the group are examples of affiliation statements. Power statement examples were: enjoy getting away from routine activities, want to teach and lead others, and want to influence action that is relevant in society.

A five-choice Likert scale was chosen by Hiller (1986) to measure the intensity and direction of agreement related to the motives indicated in the statements. The 27 statements in the study regarding motives were written as positive

statements. The range of scores for each statement were on an inverse continuum with the higher scores indicating agreement with the motive indicated by the statement. A score of 5 was given for a response of strongly agree, 4 for agree, 3 for neutral, 2 for disagree, and 1 for strongly disagree. The reliability estimates for the motives reported by Henderson (1979) were as follows: achievemnet, .77; affiliation, .81; and power, .79. The internal consistency reliability estimates for this study using the Cronbach's Alpha procedure were achievement, .79; affiliation, .66; and power, .76.

The incentives section of the questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on a study by Cate, Loyd, Henton, and Larson (1982) and definitions which were stated by Smith (1972) of incentives for volunteerism. Solidarity incentives are defined as interpersonal rewards such as fellowship, friendship, prestige, and similar positive outcomes from personal relationships. Purposive incentives are intrinsic, intangible satisfactions that result from feeling one is being a means to some valued goal, such as the chance to help others, and making a significant contribution to society. Tangible incentives are goods, services, money, and equivalents such as lunch and transportation stipends. These definitions were employed in selecting items for the incentive scale used in this study. The 15-item scale included 5 statements describing each incentive. A five-point scale

was used to measure the intensity of preference related to incentives. The possible responses were extremely unrewarding, unrewarding, somewhat rewarding, rewarding, and extremely rewarding. The range of scores for each of the 15 statements was on an inverse continuum with the higher scores indicating a strong preference for the incentive described by the statement. Scores ranged from five for a response of extremely rewarding to one for a response of extremely unrewarding. The internal consistency reliability estimates for this study using the Cronbach's Alpha procedure were solidarity, .77; purposive, .75; and tangible, .82. The specific questions related to the measurement of each motive and incentive are found in Appendix B.

The third section was concerned with disincentives to volunteerism. The survey questionnaire developed in a study by McGuire (1983) was used to identify factors associated with disincentives to volunteerism. A three-point scale was used to respond to the 25 statements of disincentives with the possible responses as follows: very important, 3; somewhat important, 2; and not important, 1. High scores indicated a very important constraint to volunteer involvement.

Eleven questions designed to obtain demographic information were also included in the questionnaire. These related to gender, race, marital status, years of education beyond high school, educational attainment, income, employment

status, parental status, volunteer activity, preference of volunteer group, and age.

Following development of the questionnaire, the content was examined by two older adult volunteer program specialists, two volunteer coordinators experienced with volunteer management, a specialist in aging, and two youth development specialists to assess content validity. After necessary revisions, a pretest of the instrument was conducted with a small group of older adult volunteers at the St. Benedict Fellowship Luncheon Site, who were representative of the sample, but were not a part of the sample. The instrument was found to be clear to the older adult volunteers.

In the preparation of the instrument for mailing, a professional printing company increased the print to fit on a standard 8" x 11" page. Peterson (1987) asserted that adults aged 55 and older may experience physical changes that may result in a need for greater visual stimulation. With this in mind, the questionnaire was printed in bold, larger-than-average print (size 13) for ease of reading. Colors that are more vivid to the older adult due to physical changes in the lens of the eye are red, yellow, and orange. The yellow paper used for printing was selected with this in mind.

Data Collection

The data collection procedures for this study were implemented in July and August of 1990. A mail questionnaire was sent to each volunteer selected for the sample with a cover letter signed by the researcher and a representative of the volunteer agency with which the volunteers were affiliated. A self-addressed, stamped, return envelope was also included. The cover letter included a statement of the problem that prompted the study, an explanation of the study, a request for participation, a promise of confidentiality, coding procedures, and a statement of appreciation (Appendix C). As an incentive for prompt and complete questionnarie returns, the name of each participant who returned the completed questionnaire within a week was put in the competition for a cash drawing of $25. The questionnaire was number coded to aid in follow-up procedures.

Two weeks after the original mailing, a follow-up postcard was sent to 89 volunteers who had not returned the questionnaire (Appendix C). The volunteers were reminded of the study and its purpose and the importance of each individual's response. An appeal for the return of the questionnaire was also included. A second follow-up was conducted 2 weeks later with a letter of appeal for response and a second copy of the instrument being sent to the 47 volunteers who had not yet returned their questionnaire. The data collection procedures were concluded by late August.

Data Analysis

The returned questionnaires were examined for completeness by the researcher. Data management techniques and statistical analysis such as frequencies and cross-tabulations were used to verify that the data were free of error. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, and disincentives of the youth development and other organizations volunteers. Chi-square analyses were used to determine differences in motives and incentives for the two groups as well as examining the relationship between motives and incentives of youth development and other organizations volunteers. A principal components factor analysis was performed on the disincentives data. T-tests and correlations were used to analyze differences in disincentives for older adult volunteers according to race, gender, employment status, and age. The level of significance selected was $p \leq .05$. Statistical consultation and programming for this research was provided by the Statistical Consulting Center in the Department of Mathematics at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the demographic characteristics, motives, incentives, disincentives, and the relationship of motives and incentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations. An additional purpose was to explore the relationship of the age, race, gender, and employment status to older adult volunteer disincentives. The sample selected for this study were older adult volunteers in the Piedmont area of North Carolina who were affiliated with the Voluntary Action Center, the Retired Senior Volunteer Program, 4-, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and the Foster Grandparent Program. The data were obtained through use of questionnaires sent to a proportionate stratified random sample of older adult volunteers. An 81% response rate was obtained with 163 cases used in the data analysis; 83 respondents were from youth development organizations and 80 respondents were from other organizations.

This chapter presents a description of the respondents and reports tests of the five hypotheses of the study. The chapter is presented in seven parts: (a) description of the youth development and other organizations' respondents,

(b) motives of volunteers for youth development and other organizations, (c) incentives of volunteers for youth development and other organizations, (d) relationship between motives and type of incentives preferred by youth development and other organization volunteers, (e) disincentives of youth development and other organizations, (f) the differences in disincentives according to age, race, gender, and employment status of older adult volunteers, and (g) a discussion of the findings. The chapter concludes with the implications of this study.

Description of the Respondents

Frequencies and percentages were used to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents. As evident in Table 1, the numbers of females volunteering for youth development activities outnumbered the males by more than 2 to 1. However, the number of female and male volunteers for the other organizations was nearly equal (51.3% vs. 48.8%). Race was classified into three groups: Black, White, and Other. Although there were more Whites for both groups, there was a higher percentage of Blacks volunteering for youth development than for other organizations.

Classifications used for marital status were married, single, divorced, and widowed. Almost three-fourths of the youth development volunteer respondents were married, whereas only 60% of the volunteers for the other organizations were

Table 1

Distribution of Gender, Race, Age, and Marital Status of Youth Development and Other Organizations' Volunteers

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Gender				
Female	58	69.9	41	51.3
Male	25	30.1	39	48.8
Race				
Black	34	41.0	25	31.3
White	48	57.8	54	67.5
Other	1	1.2	1	1.3
Marital Status				
Married	62	74.7	48	60.0
Single	2	2.4	4	5.0
Divorced	9	10.8	9	11.3
Widowed	10	12.0	19	23.8
Age				
50-54	27	32.5	6	7.5
55-59	21	25.3	5	6.3
60-64	19	22.9	15	18.8
65-69	9	10.8	17	21.3
70-74	3	3.6	19	23.8
75-79	3	3.6	13	16.3
80 and over	1	1.2	5	6.3

married. There were nearly twice as many widowed respondents in the other organizations' volunteer group as in the youth development group (23.8% vs. 12%). Few volunteers in either group were single.

Most (80.7%) of the youth development volunteer respondents were under age 65. The opposite was true for the other organizations' volunteer respondents; 32.6% were under age 65 and 67.7% were over age 65.

All volunteers in this study were high school graduates. Similar numbers of youth development respondents completed 0-3 and 4-7 years of education beyond high school (YRSED). However, there were more respondents in the 0-3 years category than in the 4-7 years of educational attainment above high school for the volunteers in other organizations. Less than 10% of the respondents for both groups had 8 or more years of education beyond high school.

The respondents were well educated as is revealed in Table 2. Of the youth development volunteers, 44.6% had a high school diploma, whereas 52.5% of the other organizations' volunteers were high school graduates. Almost equal percentages of the youth development and other organizations' volunteer respondents completed bachelor's or graduate degrees. Associate degrees represented the smallest percentages of volunteers for youth development and other organizations' volunteers.

Table 2

Educational, Income, and Employment Status of Youth Development and Other Organizations' Volunteers

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Variable	N	%	N	%
YRSED				
0-3 years	40	48.1	47	58.9
4-7 years	37	44.6	28	35.2
8 and over	6	7.2	5	6.3
Degree				
High School Diploma	37	44.6	42	52.5
Bachelor's Degree	20	24.1	17	21.3
Associate or Certificate	6	7.2	5	6.3
Graduate Degree	20	24.1	16	20.0
Income				
Less than $14,999	13	15.7	13	16.3
$15,000-$24,999	17	20.5	28	35.0
$25,000-$39,999	23	27.7	17	21.3
Over $40,000	30	36.1	22	27.5
Employment Status				
Employed Full-Time	31	37.3	6	7.5
Employed Part-Time	14	16.9	2	2.5
Retired	25	30.1	68	85.0
Homemaker	12	14.5	3	3.8
Unemployed	1	1.2	1	1.3

Income level was classified into four groups. More of the youth development volunteer respondents had incomes over $25,000 than did the other organizations' volunteer respondents (63.8% vs. 48.8%). The largest percentage of respondents from the other organizations had incomes from $15,000-$24,999 (35.0%).

Employment status was classified into five categories. Slightly more of the youth development volunteer respondents were employed full-time than were retired (37.3% vs. 30.1%). Most (85.0%) of the other organizations' volunteer respondents were retired. Volunteer respondents that were homemakers were more likely to volunteer for youth development than for other organizations (14.5% vs. 3.8%).

Almost all (90.0%) of both youth development and other organizations' volunteer respondents were parents. Responses to the question about what type of group they wanted to work with in their volunteer roles are summarized in Table 3. Preferences of youth development volunteers were no preference, 28.9%; youth aged 13-17, 18.12%; mixed age groups, 16.9%; and youth aged 8-12, 14.5%. The least preferred category was adults aged 49 and under. The other organizations' volunteer respondents group preference was also highest for no preference, 35.0%; followed by adults about my age, 33.8%; and mixed age groups (20.0%). Little preference was shown for adults under 49 and in any of the categories

Table 3

Distribution of Group Preference and Parental Status of Youth Development and Other Organizations' Volunteers

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Group preference				
Adults about my age	6	7.2	27	33.8
Adults 49 and under	2	2.4	1	1.3
Youth aged 13-17	15	18.1	1	1.3
Youth aged 8-12	12	14.5	3	3.8
Youth aged 7 and under	5	6.0	2	2.5
Handicapped individuals	5	6.0	2	2.5
Mixed groups	14	20.0	16	20.0
No preference	24	28.9	28	35.0
Parental Status				
yes	76	91.6	72	90.0
no	7	8.4	8	10.0

involving youth. When age preferences were made, youth development volunteer respondents preferred their voluntary activities involving youth or intergenerational activities, whereas the other organizations' volunteers preferred working with adults about their same age or with mixed groups.

When asked about their main voluntary activity, youth development respondents listed 4-H and agriculture, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, public schools, youth advisory committees, and tutorial progarms. The other organizations' volunteer activities included mobile meals and volunteer drivers, church activities, hospitals and health services, fellowship luncheons, and serving as telephone visitors.

Affiliation, Achievement, and Power Motives

The three types of motives identified for use in this study were affiliation, achievement, and power. An affiliation motive is that which influences one to be most concerned about his or her relationships with others. Achievement motives are those factors which influence one to take pride in accomplishment and a desire for excellence. Power motives were defined as needs which indicate a desire for influence and control in a volunteer setting. Each of the 27 questions related to motives was categorized according to Henderson's study and scored as to whether it measured the affiliation, achievement, or power motive; nine statements were related to each motive. Affiliation, achievement,

and power scores were calculated for each person. On the basis of these scores, each respondent was assigned to one category of motives based on their highest score.

The frequency distribution shown in Table 4 illustrates the number of persons whose highest score placed them in each of the three categories of motives. Categories including combinations of motives resulted when the volunteers' scores were the same for two or more motives. Among the youth development volunteers, the largest percentage of respondents were categorized as motivated by achievement, followed by affiliation; very few were motivated by power. The other organizations' volunteers were categorized almost equally as being motivated by achievement and affiliation.

In Table 5 the percentages of responses for the nine achievement motive statements are shown for volunteers of youth development and other organizations. "Strongly disagree" and "disagree" categories were combined, as were "strongly agree" and "agree." More than 70% of the volunteers for youth development and other organizations identified the statements "enjoy using skills I perform well," "think it is a constructive use of my leisure time," "enjoy learning new things," "want to improve my community," and "like the challenge it offers" as motives for volunteering. The statement "want to be involved in an important cause" was a more salient motive for volunteers for youth

Table 4

Distribution of Scores of Affiliation, Achievement, and Power Motives for Youth Development and Other Organizations' Volunteers

Motives	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
	N	%	N	%
Affiliation	26	31.3	34	42.5
Achievement	34	41.0	33	41.3
Power	3	3.6	1	1.3
Affil/Achiev	9	10.8	9	11.3
Power/Affil	6	7.2	2	2.5
Achiev/Power	2	2.4	1	1.3
Power/Affil/Achiev	3	3.6	--------	

Table 5

Percentages of Responses to Achievement Motive Statements of Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
I am a volunteer because I:						
15. enjoy using skills I perform well.	95.2	77.5	4.8	20.0	--	2.5
19. enjoy learning new things.	87.9	81.8	8.4	15.0	3.6	3.8
21. want to improve my community.	86.7	76.3	10.8	20.0	2.4	3.8
13. think it is a constructive use of my leisure time.	85.5	92.6	9.6	6.3	4.8	1.0
12. like the challenge it offers.	83.1	71.3	14.5	23.8	2.4	5.2
23. want to be involved in an important cause.	78.3	55.1	15.7	36.3	9.6	8.8
5. like to receive feedback about how I'm doing.	60.2	53.6	22.9	36.3	16.8	10.1
26. can reach my personal goals.	54.2	44.8	28.9	35.0	16.9	20.1
4. want to acquire training which might lead to increased responsibilities.	49.4	33.8	27.7	33.8	22.9	32.8

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

development than for other organizations (78.3% vs. 55.1%). The statement with which the fewest volunteers for both groups agreed was "want to acquire training which might lead to increased responsibilities."

In Table 6 the percentages of responses to affiliation motive statements for volunteers of youth development and other organizations are given. High percentages of volunteers for both groups identified affiliation motive statements as important. The youth development percentages for agreement ranged from 86.7% to 97.5%, whereas the other organizations' range was 85.1% to 96.6% for the following items: "I enjoy helping people," "enjoy meeting and working with other volunteers," "enjoy the warmth and friendliness of my group," and "can express my caring and concern for others." The volunteers for youth development identified the statement "want to spend time with youth" as an incentive much more frequently than did volunteers for other organizations (85.5% vs. 33.8%). The statement with which the fewest youth development volunteers agreed was "enjoy activities with very little structure," whereas "can't say no when I'm asked" was the statement agreed with the least for the other organizations' volunteers.

In Table 7 it is evident that the extent of agreement with statements reflecting the power motive was considerably less than for statements related to achievement and

Table 6

Percentages of Responses to Affiliation Motive Statements of Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
I am a volunteer because I:						
1. enjoy helping people.	97.5	96.6	1.3	2.4	1.3	--
11. enjoy meeting and working with other volunteers.	89.1	82.6	9.6	15.0	1.2	2.5
17. enjoy the warmth and friendliness of my group.	88.0	85.1	10.8	12.5	1.2	2.6
24. can express my caring and concern for others.	86.7	86.3	10.8	13.8	2.4	--
6. want to spend time with youth.	85.5	33.8	12.0	47.5	2.4	18.8
16. like feeling needed in the program.	79.5	78.8	19.3	20.0	1.2	1.3
7. like to work with groups of people rather than work alone.	71.1	61.3	23.0	27.5	6.0	11.2
22. can't say "no" when I'm asked.	38.5	23.8	28.9	20.0	32.6	56.3
9. enjoy activities with very little structure.	22.6	32.6	30.1	40.0	47.0	27.5

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

Table 7

Percentages of Responses to Power Motive Statements of Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Agree		Neutral		Disdagree	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
I am a volunteer because I:						
18. enjoy getting away from routine activities.	75.9	68.8	20.5	12.5	3.6	2.6
3. want to teach and lead others.	74.7	45.0	19.3	36.3	6.0	18.8
14. like being involved in the leadership of my volunteer organization.	71.1	41.3	22.9	40.0	6.0	18.8
8. like making decisions and program planning.	65.1	41.4	24.1	38.8	10.8	20.1
20. want to influence action that is relevant in society.	62.3	55.0	25.3	33.8	2.4	11.3
25. like to be responsible for my organization's programs.	42.1	41.3	41.0	36.3	16.9	22.6
27. like to receive recognition for being a volunteer.	33.5	23.8	32.5	38.8	34.9	37.5
2. want to have influence over others	30.1	17.5	26.5	38.8	43.4	43.8
10. receive status in my community as a volunteer.	27.7	21.3	37.3	42.5	35.0	26.3

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

affiliation. The percentages of volunteers in youth development agreeing with the statements ranged from 27.2% to 75.9%, whereas the other organizations' percentages for agreement ranged from 21.3% to 68.8%. The power motive statement with the highest percentage of agreement for both youth development and other organization respondents was "enjoy getting away from routine activities." Youth development volunteers were considerably more interested in teaching and leading others, being involved in the leadership of their volunteer organization, and wanting to have influence over others than were the other organizations' volunteers. The other organizations' volunteers were not as interested in making decisions and program planning as the youth development volunteers. The power motive with the lowest percentage of agreement for both groups was receiving status in their community for being a volunteer.

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis for this research was tested to determine if there was a difference in the type of motive salient for volunteers for youth development and other organizations. The categories used for motives in the chi-square analysis were affiliation, achievement, and achievement/affiliation. The power motives was not used because the number of cases for power was too small. There was no significant difference in the motives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations,

x^2 (2) = .75, p = .69 (see Appendix D, Table D-1). Thus, the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the type of motive meaningful to youth development and other volunteers was not rejected.

Solidarity, Purposive, and Tangible Incentives

The three types of incentives related to volunteerism used in this study were solidarity, purposive, and tangible. Solidarity incentives are interpersonal rewards such as fellowship, friendship, prestige, and similar positive outcomes from personal relationships. Purposive incentives are those satisfactions which result from feeling one is being a means to some valued end or helping to achieve some valued goal or purpose. Tangible rewards are goods, services, money, or equivalents, such as transportation and lunch stipends.

Each of the 15 statements related to incentives was categorized as to whether they measured solidarity, purposive, or tangible incentives. Each incentive had five statements related to it. Total scores by incentive were calculated for each respondent.

A frequency distribution shown in Table 8 shows the number of persons with their highest score in each of the three incentives. The incentive most meaningful to both groups was purposive, with 73.5% of youth development and 86.3% of other organizations' volunteer respondents falling

Table 8

Distribution of Incentives for Volunteers from Youth Development and Other Organizations

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Incentives	N	%	N	%
Purposive	61	73.5	69	86.3
Solidarity	5	6.0	7	8.8
Tangible	1	1.2	--	--
Solid/purposive	6	7.2	3	3.8
Solid/tang	3	3.6	1	1.3
Purposive/tang	2	2.4	--	--
Solid/tang/purposive	5	6.0	--	--

into this category. Less than 10.0% of the respondents in both groups rated solidarity incentives the most rewarding, and very few of the volunteers desired tangible incentives. Almost one-fifth of the youth development volunteers fell into combination categories, whereas only 5.1% of the other organizations' volunteers were categorized in this way.

Table 9 illustrates that among the volunteers for youth development, 88% to 90% rated each statement related to the purposive incentive rewarding, whereas the range for the other organizations' respondents was 71% to 93%. The youth development respondents identified the opportunity to help their organization, receiving satisfaction from the volunteer job, the chance to help others, making a significant contribution to society, and feeling their involvement is making a difference in their community as the most rewarding incentives. The chance to help others and receiving satisfaction from the volunteer job were the incentives that the other organizations' respondents identified as rewarding to them. Although it was rewarding for both groups, the youth development respondents rated making a significant contribution to society and the opportunity to help their organization more rewarding than did the other organizations' respondents (89.1% vs. 71.3%, 90.1% vs. 71.3%, respectively).

More variability occurred in responses to incentives within the solidarity category than within the purposive category (Table 9). Much higher percentages of both youth

Table 9

Percentages of Responses to Purposive and Solidarity Incentive Statements for Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Rewarding		Somewhat Rewarding		Unrewarding	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
Purposive						
How important is it to you that your volunteer work provide the following rewards as incentives:						
4. the opportunity to help my organization.	90.1	71.3	8.4	21.3	1.2	7.5
8. receiving satisfaction from the volunteer job.	89.2	85.0	9.6	13.8	1.2	1.3
10. the chance to help others.	89.1	93.3	9.6	5.0	1.2	1.3
2. making a significant contribution to society.	89.1	71.3	9.6	23.8	1.2	5.0
13. involvement is makikng a difference in my community.	88.0	78.7	10.8	18.8	1.2	2.6
Solidarity						
3. interacting with others.	81.9	70.5	15.7	28.8	2.4	3.8
11. being a member of a team.	74.5	63.8	19.3	21.3	7.2	15.1
5. making friends.	74.4	76.3	13.3	20.0	2.4	3.8
1. Distinguished Service awards.	45.7	22.6	39.8	51.0	14.4	26.3
14. the status associated with volunteering for the organization.	42.1	27.6	31.3	42.5	26.5	30.0

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

development and other organizations' volunteers identified interacting with others, making friends, and being a member of a team as salient solidarity incentives than distinguished service awards and the status associated with volunteering. Although distinguished service awards and status of volunteering were not as salient as the other incentives for either group, they were rewarding to almost twice as many of the youth development respondents as to the other organizations' respondents.

Respondents rated tangible incentives less rewarding than purposive and solidarity incentives as shown in Table 10. Training sessions, seminars, or conferences was the tangible incentive rated as rewarding by the largest percentage of volunteers in both groups; however, almost twice as many youth development volunteer respondents as other organizations' respondents found it rewarding (74.7% vs. 40.0%). Lunch stipends and reimbursement for training and other expenses were the least rewarding incentive for volunteers for both groups. Pins, plaques, and certificates were somewhat rewarding for both groups of volunteer respondents, but more rewarding for youth development volunteer respondents than for the other organizations.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis tested for this research was whether or not there was a difference in the type of incentive meaningful to volunteers from youth

Table 10

Percentages of Responses to Tangible Incentive Statements of Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Rewarding		Somewhat Rewarding		Unrewarding	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
6. training sessions, seminars, or conferences.	74.7	40.0	14.5	43.8	10.8	16.3
7. pins, plaques, and certificates.	42.1	28.8	42.1	43.8	15.5	27.6
9. transportation stipends.	31.1	21.3	27.7	41.3	41.0	37.6
15. reimbursement for training and other expenses.	27.7	15.1	28.9	35.0	43.2	50.1
12. lunch stipends.	27.7	18.8	31.3	42.5	44.6	38.8

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

development and other organizations. Chi-square was used to test for differences in incentives between the volunteers for youth development and other organizations. The categories used for incentives in the chi-square analysis were purposive and solidarity. The tangible incentive was not used because there was only one case in the youth development and no cases in the other organization volunteer groups. There was no significant difference in the incentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizaions, x^2 (1) = .12, p = .73 (see Table D-2 in Appendix D). Thus, the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the type of incentive meaningful to youth development and other volunteers was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3. Two chi-square tests were used to examine the relationship between the type of motive (achievement, affiliation, and power) and the type of incentive (purposive, solidarity, and tangible) for youth development volunteers and for the other organizations' volunteers. Neither the youth development chi-square nor the other organizations' chi-square was significant at the .05 level, x^2 (2) = .26, p = .14; x^2 (2) = .26, p = .88, respectively. (See Table D-3 in Appendix D). However, as reflected by the Cramer's V statistic, there was a stronger relationship between the motives and incentives for youth development volunteers (.27) than for the other organizations' volunteers (.06). Thus,

the hypothesis stating that there is no significant relationship between the achievement, affiliation, and power motives and the purposive, solidarity, and tangible incentives was not rejected. However, as reflected by the Cramer's V statistic, which reflects the magnitude of the chi-square statistic, there was a stronger relationship between the motives and incentives for youth development volunteers (.27) than for the other organizations' volunteers (.06).

Disincentives Summary

Disincentives are impediments, constraints, or deterrents that hinder volunteers from volunteering in additional or different volunteer activities. Percentages shown in Table 11 illustrate volunteers' reported disincentives. The disincentives that were very important to the highest percentages of youth development respondents were "non-support from parents," 32.5%; "health problems," 26.5%; "unclear expectations," 24.1%; and "feeling unappreciated when volunteering," 21.7%. In the somewhat important category, 50.6% experienced lack of energy, 47% have more important things to do, and 43.4% of the respondents experienced too many expenses or were too busy with other activities. The statement that was not a disincentive to most respondents was fear of making a mistake, 85.5%.

Table 11

Degree of Importance of Disincentives Reported by Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

Statements	Very Important		Somewhat Important		Not Important	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
24. Non-support from parents.	32.5	6.3	25.3	12.5	42.2	81.3
5. Health problems.	26.5	18.8	24.1	27.5	49.4	53.8
22. Unclear expectations.	24.1	12.5	41.0	37.5	34.9	50.0
9. Feeling unappreciated when volunteering.	21.7	7.5	24.1	27.5	54.2	65.0
13. The amount of planning required for additional volunteering.	20.5	12.5	44.6	38.8	43.9	48.8
23. Inadequate volunteer training.	20.5	23.8	34.9	23.8	44.6	52.5
8. Too busy with other activities.	20.5	13.8	43.4	33.8	36.1	52.5
16. Not feeling accomplishments.	19.3	7.5	39.8	25.0	41.0	67.5
20. Lack of support of important persons.	16.9	7.5	32.5	27.5	50.6	65.0
14. Too many family responsibilities.	16.9	12.5	33.7	22.5	49.4	65.0
7. Not having needed skills.	16.9	11.3	39.8	35.0	43.4	53.8
21. Risk of liability when helping others.	15.7	7.5	41.0	33.8	43.4	58.8
2. Not having anyone to volunteer with me.	15.7	7.5	27.7	23.8	56.6	68.8

Table 11 (continued)

Statements	Very Important		Somewhat Important		Not Important	
	YD	OO	YD	OO	YD	OO
3. Having more important things to do.	12.0	10.0	47.0	40.0	41.0	50.0
1. There are too many expenses involved.	12.0	6.3	43.4	28.8	44.6	65.0
17. Lack of transportation.	12.0	11.3	12.0	8.8	75.9	80.0
4. Lack of energy.	10.8	10.0	50.6	36.3	38.6	53.8
6. Not liking youth related activities.	8.4	7.5	19.3	22.5	72.3	70.0
15. Fear of crime.	7.2	6.3	22.9	28.8	69.9	65.0
25. Fear of demeaning assignments.	7.2	6.3	22.9	18.8	69.9	75.0
19. Not feeling comfortable with youth.	4.8	8.8	19.3	18.8	75.9	72.5
10. My friends don't volunteer.	4.8	5.0	19.3	3.8	75.9	91.3
12. Fear of getting hurt.	4.8	5.0	13.3	17.5	81.9	77.5
11. Feeling too old to learn new things.	2.4	2.5	19.3	17.5	78.3	80.0
18. Fear of making a mistake.	1.2	5.0	13.3	16.3	85.5	78.8

Note. YD=Youth Development; OO=Other Organizations.

For other organizations' volunteers the disincentives that were very important for the largest number of respondents were inadequate volunteer training, 23.8%, and too busy with other activities, 13.8%. The disincentives that were somewhat important were having more important things to do, 40.0%; the amount of planning required for additional volunteering, 38.8%; unclear expectations, 37.5%; lack of energy, 36.3%; and not having needed skills, 35.0%. Most of the respondents selected the statement "my friends don't volunteer" as the statement that was not a disincentive (91.3%), followed by non-support from parents, 81.3%.

A principal components analysis was performed on the 25 Likert-type items from the disincentives section of the Older Adult Volunteer Questionnaire to reduce the number of disincentives to a smaller number of dimensions. An oblique rotation was performed on all factors satisfying Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion to achieve a simple structure. Employing the squared multiple correlation between a given variable and the rest of the variables in the matrix as communality estimates, four factors were initially extracted. However, based on Kaiser's eigenvalue of greater than one and the scree test, it was determined that only two factors were meaningful. The intercorrelations between these factors was .32, a value that suggests the factors are not orthogonal. The four items that did not load appreciably

(.40 or higher) on any of the factors were dropped from the analysis. (See Table D-4 in Appendix D for factors and factor loadings.) Of the variance explained by the two factors, Factor 1 accounts for 83.3% of the common variation among the variables, whereas Factor 2 accounts for 16.7% of the variation.

After the disincentives were assigned to the factors with which they exhibited the closest linear relationship, the constructs were identified. Based on the nature and pattern of the laodings, Factor 1 was identified as "Risk/ Uncertainty." This factor includes items that deal with fears, risks, and uncertainties with expenses, health, training, and assignments related to volunteer activities (Table 12). High scores indicate that these items were important disincentives for volunteers. The reliability estimate using the Cronbach's Alpha procedure was .90.

Factor 2 was identified as "Time," which includes items that deal with time for other activities and family responsibilities. High scores indicate that items related to time were important disincentives for volunteers. The reliability estimate was .74. In Table 13 the disincentive items and factor loadings for Factor 2 are shown.

Hypothesis 4. The fourth hypothesis for this research was tested to determine if there was a difference in the type of disincentives affecting youth development and other

Table 12

Disincentive Items and Factor Loadings for Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty

Factor Loading	Item No.	Disincentive Item
.56	1.	There are too many expenses involved.
.38	2.	Not having anyone to volunteer with me.
.49	4.	Lack of energy.
.49	5.	Health problems.
.59	6.	Not liking youth related activities.
.53	7.	Not having needed skills.
.61	9.	Feeling unappreciated when volunteering.
.52	12.	Fear of getting hurt.
.65	15.	Fear of crime.
.58	16.	Not feeling a sense of accomplishments.
.58	17.	Lack of transportation.
.44	18.	Fear of making a mistake.
.58	19.	Not feeling comfortable with youth.
.67	20.	Lack of support of important persons.
.64	21.	Risk of liability when helping others.
.73	23.	Inadequate volunteer training.
.76	25.	Fear of demeaning assignments.

Table 13

Disincentive items and Factor Loading for Factor 2, Time

Factor Loading	Item No.	Disincentive item
.61	3.	Having more important things to do.
.73	8.	Too busy with other activities.
.71	14.	Too many family responsibilities.

organizations' volunteers. Scores from the Risk/Uncertainty and Time factors were used for this t-test analysis. The t-test for Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty was significant, t (161) = 2.02, p = .05. The mean scores were 28.3 for youth development volunteers and 25.9 for other organizations' volunteers. The higher score for youth development volunteers meant that they experienced more of the Risk/Uncertainty disincentives than did the other organizations' volunteers.

The t-test was not significant at the .05 level for Factor 2, Time, although a trend was evident, t (161) = 1.88, p = .06. The mean scores were 5.20 for youth development and 4.70 for other organizations. Thus, there is some evidence to support the idea that aspects of the Time dimension were more likely to be a disincentive for youth development than for other organizations' volunteers. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in disincentives for youth development and other organizations was rejected for Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty, and was not rejected for Factor 2, Time.

Hypothesis 5. The fifth hypothesis was tested to determine if there was a difference in disincentives according to race, sex, employment status, and age of older adult volunteers. The factor scores were used in the analyses. The categories used for race were Black and White; the

"other" category was not used because the number of cases was too small. The t-test indicated that Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty, was significant, t (159) = 2.47, p = .02; however, Factor 2, Time, was not significant, t (159) = .64, p = .52. The mean scores for Factor 1 were Blacks, 28.0, and Whites, 25.9, which meant that Blacks experience more Risk/Uncertainty disincentives than Whites. The t-test for gender indicated that neither Factor 1 nor Factor 2 scores were significantly different, t (161) = 1.51, p = .13; t (161) = -1.66, p = .10.

The categories used for employment status in the t-test were employed and not employed. The employed part-time and full-time were grouped together, as were the volunteers in the retired, unemployed, and homemaker categories. The combined categories reduced the number of variables from five to two. The t-test for Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty, was not significant, t (161) = -.31, p = .76. The t-test for Factor 2, time, however, was significant, t (161) = 2.40, p = .02. The mean score for the employed respondents was 5.43, whereas the unemployed respondents scored 4.73, which meant the employed volunteers were affected more by the Time disincentives than the unemployed volunteers.

The age reported by the respondents was used for the Pearson correlation analysis of relationship of age and disincentives. The Pearson correlation for Factor 1 was not

significant ($r = -.10$; $p = .11$); however, the correlation was significant for Factor 2, $r = -.31$; $p = .000$. The significant negative relationship between age and the Time disincentive indicates that as volunteer age increases, the importance of the time disincentives decreases. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that there is no difference in disincentives according to race, gender, employment status, and age of older adults was rejected for Factor 1 and race, and for Factor 2 and employment status and age (see Table 14).

Discussion

The females volunteering for youth development activities outnumbered the males by more than two to one. However, the number of females and males volunteering in the other organizations was nearly equal. Since most of the youth development organizations are related to informal education, this finding supports Berliner et al. (1986) who indicated that males are significantly more likely than females to volunteer in recreational and work-related activities; and females are more likely to volunteer for health, education, and religious activities. The finding for the other organizations' volunteers is similar to that of the Gallup (1988) survey, which cited that gender differences in volunteering appear to be diminishing.

The majority of the volunteer respondents from both the youth development and other organizations were married.

Table 14

P-Values for Tests for Differences in Disincentives by Race, Gender, Employment Status, and Age of Older Adult Volunteers

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2
Race	.02*	.52
Gender	.13	.10
Employment	.76	.02*
Age	.11	.00**

Note. *p <.05, **p <.001.

Chambre (1987) and Fleishman-Hillard (1987) reported that married older adults volunteered significantly more than the unmarried, which is consistent with the findings of this study.

To participate in this study, volunteers had to have a high school diploma. However, in addition, it was found that approximately half of the volunteers in both groups had college, associate, or graduate degrees. Nationally, volunteers tend to have a higher educational level than the average population, according to Hodgkinson and Weitzman (1984). Since the educational level was higher than average, it is no surprise that the income level for the majority of the volunteer respondents was $25,000 to $40,000 and over.

The employment status of the youth development volunteer respondents was mainly employed full-time, whereas the other organizations' volunteers were retired. The finding for youth development volunteers is similar to that of Chambre (1987), who reported that older adults working on a full-time or a part-time basis are more often involved in volunteering than adults who are fully retired. However, the finding of the other organizations' volunteers contradicts Chambre's (1987) report, since 85.0% of the volunteers were fully retired. One might explain this contradiction by a high educational and income level, and the concept of continuity of activities, where adults are as active in older age as they were when they were younger.

When asked about their preference of age group, the youth development volunteers selected activities involving youth, whereas the other organizations' volunteers preferred involvement with adults about their same age or mixed groups. Many older adults were interested in involvement with other adults about their same age for their voluntary activities. It could be that the interest in age-segregated activities is prevalent because of the large number of retired persons in this study. Usually, co-workers are about the same age, and the volunteers may be interested in recapturing that interaction. Another possibility could be that many older adults may feel that they have reared their own children and do not desire involvement in youth development activities.

The age range was from 50-84 for the volunteer respondents. Most (80.7%) of the youth development volunteers were under age 65, whereas two-thirds of the other organizations' volunteer respondents were over age 65. It appears that the older the adults, the less likely they are to volunteer for youth development activities. It could be that youth development organizations have not actively recruited older adults. Another possibility is that there may be an increase in the number of older adults who prefer age-segregated programs than before because of early retirement, healthier cohorts, or the changing trends in family structure.

Older adult volunteers for youth development and other organizations were found to be somewhat more motivated by achievement than affiliation; few were motivated by power. No studies were found in the literature related to older adult volunteer motives. However, Henderson (1979) studied the motives of younger adult volunteers in 4-H, a youth development organization, and cited that 4-H volunteers were significantly more motivated by affiliation than by achievement and power. Her study involved adults age 18-44, 66.0%, and 45 and over, 31.0%. The finding from this study that older adults in both youth development and other organizations are motivated by achievement disagreed with Henderson's (1979) finding that 4-H volunteers were motivated by affiliation. This difference may be due to changing volunteer and societal trends, such as using acquired skills, an interest in the constructive use of leisure time, learning new things, and a desire to improve one's community.

The incentive of choice for older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations was unquestionably "purposive." Some older adults may be interested in recapturing the structure and interactions that they have lost with their retirement from paid employment. Many are seeking volunteer positions with incentives to satisfy contributive needs such as helping others, receiving satisfaction from the volunteer positions, and making a significant contribution to society. Incentives such as interacting

with others, making friends, and being a member of a group were also important to many of the volunteer respondents.

There was no difference in motives or incentives for volunteers in youth development and other organizations. One would expect more heterogeneity between these groups because the youth development respondents were younger and had a higher number of females, whereas the other organizations' respondents were older with a higher number of males. The fact that the respondents were well educated with a medium to high income probably influenced similarity in the volunteers' motives and incentives.

There was no relationship between motives and incentives for either youth development or other organizations' volunteers. According to their definitions, a person who is achievement motivated is expected to prefer purposive incentives, since both are related to fulfilling personal, intrinsic, intangible goals. This expected relationship did occur in this study; however, the expected relationship between solidarity and affiliation did not occur. It appeared the persons motivated by affiliation also preferred purposive incentives. Therefore, there was no relationship between the motives and incentives due to the lack of variation in the incentive preferred. The stronger relationship between the motives and incentives for youth development volunteers than for the other organizations' volunteers, as reflected

by the magnitude of the Cramer's V statistic, was due to somewhat more variation in incentive selected.

Degree of importance attached to disincentives for youth development and other organizations' volunteer respondents was found to differ. The percentages of volunteers who reported disincentives in the very important category for youth development were higher than the number of volunteers who reported disincentives in the very important category for other organizations. Youth development volunteers' activities usually involve a volunteer organization, youth, and the youth's parents. The other organization volunteer activities usually involve only the volunteer organization. The more components involved in an experience, the more complicated and involved the disincentives. Another factor could have been that most of the other organizations' volunteers were retired, which meant that they had more leisure time and fewer time constarints than the youth development volunteers. Lack of parental support for youth development respondents and inadequate training for other organization respondents were the main disincentives.

McGuire (1983) mentioned that lack of leisure companions, fear of crime, feeling too old to learn new activities, health reasons, lack of transportation, not getting a feeling of accomplishment from participation, and a feeling that family and friends would not approve were constraints for older adults in her research. Though some of these

constraints were somewhat important to youth development and other organizations' volunteers in the present study, only one for youth development (health problems) and none for the other organizations' volunteers agreed with McGuire's study in degree of importance of these disincentives.

Youth development volunteer respondents were found to experience significantly more of the Risk/Uncertainty factors than did the other organizations' volunteers. The Risk/ Uncertainty factors included disincentives such as too many expenses, lack of energy, not having needed skills, fear of making a mistake, and others related to uncertainty. It appears that the other organizations' volunteers who are older and retired have overcome many of these uncertainties and concerns.

Blacks were found to have significantly higher disincentive scores than Whites. This may have been true because Blacks volunteered more in youth development activities than in other organizations, and the youth development organizations were found to have more disincentives rated as very important than did the other organizations. The significant relationship between the time dimension and employment status was not surprising in that employed volunteers have less leisure time due to employment and family responsibilities. The significant negative relationship between age and the Time dimension indicated that as the age of volunteers

increases, the importance of the Time dimension decreases. This is probably true because with age comes the increased possibility of retirement and reduced family responsibilities. The demographic characteristics of race, gender, employment status, and age influenced the Time factor significantly more than the Rick/Uncertainty factor.

Implications of the Study

The results of this study provide implications for ways in which older adult voluntary agencies and youth development organizations can better work with older adult volunteers. It is hoped that this information can assist in developing better strategies for designing volunteer roles for older adults. The better the strategies for helping older adult volunteers reach their personal goals as well as the organizational goals, the more enriching the volunteer experience. The personal satisfaction that one receives from volunteering is the key to motivation for older adult volunteers.

Demographic characteristics of participants in this study indicated that youth development volunteers were mostly female and under 65 years of age. The other organizations had a nearly equal number of males and females, most of whom were over 65. In order to deal with the lack of volunteers in youth development programs, efforts should be made to recruit more males and older adults. Involving

males and older adults as volunteers will provide youth with additional positive role models and experiential activities.

The preference of age group involvement for voluntary activities was also identified in this study. Although some older adults preferred their voluntary activities involving adults about their same age, one-third had no preference. Those older adults with no preference of age group of involvement are potential volunteers for youth development programs. Recruitment brochures may need to be updated to attract older adult volunteers; the benefits of intergenerational programs are worth the expense.

From the results of this study, it is possible to suggest ways of applying the information about older adult volunteer motives, incentives, and disincentives in recruitment strategies. Since older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations were found to be more motivated by achievement and affiliation than by power, it is important to provide opportunities to meet these needs. This would entail providing concrete feedback about task-related performance, allowing volunteers to use skills they perform well, and assigning challenging, exciting, important volunteer positions. One may want to consider assigning the volunteer position an impressive title. In addition, more affiliation opportunities should be made available to those older adult volunteers who desire to help others

through personal interactions. Seminars, workshops, and informal meetings could be held to provide volunteers an opportunity to meet and work with other volunteers. Appointments to committees could help them be members of a team. Volunteer coordinators should make sure that the interaction designed for volunteers involves the age group of volunteer interaction preferred by the volunteer. Ultimately, the volunteer activities and experiences should be designed to meet the motivational needs of the volunteers.

The results of this research indicated that both youth development and other organizations' volunteers preferred purposive incentives. Rewarding older adults with meaningful incentives is very important to their volunteer satisfaction level. Older adults should be provided opportunities that allow them to make a significant contribution to society, helping to achieve some valued goal, or feeling one is contributing to some purpose. It may be necessary to place more emphasis on summative updates of accomplishments to keep volunteers aware of the importance of their contributions. Volunteer coordinators may need to consider a different, more work-oriented management style. It will probably be necessary to experiment a little to identify what works best. It is imperative that meaningful incentives are made available to older adult volunteers to maintain volunteer satisfaction. As meaningful incentives are being made available, disincentives should be removed.

Results indicated that there is a significant difference in the type of disincentives affecting youth development volunteers and other organizations' volunteers. The main disincentives for youth development volunteers was lack of support from parents of children in the youth groups and limited time for volunteering. With more parents employed outside the home and other changing societal trends, this concern has probably worsened in the past few years. Youth development coordinators could (a) divide volunteer tasks into very small components so that task completion time and time parents have available for volunteering is compatible, (b) use parents' newsletters to identify ways parents can assist their child's club and offer time management tips, and (c) consider recognizing a parent a month in some meaningful way.

The main disincentive for other organization volunteers was quite different. Inadequate volunteer training was the main disincentive for other organization volunteers. The volunteer coordinator might consider devising a systematic process to identify when the volunteers believe they have acquired the needed skills for a voluntary activity. The present system may need to be updated. It should not be assumed that volunteers have had sufficient training because the training series is completed. Volunteers should be asked about their training perceptions. If the training workshops

or training schedule are not flexible for change, consider recruiting a volunteer trainer. Often, volunteers will be more open to other volunteers in discussing their training needs. Make training opportunities available for older adults as needed; it may be necessary to repeat some training sessions often. Above all, youth development and other organizaions' volunteer coordinators should make every effort to remove as many disincentives to volunteerism as possible. Some are more difficult than others to remove; however, it's often surprising how much can be accomplished with a little effort.

Until recently, most people viewed older adults as being interested in only the affiliation type of volunteer experiences. At one time this may have been true; however, as an increasing number of older adults are retiring earlier and staying healthier longer, voluntary interests, training needs, and expectaions are changing. Home economists, Agricultural Extension staff, gerontologists, volunteer coordinators, and many others are concerned about helping older adults increase their quality of life while meeting their needs in an aging society. Results of this study provide information which can be useful in reaching this goal.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the demographic characterstics, motives, incentives, and disincentives of older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations. Additional purposes were to examine the relationship between motives and incentives, and to explore differences in disincentives according to the demographic characteristics of age, race, gender, and employment status of older adult volunteers. the following specific questions served as the basis for this study.

1. What motives are salient for older adult volunteers in youth development and other organizations?
2. What incentives are salient for older adult volunteers in youth development and organizations?
3. What is the relationship between motives and type of incentives preferred by youth development and other organizations' volunteers?
4. What disincentives or barriers exist that affect volunteering by older adults in youth development and other organizations?

5. What effect do the demographic characteristics of race, gender, employment status, and age have on disincentives for older adult vonteers?

The study was ex post facto in design, consisting of two groups. One group of subjects included older adult volunteers from youth development activities. The second group consisted of older adults from all other volunteer activits not related to youth development.

The population under study were adults age 50 and over who were volunteers in 1989 and 1990. Lists of volunteers in the Piedmont were made available from the Retired Senior Volunteer Program, Voluntary Action Center, Foster Grandparent Program, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and 4-H. From these lits, 100 youth development and 100 other organizations' volunteers were randomly selected.

To answer these questions, it was necessary to develop a questionnaire which measured the motives, incentives, disincentives, and demographic characteristics of older adult volunteers. The motive section of the questionnaire was developed, tested, and refined by Henderson (1979) and Hiller (1986). The incentives section of the questionnaire was developed based on a study by Cate, Lloyd, Henton, and Larson (1982) and definitions which were used by Smith (1972) on incentives for volunteerism. The third section, related to disincentives, was based on a study by McGuire (1983).

The development of the questionnaire included a review by volunteer program specialists and subject matter specialists to assess content validity. A pilot study was conducted before the final questionnaire was constructed. The reliability estimates for this study using the Cronbach's Alpha procedure were achievement, .79; affiliation, .66; power, .76; solidarity, .77; purposive, .75; tangible, .82; Factor 1, Risk/Uncertainty, .90; and Factor 2, Time, .74.

The data were obtained by a mailed questionnaire. A postcard and a follow-up letter were sent. The follow-up letter also included a second questionnaire. A total of 163 completed questionnaires were returned, 83 from the youth development volunteers and 80 from other organizations' volunteers, representing an 81% response rate.

A summary of the youth development and other organizations' volunteer respondents resulted in the following profile: Three-fourths of the youth development volunteer respondents were married and were parents, whereas 60.0% of the other organizations' respondents were married and 72% were parents. Most of the youth development volunteers were under 65, whereas the other organizations' respondents were over 65. Slightly more than half of the youth development and other organizations' respondents had bachelor, associate or graduate degrees. More of the youth development than other organizations' respondents had incomes over $25,000. The majority of the youth development respondents

were employed full-time (37.3%) or retired (30.1%), whereas the majority (85.0%) of the other organizations' respondents were retired. Homemakers were four times as likely to volunteer with youth development than other organizations. There were twice as many widowed individuals in the other organizations tha were in the youth development group. A higher percentage of Blacks volunteered for youth development than for other organizations' programs. Youth development respondents named youth as their voluntary involvement preference, whereas the other organizations named other adults about their same age as their voluntary involvement age preference.

The first hypothesis, tested to determine if there was a difference in the type of motives meaningful to youth development and other organizations' volunteers, was not rejected. The motives most salient for these groups were achievement and affiliation. Both groups identified their most important achievement motives as using skills they perform well, using their time constructively through volunteering, learning new things, improving their community, and the challenge volunteering offers. The youth development and other organizations' volunteer respondents mentioned concern for and helping others, working with other volunteers, and the warmth and friendliness of their volunteer group as important affiliation motives. The most important

power motive was getting away from routine activities. The least important motives for both groups were acquiring training which might lead to increased responsibilities and receiving status as a volunteer in their community. Youth development volunteers wanted to spend time with youth (affiliation motive) three times as often as the other organizations' volunteers (85.5 vs. 33.8).

The second hypothesis was tested to determine if there was a difference in the type of incentive meaningful to youth development and other organizations' volunteers. No significant difference was found; thus, the hypothesis was not rejected. Both preferred purposive incentives. The volunteer respondents for both groups identified helping their volunteer organization, receiving satisfaction from the volunteer job, the chance to help others, making a significant contribution to society, and feeling their involvement is making a difference in their community as salient purposive incentives for volunteering. Important solidarity incentives for both groups were interacting with others, making friends, and being a member of a team. Although distinguished service awards and status associated with volunteering were not among the more salient solidarity incentives, they were twice as rewarding to youth development volunteers as they were to other organizations' volunteers. Although intangible incentives were less rewarding for both

groups, some interest was expressed in training sessions, seminars, or conferences. Lunch stipends and reimbursement for training and other expenses were the least rewarding for both groups. Pins, plaques, and certificates were somewhat rewarding for both groups of volunteer respondents, but more rewarding for youth development volunteer respondents than for other organizations.

The third hypothesis, which was tested to determine if there was a relationship between the type of motives and the type of incentives of youth development and other organizations' volunteers, was not rejected.

The fourth hypothesis was tested to determine if there was a difference in the disincentives affecting youth develoopent and other organizations. A factor analysis of the disincentives items in the instrument resulted in two factors, Risk/Uncertainty and Time, which were used in the analysis. There was a significant difference between groups on the time factor with youth development volunteers experiencing time as more of a disincentive than volunteers for the other organizations. No differences were found between groups on the Risk/Uncertainty factor. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected for the Time factor but not for the Risk/Uncertainty factor.

Youth development volunteers reported more disincentives in the most important category and a higher number

of disincentives than did the other organizations. The most important disincentive for youth development respondents was lack of parental support, whereas the most important disincentive for other organizations' volunteers was inadequate training. The statement that was not a disincentive to most of the youth development respondents was "fear of making a mistake," whereas the statement taht was not a disincentive for the other organizations was "my friends don't volunteer," followed by "non-support from parents."

The fifth hypothesis was tested to determine if there was a difference in disincentives by race, gender, employment status, and age of the older adult volunteers. Results included a significant difference in Factor 1 (Risk/Uncertainty) and race; and a significant difference in Factor 2 (Time) by employment status and age. This hypothesis was rejected for Factor 1 and race, and for Factor 2 and employment status and age.

In summary, the expectancy theory used in this study illustrated the idea that to be motivated, individuals must be satisfied with the previous outcomes and have an interest in additional positive outcomes in the future. Examination of the findings in relation to the original model revealed that the motives of the volunteers were primarily achievement and affiliation, the most significant incentive was purposive, and the demographic characteristics of age and

employment status were related to the Time disincentives and race was related to the Risk/Uncertainty disincentive. All of these factors influence the decision of older adults to volunteer for youth development or other organizations' programs.

Recommendations for Research

Based on the findings of this study, there are several areas that can be recommended for future study:

1. The relationship between older adult volunteers' motives (affiliation, achievement, and power) and their employment status.
2. Factors that are related to older adults' preference for age-segregated or intergenerational volunteer activities.
3. Motives, incentives, and disincentives for older adult volunteers with a sample of high school graduates and above and those with less than a high school education.
4. Disincentives and other factors that decrease the likelihood of males and older adults' involvement with youth development organizations.
5. Factors related to the decision of older adults to volunteer for Agricultural Extension Service in Home Economics programs.

6. The best predictor among age, employment status, motives, and incentives for identifying the type of voluntary organization for which older adults volunteer in a non-urban community.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE NOTE

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pp. 120-123
Older Adult Volunteer Questionnaire

University Microfilms International

APPENDIX B

SCORING PROCEDURES

Specific Questions Related to the Measurement of Motives and Incentives Motives

Each category was assigned a score of 1-5, with the holistic score derived by summing the three category scores to create a total score ranging from 9 to 45. The following questions on the final questionnarie were designed to represent the following needs which were identified as motives by McClelland and Atkinson (Atkinson & Birch, 1978).

AFFILIATION scores equalled the sum of Questions 1, 6, 7, 9, 11, 16, 17, 22, 24.

POWER scores equalled the sum of Questions 2, 3, 8, 10, 14, 18, 20, 25, 27.

ACHIEVEMENT scores equalled the sum of Questions 4, 5, 12, 13, 15, 19, 21, 23, 26.

Incentives

Each category was assigned a score of 1-5, with the holistic score derived by summing the three category scores to create a total score ranging from 5 to 25. The following questions were designed to represent incentives for volunteers as defined by Smith (1972).

SOLIDARITY scores equalled the sum of Questions 11, 14, 5, 1, 3.

PURPOSIVE scores equalled the sum of Questions 13, 10, 8, 4, 2.

TANGIBLE scores equalled the sum of Questions 15, 12, 9, 7, 6.

APPENDIX C

COVER AND FOLLOW-UP LETTERS

School of Human Environmental Sciences

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Department of Child Development and Family Relations
104 Stone Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5307

July 17, 1990

Dear

I've missed seeing you at all the 4-H activities and events. As you know, I'm now a graduate student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. My research interest is to learn more about the motives, incentives, and disincentives of volunteers who devote their expertise, time, and service to voluntary activities. Input from volunteers like yourself is valued and important as we are attempting to learn more about volunteers.

You were randomly selected from a list of volunteers in the Piedmont. Your responses to the questionnaire will contribute valuable information to youth development and non-youth development voluntary activities in Guilford County and to the State of North Carolina. In order that the results adequately represent the Piedmont volunteers, it is important that each questionnaire is completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so we may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire.

Responding should take less than 20 minutes. Please return the enclosed questionnaire in the return envelope by July 31, 1990. The names of individuals who return their questionnaire by July 31st will be included in the cash drawing for a $25.00 prize.

Although you are under no obligation to complete the questionnaire, we hope you will assist us by returning the completed survey at your earliest convenience. We need and value your opinion. The information collected will be summarized and distributed to the 4-H office.

Should you have any questions, you may call me at (919) 375-3965.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Shirley B. Rouse
Extension Agent, 4-H

Dr. Barbara Clawson, Professor
University of North Carolina at Greensboro

School of Human Environmental Sciences

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Department of Child Development and Family Relations
104 Stone Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5307

July 24, 1990

Dear

Your opinion and ideas are needed! Input from volunteers like yourself is valued and important as we are attempting to learn more about volunteers. Shirley Rouse, a graduate student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, is interested in learning more about the motives, incentives, and disincentives of volunteers who devote their expertise, time, and service to voluntary activities. She has requested that we send out this survey and we are encouraging you to respond to the survey.

You were randomly selected from a list of volunteers in the Piedmont. Your responses to the questionnaire will contribute valuable information to youth development and non-youth development voluntary activities in your county and to the State of North Carolina. In order that the results adequately represent the Piedmont volunteers, it is important that each questionnaire is completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so we may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire.

Responding should take less than 20 minutes. Please return the enclosed questionnaire in the return envelope by July 31, 1990. The names of individuals who return their questionnaire by July 31st will be included in the cash drawing for a $25.00 prize.

Although you are under no obligation to complete the questionnaire, we hope you will assist us by returning the completed survey at your earliest convenience. We need and value your opinion. The information collected will be summarized and distributed to your voluntary agency.

Should you have any questions, you may call the office or Mrs. Rouse at (919) 375-3965.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Sandra Mangum
Director, Retired Senior
Volunteer Program

Shirley B. Rouse
Extension Agent, 4-H

School of Human Environmental Sciences

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Department of Child Development and Family Relations
104 Stone Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5307

August 6, 1990

Ms. Carolyn Harris
4301 Spenway Place
Winston-Salem, NC 27106

Dear Ms. Harris:

Congratulations! You are the lucky volunteer completing questionnaire Number 17 that was drawn for the cash prize of $25.00. Thank you for completing the questionnaire on Motives, Incentives, and Disincentives of Volunteers.

Enclosed is the check which is a small token of my appreciation for your complete, quick response.

Sincerely,

Shirley B. Rouse
Extension Agent, 4-H

G. Elaine Morehead
Field Executive
Tarheel Triad Girl Scout Council

Enclosure

August 6, 1990

Recently, a questionnaire seeking your opinion about volunteerism was mailed to you. Your name was drawn in a random sample of volunteers in the Piedmont.

If you have already completed and returned it to us please accept our sincere thanks. Because it has been sent to only a small but representative sample of volunteers, it is extremely important that yours also be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the opinions of Piedmont Volunteers.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me right now, collect (919-375-3965) and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Sincerely,

Shirley B. Rouse
Graduate Student

School of Human Environmental Sciences

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

Department of Child Development and Family Relations

104 Stone Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5307

August 21, 1990

Dear Volunteer:

I am writing to you about our study of motives, incentives, and disincentives of volunteers who devote their expertise, time, and service to voluntary activities. We have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

The large number of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But, whether we will be able to describe accurately how volunteers in the Piedmont feel on volunteerism depends upon you and the others who have not yet responded. This is because our past experiences suggest that those volunteers who have not yet returned the questionnaire may hold quite different motives, incentives, and disincentives than those who have.

This is the first regional study of this type that has ever been done. Therefore, the results are of particular importance to your voluntary agency and others interested in volunteerism. The usefulness of our results depends on how accurately we are able to describe meaningful needs and interests of volunteers in the Piedmont.

It is for these reasons that I am sending you another questionnaire. In case our other correspondences did not reach the volunteer in your household whose response is needed, a replacement questionnaire is enclosed. May I urge you to complete and return it as quickly as possible.

The results of this study will be made available to your voluntary agency for your convenience, or you may call me at 919-375-3965 if you would like to have results mailed to you. We expect to have them ready to send early in 1991.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Shirley B. Rouse
Extension Agent, 4-H

Dr. Barbara Clawson, Professor
University of North Carolina at
Greensboro

APPENDIX D

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table D-1

Chi Square Test for Affiliation, Achievement, and Achievement/Affiliation and Type of Volunteer Organization

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Motives	N	%	N	%
Affiliation	26	31.3	34	42.5
Achievement	34	41.0	33	41.3
Affil/Achiev	9	10.3	9	11.3

$x^2(2)=.75$, $p=.69$

Table D-2

Chi Square Test for Solidarity and Purposive Incentives of Volunteers for Youth Development and Other Organizations

	Youth Development		Other Organizations	
Incentives	N	%	N	%
Purposive	61	73.5	69	86.3
Solidarity	5	6.0	7	8.8

x^2 (1)=.12, p=.73

Table D-3

Chi Square Test for Achievement, and Affiliation Motives and Purposive and Solidarity Incentives for Youth Development and Other Organizations Volunteers

	Youth Development			Other Organizations		
Incentives	Affil	Achiev	Affil/ Achiev	Affil	Achiev	Affil/ Achiev
Purposive	31.5	50.0	9.3	44.8	39.7	11.0
Solidarity	7.4	1.9	00	4.1	2.7	1.4

$x^2(2)=3.98$, $p=.14$; $x^2(2)=.26$, $p=.88$

Table D-4

Rotated Factor Loadings for Principal Factors Extraction and Oblique Rotation of Two Factors of Disincentives for Older Adult Volunteers

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2
Disincentive 1	.56117	-.00870
Disincentive 2	.38412	.12139
Disincentive 3	-.01911	.61019
Disincentive 4	.49328	.20231
Disincentive 5	.48596	-.00848
Disincentive 6	.58818	-.01681
Disincentive 7	.53251	.10743
Disincentive 8	-.00447	.73384
Disincentive 9	.60562	-.09448
Disincentive 10	.36065	.15558
Disincentive 11	.34625	.18973
Disincentive 12	.52436	.01999
Disincentive 13	.44173	.29432
Disincentive 14	.08084	.70513
Disincentive 15	.65011	-.10998
Disincentive 16	.58021	.04809
Disincentive 17	.57789	-.17154
Disincentive 18	.44232	-.02337
Disincentive 19	.58426	-.10398
Disincentive 20	.66939	.02461
Disincentive 21	.63718	-.01009
Disincentive 22	.62012	.08201
Disincentive 23	.72826	-.01676
Disincentive 24	.38609	.14254
Disincentive 25	.75853	-.11261
Eigenvlue	7.22	1.45
% of var	83.3%	16.7%