An Examination of the Volunteer Coordinator's Influence on Church Volunteers' Intent-to-Continue at the Largest Protestant Churches

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE VOLUNTEER COORDINATOR’S INFLUENCE ON CHURCH VOLUNTEERS’ INTENT-TO-CONTINUE AT THE LARGEST PROTESTANT CHURCHES

by

Jason Berton Golden

Abstract of a Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate School of The University of Southern Mississippi in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2015
ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF THE VOLUNTEER COORDINATOR’S INFLUENCE ON CHURCH VOLUNTEERS’ INTENT-TO-CONTINUE AT THE LARGEST PROTESTANT CHURCHES

by Jason Berton Golden

May 2015

Volunteers contribute to the production of goods and services by easing the burden of the paid workforce while not increasing costs. Today’s volunteers tend to be highly trained, skilled professionals looking for a place to invest their time and skills. Churches are the largest single recipient of many volunteers’ efforts. Despite this fact, volunteerism is on the decline in churches.

Once recruited, attrition rates can climb as high as 40% in the first 12 months following training of volunteers. Therefore, the greatest challenge churches face is turnover. Not only does turnover lead to reduced production; it also incurs added expenditures for recruiting and training of new volunteers. The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue volunteering among the 100 largest Protestant churches as identified by OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America 2013” list.

This study employs a descriptive, non-experimental research design utilizing a self-administered, electronic survey. The survey utilized multistage sampling to survey 424 current volunteers from the 100 largest Protestant churches in America. Levels of job

ii
satisfaction, intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator were quantified and described in order to determine the relationship between the variables.

The study found the volunteer coordinator’s influence on both the volunteer’s satisfaction levels as perceived by the volunteer and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue were positive and statistically significant, $p < .01$. However, the study suggests the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer only explains some of the effect on the relationship. This indicates the importance of understanding the complex relationship comprised within the volunteer’s experience.

Recommendations for research include a longitudinal study design, which may explain short-term and long-term variations as well as introduce causal relationships. Study replication in churches that are smaller than the 100 largest churches in America may provide geographical and demographic diversity. Additional research is required to understand how social support, client concerns, and environment influence the volunteer experience.
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May 2015
DEDICATION

This body of work is dedicated to fellow laborers in Christ who are quietly pursuing Christ’s calling in their life. While we live in glasshouses observed and watched by many, we are often lonely in our work, as if, we are the remnant left struggling to grow the Kingdom of God. You are not alone! God has placed you in an intentional place to accomplish what only He can accomplish. After all, this is His work and we are but mere fractured reflections of His glory on our best days.

To my children: Moriah, Mallory, Mollee, and Trevor, you guys are an absolute blast! You make life challenging but fun. You guys are amazing. I hope this project shows you what can be accomplished with determination, organization, and hard work. Working consistently in anything, over a period-of-time, yields anything you want to accomplish. Pursue Godly discipline. Work hard. Maintain humility. Value people. Go accomplish great things for the Kingdom of God.

Finally, and most importantly, to my best friend and wife – Sabra. Thank you for the years of support and encouragement; it has propelled me to this point. Thank you for your support and encouragement on the many days in which I quit. Thank you for your patience and encouragement to lovingly kicked my butt and throw me back in the writing cave. During this dissertation project, you have made multiple sacrifices, at times, acting as both mommy and daddy. You have tolerated months of this work spread all over the dining room table. You have covered and made excuses to our children, family, and friends. You have earned this achievement in many ways more than I have. You deserve better! I love you.
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The foundations of this work are located in the 50 plus years of church growth philosophies, principles, and practices. Donald McGavran, Peter Wagner, Carl George, and Lyle Schaller, I have developed a foundational knowledge of church growth because you reduced your experiences to writing. Thank you for your investments.

I would also like to acknowledge modern day gurus who are shaping and challenging my current understanding of church growth, mega-churches, and multi-site churches. Men like Aubrey Malphurs (@amalphurs), Dr. Gary McIntosh (@drgmcintosh), and Jim Tomberlin (@MultiSiteGuy), who have encouraged me through individual conversations and development. You have paved the way for multiple mega-churches strategies, and shaped the multisite paradigm currently employed to reach the unchurched and dechurched. Specifically, to Dr. Gary McIntosh thank you for your time. Out of our phone conversations, your encouragement to research something related to volunteers was the genesis of this work. Thank you!

To Roseanna Galindo-Kuhn who granted permission for the use of her Volunteer Satisfaction Index ® (VSI), I am very grateful for your generosity. This work would have been much more difficult without your research on volunteers. Thank you!

One final thank you to Dr. Dale Lunsford while this may have been your first committee to chair, you performed brilliantly. Thank you for your advice and shepherding throughout this process. Thank you for working on what was seemingly an impossible timeline. Thank you for your clam and encouragement when IRB lost my application putting multiple deadlines in jeopardy. Without your input and the input of the committee, this work would not be where it is today. Thank you for investing in me!
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE OF CONTENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT ................................................................. ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION ................................................................. iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ........................................................ v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES ........................................................... viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS ................................................ ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.  INTRODUCTION .......................................................... 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.  REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ...................................... 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Three Sectors of the Economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .......................... 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population and Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity and Reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV. RESULTS .................................................................................................................90

Response Rate
Data Analysis
Results
Summary

V. DISCUSSION ............................................................................................................108

Summary of the Study
Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations
Limitations of the Study
Recommendations for Future Research
Summary

APPENDIXES ..................................................................................................................127

REFERENCES ................................................................................................................136
LIST OF TABLES

Table
1. Data Collection Plan ..............................................................................................79
2. Data Analysis Plan .................................................................................................83
3. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Tenure ............................................................96
4. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Gender ............................................................98
5. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Marital Status ..............................................98
6. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Age Range ...................................................99
7. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity ....................................................100
8. Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Education Level .........................................101
9. Descriptive Statistics: Volunteer’s Satisfaction, Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue, and Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator .................................................103
10. Zero-Order Correlations .......................................................................................104
11. Partial Correlation Controlling for the Volunteer Coordinator Effect...............105
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure

1. Conceptual Framework ........................................................................................................ 8
2. Tenure of the Volunteers ....................................................................................................97
3. Gender of the Volunteers ..................................................................................................98
4. Marital Status of the Volunteers .....................................................................................99
5. Age Range of the Volunteers ..........................................................................................100
6. Ethnicity of the Volunteers .............................................................................................101
7. Education Level of the Volunteers ..................................................................................102
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Volunteers are no longer well-meaning amateurs; they are highly trained, skilled professionals looking for a place to invest their time and skills (Cunningham, 1999; Drucker, 1989). Drucker (1989) suggests highly trained volunteers hold higher expectations of the organizations in which they are willing to volunteer. Therefore, Drucker (1989) advises nonprofits use formalized management approaches from the for-profit sector in an effort to enhance a volunteer’s experience. Davis-Smith (1996) and Sheard (1996) question if volunteers would submit to formal management approaches. However, Sheard (1996) portrays poor volunteer experiences as having little support, no meaningful input into decision-making, and a lack of organization. As a volunteer’s experiences are enhanced, the volunteer’s intent-to-continue increases (McElroy, Morrow, & Rude, 2001; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005).

The nonprofit sector is a significant sector within the U.S. economy experiencing a great deal of growth (Mocan & Tekin, 2003). Between 1980 and 1997, nonprofit associations increased by 56% in number (U. S. Census Bureau, 2000) while the number of organizations increased by 18.7% between 1989 and 1997 (Urban Institute, 2000). The nonprofit sector accounts for 5% of the GDP, 10% of total U.S. employment, and 8% of all wages and salaries in the U.S. (Wing, Pollak, Blackwood, & Lampkin, 2008). Research indicates 44% of adults volunteer. The estimated value of volunteered hours totals $239 billion annually (Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering, 2001).

Nevertheless, before the 1980s, the nonprofit sector paid scant attention to management practices. According to Billis (1984), most nonprofits focused on “goodwill,
flexibility, informality, commitment, and natural ability” (p.4) rather than specific management approaches. Starting in the 1980s, nonprofits began intentionally moving toward formalized management practices (Willis, 1991) because good intentions alone were no longer an effective tool for nonprofit management (Drucker, 1989). Currently, the tremendous growth of nonprofit organizations demand proven practices found in the management of for-profit organizations (Drucker, 1990). Volunteer coordinators face the same issues as managers found in paid workforces (Fisher & Cole, 1993). Therefore, volunteer coordinators are vital links between staff leadership and the volunteer workforce (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005). As such, coordinators and volunteers need the support of paid staff (Ozminkowski, Supiano, & Campbell, 1991; Struder & von Schnurbein, 2013).

In many organizations, labor expenditures continue to be the single largest operating cost (Saratoga Institute, 1994). Furthermore, volunteers contribute to the production of goods and services by easing the burden of the paid workforce while not increasing costs (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). Therefore, volunteers are an invaluable form of capital (Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2009; Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005; Taylor & Pancer, 2007).

Nonprofit organizations attract intrinsically motivated volunteers more than for-profit or public organizations (Cappellari & Turati, 2004). Boezeman and Ellemers (2008) report the greatest challenge nonprofits face is recruiting, motivating, and retaining volunteers. However, other researchers proclaim turnover is by far the greatest challenge faced by nonprofits (Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009; Howe & McDonald, 2001; Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). Researchers report a volunteer’s intent-to-continue
is the most accurate forecaster of a volunteer choosing to exit (Kelman, 1958; Kanter, 1968).

Every year, millions of volunteers donate considerable time and energy to purposes in which they believe. Every day around the world, volunteers invest their skill, time, and talents to help people in need (Wang, 2004). Despite this fact, nationally, volunteer rates are on the decline (Eisner, Grimm Jr., Maynard, & Washburn, 2009). A contributing factor in the national decline of volunteer rates is the rise of the dual income family (Cnaan & Cwikel, 1992; Hettman & Jenkins, 1990). In dual income families, less discretionary time is available; therefore, activities, like volunteering, performed during discretionary time are reduced (Rehm, 1980; Schor, 1991). By improving, the volunteer’s intent-to-continue, nonprofits depending upon volunteers would bring stability to their workforces (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Stability positively affects expenditures related to recruitment and training of volunteers (Handy & Brudney, 2007). Despite increased volunteerism, little research exists on the volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998; Hager & Brudney, 2004b). The annual increase in volunteer numbers propelled by high turnover rates exacerbates the aforementioned challenge (Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009). According to Starnes and Wymer (1999), attrition rates can climb as high as 40% in the first 12 months following training of first-time volunteers. Not only does low volunteer retention lead to reduced production; it also incurs added expenditures for recruiting and training of a new volunteer force (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Therefore, this research will examine the factors, which facilitate the volunteer’s intent-to-continue.
Statement of the Problem

Historically, American churches have been small organizations in terms of programs, size, organizational structure, and management (Beaumont, 2011; Compton, 2003; Schaller, 2000). However, some churches have exploded in growth (Thumma, 1996). A church experiencing significant growth or simply maintaining a large attendance drives demand for growth in programming, which results in the need to grow the workforce of the church (Thumma, 1996).

In a majority of churches due to the scarcity of financial resources, the available workforce grows through volunteers (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Eisner et al., 2009; Machin & Paine, 2008). As the size of the church and volunteer workforce grows, formalized management and human resource management (HRM) approaches are needed to organize and administer the efforts of this critical, large asset in order for the mission’s advancement (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012; Drucker, 1989; Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon, 2002). Churches supplement volunteers with paid workers (Costa, Chalip, Green, & Simes, 2006; Hwang & Powell, 2009). This strategy results in volunteers and members shifting responsibility for ministry to the community from themselves to a paid workforce (Wilson & Janoski, 1995). This shift in responsibility results in a reduced volunteer force, adversely affects the church’s financial resources, and reduces its ability to fulfill its mission (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Cnaan, Boddie, Handy, Yancey, & Schneider, 2002).

A review of the literature produces several concerns: including the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). The aforementioned concerns
are problems in large churches because as churches grow larger the commitment level of its members deteriorates (Finke, 1994; Wilken, 1971). Researchers suggest the decline results from a loss of control, a decrease in accountability, and waning social incentives for members (Finke, 1994; Knoke, 1981). Thus, within large churches, an opportunity exists for the organizations to increase volunteerism simply by reducing volunteer turnover or increasing the number of volunteers whom intend-to-continue (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Purpose of Study

Research shows the more time expended on volunteer administration, the more successfully the organization recruits and the higher the volunteer’s intent-to-continue as exemplified by retention (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007; Urban Institute, 2004). Churches, especially growing or large churches, experience a decrease in commitment from its membership (Finke, 1994; Wilken, 1971; Williamson, 1967). The low membership commitment leads to reduced levels of volunteerism (Iannaccone, 1997; Iannaccone, Olson, & Stark, 1995; Woods, 2006). The aforementioned struggle of large and growing churches combined with the national declines in volunteerism (Eisner et al., 2009) exemplifies the importance of this study. The study’s purpose is to determine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue for volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches as identified by OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America 2013” list (Lifeway, 2013).
Research Objectives

The objectives of this study focus on the perceptions of volunteers relating to the volunteer experience. This volunteer experience consists of the volunteer’s satisfaction and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer resulting in the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The objectives include the following.

RO 1: Describe the volunteer sample. The description will include age, ethnicity, education level, gender, marital status, and number of years in current volunteer position.

RO 2: Determine the level of the volunteers’ satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by volunteers within the mega-church.

RO 3: Determine the influence of a volunteer coordinator within the mega-church who is responsible for the volunteer program as perceived by the volunteer.

RO 4: Determine the perceived strength of volunteers’ intent-to-continue volunteering with the mega-church.

RO 5: Determine the relationship between (a) volunteers’ satisfaction with the volunteer experience, (b) influence of a volunteer coordinator, and (c) volunteers’ intent-to-continue volunteering with the church as perceived by the volunteer within the mega-church.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) for this study illustrates the hypothesized relationships of volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and volunteer’s intent-to-continue. This study describes each factor (volunteer satisfaction, influence of a volunteer...
coordinator, and volunteer’s intent-to-continue) in terms of demographics. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky’s (2002) meta-analysis on commitment utilized demographic variables of age, education, ethnicity, gender, marital status, and position tenure. Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley’s (2001) Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI) employed age, education level, ethnicity, gender, and marital status as demographic variables. Therefore, this study utilizes age, ethnicity, education level, gender, marital status, and the number of years in their current position as the demographic variables describing volunteer’s characteristics.

Most research finds volunteer satisfaction positively correlated with volunteer tenure, time, and intention-to-continue (Kim & Lee, 2007; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). However, Schwartz, Ronan, and Day (1975) advocates job satisfaction is only worth considering in very homogeneous workforces. Other research suggests favorable volunteer experiences lead to a sense of satisfaction. This sense of satisfaction motivates volunteers to continue in their volunteer service (McElroy et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 2005).

A volunteer coordinator enriches the volunteer’s satisfaction by providing a deliberate and well-managed program (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). Simply having someone responsible for volunteers is not enough; the motivating volunteer experience seems to require a volunteer coordinator whose primary responsibility is volunteer management (Brudney, 2000; Ellis, 1996a). The more time a volunteer coordinator spends on volunteer administration, the more successful the organization tends to be at recruiting and retention (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007; Urban Institute, 2004). Research suggests volunteer experiences, satisfaction, and intent-to-continue are interconnected (Oliver, 1980). Therefore, through the assessment of volunteer satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the church will be better able to
create processes, which foster volunteering; thereby, increasing a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Figure 1.1. Conceptual Framework. This model shows the interaction of the study’s variables along with research objectives and relevant literature review support.

The creation of a volunteer experience occurs as one volunteers. Factors such as, support from the organization, the type of work, the amount of autonomy, and relationships among coworkers, enhances the volunteer experience (Murvis & Hackett, 1983; Preston, 1989; Wilson & Musick, 1997). The volunteer’s experience is a summation of all of the volunteer’s interactions and feelings. The work of a volunteer coordinator tends to enhance this volunteer experience (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). The job satisfaction measure is an episodic measure of a volunteer’s happiness (Chacon, Vecian, & Davila, 2007). Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen’s (1991) research finds the
experience a volunteer has while volunteering is the primary influencer upon the volunteer’s retention. This observed behavior of retention or exit signifies a volunteer’s intent-to-continue. Finally, the measure of a volunteer’s intent-to-continue explains the commitment an individual has for an organization (Chacon, Vecian, & Davila, 2007; Pearce, 1993). Intent-to-continue develops over time; as such, it is a summative measure of the volunteer’s overall experience (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Significance of Study

For-profit businesses have utilized management practices to improve the bottom-line for years, while nonprofits have taken more of a goodwill approach. Only in the last couple of decades, have nonprofits begun employing management practices to fulfill their purpose (Cunningham, 1999). The adoption of management practices by nonprofits occurred as a requirement of the enormous amounts of money the government provides nonprofits in order to fulfill social purpose or goodwill (Cunningham, 1999). Concurrently, management practices have begun making their way into some churches. Large mega-churches with strategic focus on structure, organization, and programming are turning to management practices in an effort to increase efficiencies, increase effectiveness, and strive toward the accomplishment of their mission (Thumma, 1996).

As churches grow into mega-churches, membership tends to be less connected and unfamiliar (Ellison, Shepherd, Krause, & Chaves, 2009). Therefore, larger churches address shortages in volunteers by adding more paid staff. In the minds of congregants, the factors combine equating to a decrease in volunteerism (Cnaan et al., 2002). Churches faced with declining volunteer rates must begin developing HRM practices, which will help with the recruitment and retention of volunteers (Eisner et al., 2009; Urban Institute, 2004). Researchers have aptly pointed out increasing retention reduces the demands upon
recruitment of new volunteers while at the same time stabilizing the volunteer workforce (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Hager & Brudney, 2004b). Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen’s (1991) research indicates high levels of volunteer job satisfaction leads to continued participation by the volunteer, while van Breukelen, van der Vlist, and Steensma’s (2004) research finds the best predictor of turnover is a worker’s intentions. The best measure of a worker’s commitment is a worker’s intentions (Baron, Greenburg, DeNisi, & Goddard, 1990). Therefore, this study examines the influence volunteer coordinators have upon volunteers’ satisfaction and intentions.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions provide uniformity and context of the terms for the study.

1. Autonomy Support – Autonomy support implies the supervisor acknowledges and attempts to understand the volunteer’s perspective, describes the coordinator’s skillful use of influence instead of manipulation, provides freedom for the employee to make decisions, and encourages the volunteer to be a self-starter (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Williams & Deci, 1996). This study conceptualizes autonomy support as the influence of a volunteer coordinator. More specifically, the influence of a volunteer coordinator is measured through volunteers’ perceptions.

2. Executive Pastor – The executive pastor is an administrative pastor whose primary responsibility is not weekly preaching or teaching (Keil, 2008). Rather, the executive pastor focuses on the management of staff and volunteers to both protect and implement the church’s vision (Hawco, 2005). The executive pastor is often second in command behind the senior pastor (Keil, 2008).
3. **Intent-to-Continue** – Intent-to-continue represents an ongoing demonstration of an individual’s commitment to an organization (Baron, Greenburg, DeNisi, & Goddard, 1990). It helps explain the participation of a workforce, either paid or volunteer, with an organization (Kanter, 1968; Kelman, 1958). Researchers report worker’s intentions are the best predictor of turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Intent-to-continue is multidimensional and connects attitudes and behavior (Mowday et al., 1979). Intent-to-continue and organizational commitment are used interchangeably in the literature.


5. **Mega-churches** – The mega-church is a church with weekly attendance of at least 2,000 (Zelinsky, 2001). Mega-churches tend to be strategic in terms of structure, programs, and member care (Thumma, 1996).

6. **Motivation** – Like job satisfaction, motivation is a single construct (Ryan & Deci, 2000a); however, it involves a variety of factors combined to produce intention and activity (Parker, 1992; Perkinson, 1992). Motivation is very specific to each individual (McCurley & Lynch, 1996). Motivation originates from one of two sources – extrinsic or intrinsic (Perkinson, 1992). Extrinsic motivation requires a reward or other form of tangible benefit to induce activity or participation. However, intrinsic motivation induces activity or participation based on the individual’s interest in the activity or receives some personal satisfaction for participating (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).
7. Protestant Churches – Protestantism is the largest faith group in the U. S. (Mead, 2008). Protestants consist of fundamentalist denominations like Pentecostals and Assembly of God; liberal denominations such as Methodist, Episcopal, Lutheran, and Presbyterian; and evangelical denominations like Southern Baptist (Bruce, 1983; Jelen, 1989; Mead, 2008).

8. Senior Pastor – The senior pastor is the primary teaching pastor and leader (Judy, 1969). The senior pastor is the person whom the majority of people are referring to when they inquire about the pastor (Hawco, 2005).

9. Volunteer – A volunteer is a person who provides labor to a firm with no expectation of financial gain or other form of remuneration (Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

10. Volunteer Coordinator – A volunteer coordinator is a person, paid or volunteer, who is primarily responsible for leveraging the labor and skills of the volunteer workforce (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). Research has found this person to be pivotal in the management and implementation of an effective volunteer program. In fact, a volunteer coordinator’s time directly influences recruiting and retention, two of the most difficult processes in volunteer administration (Brudney, 1990; Lynch & Smith, 2010).

Limitations

_OutReach Magazine_’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America” (Lifeway, 2013) identified the 100 largest churches in America in 2013, which serves as the source for participants in this study. Churches self-reported attendance for inclusion on the _OutReach Magazine_ list. According to Vavreck (2007) and Paulhus and John (1998), organizations tend to overemphasize or exaggerate their abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and behavior when self-reporting. In addition, some churches may have chosen not to participate in _OutReach Magazine_’s survey; therefore, they are not included in this study.
Since the selection of survey participants occurs from volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches in 2013 as reported by *OutReach Magazine*, this study is constrained by the responses of volunteers in the largest 100 Protestant churches.

**Delimitations**

The specific population of interest is current volunteers from the largest Protestant churches in America. *OutReach Magazine’s* “The 100 Largest Churches in America” study (Lifeway, 2013) identified the 100 largest Protestant churches in America in 2013, which serves as the source for participants in this study. The study does not consider other religious nonprofit organizations; therefore, findings may not be generalizable to other Christian faith groups, synagogues, mosques, or other religions inside the United States. Additionally, the specific population of interest is volunteers from the 100 largest Protestant churches in America who are 18 years or older. The study does not consider volunteers who are under the age of 18; therefore, findings are not generalizable to non-adult populations.

**Summary**

The nonprofit sector is a rapidly growing segment of the U.S. economy (Urban Institute, 2000; Wing et al., 2008). However, it was not until the 1980s before nonprofits began to utilize proven management practices found in the for-profit sector (Drucker, 1990; Willis, 1991). During this same period, some nonprofits began substituting volunteers for paid workers in an effort to ease their financial burdens while maintaining production levels (Finkelstein, 2008; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Taylor & Pancer, 2007). Some of the growing nonprofits were churches (Thumma, 1996).

As the volunteer force grew, churches and other nonprofits began facing challenges of recruiting, motivating, and retaining volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers,
2008). However, a volunteer’s intent-to-continue is identified as a nonprofit’s greatest challenge (Chacon, Vecian, & Davila, 2007; Hidalgo & Moreno, 2009; Silverberg et al., 2001). Research interconnects a volunteer’s experiences volunteering, motivation, and satisfaction (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Oliver, 1980; Porter & Lawler, 1968). Furthermore, a favorable volunteer experience leads to satisfaction and satisfaction leads to a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Cunningham, 1999; Shaw et al., 2005). A final determinant of a volunteer’s experience is the influence of a volunteer coordinator (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). Therefore, the focus of this study is on the volunteer’s perception of a volunteer coordinator’s influence upon volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer. As well, the volunteer’s intent-to-continue and the affect a volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer has upon volunteer’s intent-to-continue among volunteers in the 100 largest churches in America (Lifeway, 2013). This study should lead to a greater understanding of the relationship among satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue in mega-churches.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides a review of literature supporting the conceptual framework for this research. The literature review is designed as follows: an overall description of the different sectors within the economy precedes an investigation of churches and volunteers. Within the evaluation of churches, the review of related literature explains the church in terms of classification, an organization, and consequences of size. Volunteers are first discussed in general, followed by a more detailed examination of volunteer’s considerations to identify antecedents.

The Three Sectors of the Economy

All business organizations or firms condense into one of three distinct sectors: for-profit sector, public sector, or the nonprofit sector (Young, 2013). Firms across the three sectors share some common traits. At its foundation, each firm utilizes inputs in the form of labor and capital to produce goods and services (Easley & O'Hara, 1983). Organizations across all three sectors rely on some mix of revenue; however, a difference among the sectors is their distinctive and unique sources of revenue (Rose-Ackerman, 1996). Murvis and Hackett (1983) report another difference among the sectors center on their mission—to earn profits (for-profit sector), to serve the public (public sector), or to educate, entertain, and cure privately but without profit (nonprofit sector). The sectors divergence is most noticeable when their organizational structures begin affecting operations (Easley & O'Hara, 1983). Other differences include structuring along distinctive working and inspirational assumptions (Leete, 2000). Leete (2000) says these differences “extend, to varying degrees, to their reasons for existence, organizational goals and methods, products produced, and constituencies served” (p. 424).
For-profits Sector

The main purpose of for-profit firms is to increase profits in order to maximize shareholder value (Hull & Lio, 2006). In for-profit organizations, the link for stockholders comes in the form of ownership, typically shares of stock (Hansmann, 1980, 1981b). This ownership gives the owner a share in both profits and control (Schepers, et al., 2005). Shareholders exercise control over management through their voting rights granted by the charter (Hansmann, 1980, 1981b).

This principle of maximizing shareholder value often raises for-profits risk tolerance. This increased risk or risk taking links succinctly to innovation (Covin & Slevin, 1998; Miller, 1983). Therefore, for-profit firms tend to be most innovative of the three sectors. Hull and Lio (2006) suggest for-profit employees are more forgiving of failure provided the risk exposure does not risk their pay. The sale of its goods and services characterizes the principle revenue stream for all for-profit firms (Moore, 2000).

Public Sector

During the 20th century, public sector jobs have exploded in number. Now, the public sector employs more workers than the other two sectors: for-profit and nonprofit (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006). According to Rotolo and Wilson (2006), the public sector employs one in five Americans. Unlike the for-profit sector, the public and nonprofit sector serves the public good (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006).

The political mission and satisfaction of the public’s demand for public goods and services is the principle value delivered by the public sector (Moore, 2000). Public sector firms focus on what the public and their representatives mandate (Moore, 2000). Bureaucracies tend to provide public goods sufficient to the median voter (Weisbrod, 1974, 1977a, 1977b). The result is a residual unsatisfied demand for public goods among
high demanders whose taste for such goods is greater than the median voter’s demand. The services provided by nonprofits tend to fill this gap in supply and demand (Alexander, Nank, & Stivers, 1999). For the public sector, the equitable distribution of resources is most important (Murvis & Hackett, 1983). Unfortunately, this distribution of resources does not easily measure its financial performance (Oster, 1995).

Nonprofit Sector

Nonprofit was a term coined in the decades following World War II in an effort to describe and classify an organization for tax, policy, and regulatory purposes (Hall, 2006). Since the 1960s, the government has increasingly relied on nonprofits to provide a substantial portion of the nation’s health and social service delivery system through federal funding (Alexander et al., 1999). In 2000, there were an estimated 1.23 million nonprofit and religious congregations in the United States (Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering, 2001). The core beliefs of nonprofits are giving and volunteering, according to the Independent Sector Survey (2001).

Weisbrod (1974, 1977b) says nonprofits serve as private producers of public goods and services. Furthermore, nonprofits fill unsatisfied gaps left by government entities, which explains how nonprofits benefit the public good. As such, they are organized as either nonprofit corporations or charitable trusts (Hansmann, 1987a; Independent Sector, n.d.), while attempting to satisfy donor demands where possible (Moore, 2000). Often, nonprofits are more responsive than governments to the needs of people they serve. Speed and customization for a narrow patronage are examples of the responsiveness of nonprofits (Hansmann, 1980; Weisbrod, 1977b). However, nonprofit response times are slower than the entrepreneurial for-profit sector (Young, 2013).
Nonprofits are subject to the laws of the chartering states. Nonprofit laws usually include a non-distribution constraint, which prohibits the nonprofit from distributing its residual earnings to anyone who controls the organization. Individuals said to have control over the organization include officers, directors, or members (Ballou & Weisbrod, 2003; Etzioni & Doty, 1976). Incorporated nonprofits like their for-profit counterparts have charters. While the for-profit charter protects the stockholders’ interest, the purpose of the nonprofit charter is to protect the interest of the organization’s clients from the firm’s management (Hansmann, 1980, 1981b). This protection is fiduciary in nature; as such, clients typically do not have the ability to keep the organization’s leaders acting in accord with their fiduciary duties. State officials have the standing to sue for breach of fiduciary duties (Etzioni & Doty, 1976; Hansmann, 1981b).

Some common issues of organizations bound by the non-distribution constraint include inflated costs and sluggish response to dynamic market conditions. Typically, as the size of the nonprofit membership and clients increase (increased complexity), transaction costs and free-rider problems begin to limit effective authority of the firm’s management leading to management’s inability to control costs (Alchian & Demsetz, 1972; Hansmann, 1980). Research also indicates nonprofits are slow to react to increase demands as compared to their for-profit counterparts (Hansmann, 1980, 1981b, 1985; Steinwald & Neuhauser, 1970). Hansmann (1987a) suggests this is because nonprofits are more constrained in their access to capital. He, also, advocates the entrepreneurship gap as an explanation for slow responses to the market.

Nonprofit in no way means the organization cannot earn profits; rather, nonprofits must utilize such surpluses for ongoing business or distribute it to non-controlling persons (Hansmann, 1980, 1987b). Non-controlling persons may be a member of the
organization or a client; however, they exercise no control over the organization. In the case of an incorporated nonprofit, a non-controlling person does not sit on the Board of Directors nor serve as a trustee. The two pivotal distinctions of a nonprofit, non-distribution constraint and non-controlling person, positions the nonprofit as best provider of certain types of goods and services (Benz, 2005; Etziono & Doty, 1976). Hansmann (1980) condensed the restricting of personal benefits available to controllers into the contract failure theory. The theory suggests nonprofits receive protection where consumers cannot easily monitor producers (Hansmann, 1980). Contract failure theory produces two additional, public benefits: best quality goods and services the firm can provide and incentivize care of the vulnerable (Benz, 2005; Hansmann, 1981b).

Nonprofits are highly dependent upon their community for support (Young, 2013). Donations in the form of money, time, and material from people who share in the cause define the revenue stream (Hsieh, Curtis, & Smith, 2008; Moore, 2000). According to researchers, charitable contributions tend not to be the principle revenue source, even though nonprofits are set up to capture and channel voluntary contributions (Boris, 1999; Bryce, 2000; Fremont-Smith, 1965). Donors donate to the nonprofit based on the vision cast by the firm to accomplish the greater good (Beck, Lengnick-Hall, & Lengnick-Hall, 2008). The donor receives an intangible return in the form of the satisfaction from participating with and contributing toward an endeavor to accomplish the public good no other known entity is attempting (Oster, 1995).

Nonprofits tend to be more risk-averse, which tends to reduce their ability to utilize or leverage innovation (Hull & Lio, 2006). Additionally, production and not financial incentives drive nonprofit employees, which make them less willing to take risk. A further reduction in innovation occurs since nonprofits view learning aptitude as
unnecessary (Hull & Lio, 2006). Hull and Lio (2006) conclude, nonprofits would not be “able to take advantage of substantial innovation if they were to develop it” (p.61) due to the high cost of innovation, uncertainty of returns, and questionable value to clients. Salamon (2002) adds nonprofits are at a disadvantage when it comes to innovation because of its costs. Nonprofits simply do not have the necessary capital for innovation.

Types of nonprofits. No single characterization or model fully explains a nonprofit because of the sector’s extreme diversity; therefore, Young (2013) recommends breaking the nonprofit sector down into types and purposes for study. Hansmann (1981b) classifies nonprofits according to their financing and control. Nonprofits financed primarily by donations or grants, he called donative while commercial nonprofits receive significant revenues from sale of goods or services (Hansmann, 1980). Nonprofits controlled by their clients are mutual (Rawls, 2009). Nonprofits controlled by a self-perpetuating board of directors (hospitals, nursing homes, various societies, etc.) were considered entrepreneurial (Hansmann, 1980). Many nonprofits of any significance are incorporated. As such, a board controls the nonprofit as prescribed by state statute (American Bar Association, 2008).

In a donative nonprofit, a donor is primarily purchasing services on behalf of a third party (for people in need or unable) or for collective consumption. The donations utilized to purchase goods collectively consumed and not easily attributed to an individual donor due to the magnitude or the goods or services produced and the incremental portion consumed by the individual donor. In donative nonprofits, the clients are primarily the donors (Hansmann, 1987a).

Commercial nonprofits provide purchased goods or services primarily on behalf of a third party (Hansmann, 1980). Therefore, the firm’s clients are the actual customers
(Hansmann, 1987a). Since a third party consumes the goods or services, it is difficult for the payer to judge the quality of performance (Hansmann, 1987b). Additionally, the goods or services are typically provided on a reoccurring long-term basis and the costs of switching to the recipient are extremely high (Hansmann, 1987a).

Firms in which the clients have control are mutual nonprofits. Entrepreneurial nonprofits describe organizations governed by a self-perpetuating board (Hansmann, 1981b). The best differentiator between mutual nonprofits and entrepreneurial nonprofits involves the primary benefactor, since both forms of nonprofits deal with control. In mutual nonprofits, members both control and benefit. In entrepreneurial nonprofits, board members control and do not substantially benefit (Rawls, 2009).

In comparing mutual nonprofits to entrepreneurial nonprofits, Hansmann (1981b) identified three advantages. First, mutual nonprofits tend to have more control over the use of funds as compared to entrepreneurial nonprofits. Secondly, mutual nonprofits find it easier for members to provide necessary funding to keep it going, since their members control them. Lastly, in the case of associations, clubs, or lodges, the control given to members allow them to enjoy concrete benefits of the mutual nonprofit.

While financing and control determines Hansmann’s (1987a) classification system, the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) utilizes a different classification system. Through the Internal Revenue Code, the IRS has defined more than 25 categories of exempt nonprofit organizations. Under Section 501(c) (3) organizations are considered public charities or private foundations (Independent Sector, n.d.). Since a foundation’s support comes from the contributions of individuals, families, or corporations, the rules governing foundations are considerably more limited. However, public charities must receive at least one-third of its annual income in the form of donations. These donations
can come from individuals, governments, or other nonprofit organizations (Hansmann, 1980). Additionally, the code allows charities to charge fees for their services. According to the Independent Sector, (n.d.) the most common category defined by the IRS is charitable or 501(c) (3), which is the IRS classification for churches. The upcoming section of the literature review describing the church begins by defining church for this study.

### Church

The church is simply God’s kingdom on earth. The church is a voluntary organization whose purpose is to preach the Gospel and win others to Christ (F. A. S., 1893). In 2000, there were 380,000 religious congregations recognized by the American Church Lists (Urban Institute, 2004). Many of these churches would fall under Hansmann’s (1987a) classification of donative mutual or be classified by the IRS as a 501(c) (3) or a charity (Independent Sector, n.d.).

A two-fold approach is the best way to think of the church. The aggregate, is “composed of all who have been baptized and make an external profession of faith” (Catholic Layman, 1857a, p. 101). This is the whole body of Christians, who adhere to the fundamental Christian doctrines of the faith held by most Christian communities (Catholic Layman, 1857b). Leiper (1944), concerning the whole body of Christians, says the church is a worldwide fellowship reaching into every nation on earth. The Catholic Layman (1857a) describes this view of the church as the invisible church.

The second approach to the church (as pointed out by Augustine and more fully developed by the Reformers) is the visible church. The visible church is the church on earth. It has physical locations (Catholic Layman, 1857b). The church “is the divine instrument from the union and communion of man with Christ in the power of the Holy
Ghost, restoring him to spiritual soundness, and inspiring [sic] in him the spirit of worship and adoration, the spirit of divine altruism,” (F. A. S., 1893, p. 457).

Out of the sixteenth century arose a movement within the Catholic Church, which resulted in the formation of Protestantism. Protestants began rejecting the teaching authority and substituting the right of the individual in judging and choosing, all matters of Christian faith and morals (Mead, 2008; McQuaid, 1883). The constitution of membership exemplifies the rejection of the teaching authority within the church. The Catholic Church says membership within the church requires faith in Christ, partaking in the sacraments, and being subject to the jurisdiction of the bishop. Protestants maintain membership requires faith in Christ (Catholic Layman, 1857a).

The focus of this literature review is on the visible Protestant church. As such, a review of Protestant definitions of church follows including the definitions (Kingdon, 1981) of Augsburg Confession, John Calvin, Peter Martyr Vermigli, and Theodore Beza. Article VII of the Augsburg Confession defines a church as a gathering of believers, which teaches the Gospel and administers the sacraments. Similarly, Calvin defines a church as a place proclaiming God’s word and administers the sacraments (Kingdon, 1981). According to Vermigli, a church is a gathering of believers and nonbelievers led by a minister administering doctrine with the use of sacraments and discipline (Kingdon, 1981). Beza, Calvin’s successor, defines a church as a school teaching reading, writing, and scripture for understanding and not just knowledge (Kingdon, 1981).

*American Protestant Churches*

Denominations are a part of religious traditions stretching back centuries. Denominations have well defined creeds, teachings, rituals, and authority structures (Steensland et al., 2000). The influence of the church continues to shape the American
landscape (Schmidt, 2004). Many of the foundational doctrines of the church form the basis upon which the primary principles of the American government developed (Mead, 2008; Schmidt, 2004). According to Mead (2008), “Protestantism has shaped much of the country’s identity and remains today the majority faith” (p. 5). Mead (2008) describes Catholicism as “the second-largest faith and the largest single religious denomination in the country” (p. 5). American Protestantism consists of three primary expressions: fundamentalists, liberal, and evangelicals. Fundamentals are more pessimistic about the direction of the world; liberals tend to be the most optimistic about the world, while the evangelicals bridge the two extremes (Mead, 2008). Many researchers consider fundamentalist a subgroup within evangelicals (Bruce, 1983; Jelen, 1989; Kellstedt & Smidt, 1991).

Fundamentalists. The fundamentalist have subdivided into two expressions—separatists and neo-evangelicals. This division highlights their differing cultural and theological stances. The separatists believed true believers were to abandon churches tolerating any form of modernism. The neo-evangelicals attempted to engage the culture. This neo-evangelical strand has become the evangelicals. The primary difference between fundamentals and evangelicals is fundamentalist value a more fully developed and all-embracing Christian worldview and attempt to apply this worldview to the world (Mead, 2008).

Liberal. Mead (2008) contends that Liberal Christianity converges around more “ethical teachings rather than in its classic doctrines” (p. 8). They tend to be reluctant about some biblical accounts – such as the creation timeframe, the Garden of Eden, the flood, and Jonah – as literal narrative (Mead, 2008). For liberals, Jesus is a moral teacher rather than the person of God (Fox, 1993; Mead, 2008). According to Mead (2008),
“liberalism spread widely through the mainline Protestant denominations – including the Methodist, Presbyterian, American Baptist, Congregational, Episcopal, and Lutheran churches” (p. 10). Mainline denominations historically have been more social, intellectual, and economic elites (Mead, 2008; Steensland et al., 2000).

*Evangelicals.* Evangelicals tend to bridge the two extremes. They share many core beliefs with fundamentals; however, they tend to be more optimistic about the American experience (Mead, 2008). Evangelicals also share the fundamental’s approach to end time prophecy and the difference between people who know Jesus as their Savior or people who do not know Jesus as their Savior (Mead, 2008; Steensland et al., 2000). Other tendencies of evangelicals include an emphasis on mission activities, individual conversion, and a separation from the culture at large (Steensland et al., 2000). However, evangelicals are resistant to the more critical attitudes of fundamentalists’ (Mead, 2008).

As previously mentioned, the focus of this literature study is on the American Protestant church. The literature review has identified three expressions of American Protestantism: fundamentalist, liberal, and evangelical (Mead 2008). As the literature review and study progresses, only this aggregate form of American Protestantism is considered. Granular expressions of American Protestantism have not attempted to segmented in this study. Next, the literature review considers organizational elements of the church.

*The Church as an Organization*

The size of an organization affects its functionality. Furthermore, at certain points along the growth continuum, organizational changes are unavoidable (Caplow, 1957). According to Finke (1994) organizational growth leads to diminished levels of commitment and conformity within the membership. More specifically, the size of a
church reduces the participation of its members (Wilken, 1971). The theory of social action illustrates a willingness among members to surrender control as organizational size increases (Knoke, 1981). There are fewer decision makers in large organizations as compared with a small group who may all be involved in the decision making. Additionally, rewards tend to rely on intimacy and support tends to decrease, as the organization grows larger. Both the loss of control and declining social incentives erode membership commitment (Knoke, 1981).

Not only do organizational members give up control increasing organizational size results in a loss of control by decision-makers (Williamson, 1967). This loss of control by decision-makers seems to cause communication lags and interpretation errors, which result in quality tradeoffs (Ellison et al., 2009; Wilken, 1971; Williamson, 1967). Control is lost as large organizations undergo differentiation. According to Blau (1970), it is this increasing size, which allows for differentiation. As organizations continue to grow, the rate of differentiation begins to decrease (Blau, 1970). Moreover, the complexity of small groups increases rapidly with small increases in size. In a group of five people there are 44 relationships to manage by adding one additional person (group of six), the relationships more than doubles to 100 possible relationships to be managed (Gulick et al., 1937). As the volume of relationships escalates, members give up control resulting in decreasing levels of accountability. This environment encourages free-riding (Finke, 1994).

Free riders are people who participate (consume) without contributing to production (Iannaccone, 1997; Iannaccone et al., 1995; Woods, 2006). Churches address free riding by establishing a high threshold for joining, by monitoring the performance and the behavior of members, and by screening out people with low commitments.
Another technique churches utilize to reduce free riding involves increasing the connections within the organization through the utilization of small groups (George, 1992). By increasing connections among members, control is increased—member’s control of organization and the organization’s control of the member (Finke, 1994). By dividing a large church into many small groups, large churches have discovered how to maintain pooled resources for extensive ministries and impressive worship experiences (Finke, 1994; George, 1992; Stoll & Peterson, 2008). However, organizations must balance their demands because the organization can make too many demands. The literature identifies the demands as strictness (Finke, 2004; Iannaccone, 1994; Iannaccone, 1996). The theory of strictness maintains strict organizations are stronger and more attractive by reducing free riding (Iannaccone, 1994). “Strictness screens out members who lack commitment and stimulates participation among people who remain,” (p. 1183) according to Iannaccone (1994). The optimal gap refers to the delicate balance between strictness and free riding. Preserving this optimal gap entails managing the tension between social change and distinctiveness (Finke, 2004; Iannaccone, 1994).

Large churches, churches with 2,500 or more members, tend to experience greater social distance between members; this increased social distance breeds unfamiliarity. This distance also explains the difficulty large churches have in monitoring attendance, member care, and communication within the organization (Ellison et al., 2009). Churches may reduce this distance by establishing small groups. The formation of such groups can strengthen friendship networks and enhance feelings of belonging, provide support, and heighten church communications (Cnaan et al., 2002; George, 1992). Regular contact with small group members also contributes to enhanced identification and a member’s intent-to-continue (Wilson, Keyton, Johnson, Geiger, & Clark, 1993). Members who
identify with an organization express higher degrees of commitment to the organization than members who do not. Members with higher degrees of commitment tend to be more involved in the operation of the organization, are more concerned about the long-term future of the organization, and talk more about their organization (Wilson et al., 1993).

Organizations are becoming more homogeneous and bureaucratic in terms of organizational form (Carman & Langeard, 1980). Research shows as an industry matures, there exists a natural push towards homogenization. Furthermore, the push for structuration, bureaucracy, and homogenization experienced by an organization within a maturing industry exists in order to control costs (Carman & Langeard, 1980). Research shows increased levels of homogenization leads to better communication, added amalgamation and commitment, and lower levels of obscurity (Tsui & Gutek, 1999). Hawley (1979) defines this homogenization of organizations within an industry as isomorphism. Industries and organizations led by highly trained professionals encounter more isomorphic change (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Finke, 2004). Research suggests churches unknowingly choose an organizational structure limiting future growth (Hadaway, 1990). The resulting bureaucracy curbs an organization’s flexibility (Carman & Langeard, 1980), and isomorphism curbs innovation (Finke, 2004).

Innovation is simply a means to change an organization in order to improve performance or effectiveness (Damanpour, 1991). Churches must adjust to their dynamic environment. Innovations introduce changes in the raising of money and other needed resources; care for members; or how the core teaching supports the organization (Finke, 2004). Where churches stumble is in thinking and acting like the entirety of the organization is central doctrine rendering all things unchangeable (Finke, 2004). This treatment ignores the changing environment within which the church exists. They retreat
into their social networks closing out the secular culture; preventing any form of organization change (Finke, 2004). Like other highly trained professionals, clergy who are highly trained tend to conform to the larger industry which results in innovation being blocked (Finke, 2004). Leaders who are concerned with growing use innovation to drive performance improvement (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Finke (2004) finds “organizational vitality is sustained by preserving core teachings and introducing adaptive innovations” (p. 19). As the innovation spreads, it is widely adopted and no longer innovative (Finke, 2004). Therefore, a continuous change philosophy should be adopted (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Growth and Decline

A key, underlying goal of all organizations is growth; and most churches desire to grow in order to reach more people with their message, or at least to stay viable (Hadaway, n.d.; Hadaway, 1990). Decline, especially slow decline over many years, resembles stability (Hadaway, n.d.). More churches are in decline today than were declining five years ago. Hadaway’s (n.d.) research finds conservative churches tend not to decline but are no more likely to grow than liberal churches. In order to grow, the environment within which a church is located must support survival and encourage growth. An environment supportive of survival contains sufficient resources while an environment encouraging growth contains surplus resources (Iannaccone et al., 1995). For example, many declining churches are located in rural areas or in areas experiencing stagnated population (Hadaway, 1991). The literature review illustrates the need for resources and programming in order to retain and attract members (Iannaccone et al., 1995).
According to Hadaway (n.d.), growing churches leverage human capital (greeting, follow-up, incorporating newcomers) and technology (email, website, blogs, Facebook, Twitter, Podcasts, electronic newsletters, and other social media). As churches grow, they must develop small groups in an effort to connect new members to the organization (George, 1992). Without such groups, new members do not form friendships with long-time members and subsequently leave the organization. Churches with a high number of new members experience growth because new members befriend newcomers (visitors and non-member attenders) in an effort to provide the network of friendships desired by both groups (Olson, 1989; Wilson et al., 1993). Additionally, growth brings a sense of satisfaction, optimism, and energy working to attract newcomers (Iannaccone et al., 1995; van Valey, Roof, & Wilcox, 1977).

According to Kelley (1978) “the purpose of the church is … to ‘preach the Gospel’ and ‘win others to Christ.’ If it does that effectively, it will … grow” (p. 170). Conservative churches or skeptical churches maintain the following criticisms of growing churches: switching, socialization, and retention (Kelley, 1978). Growing at the expense of another church instead of from new converts exemplifies switching. The higher birth rate among conservative families and the exposure these births have to the religious education process describes socialization. Retention is simply maintaining members (Bibby, 1978).

Evangelizing, developing, promoting a vision and purpose for the organization, and teaching people about the faith and scriptures (discipleship) are activities most strongly related to growth (Hadaway, n.d.). Churches whose members clearly understand why they exist, what they are to do, and what they believe experience growth (Hadaway, 1981). Furthermore, churches utilizing innovative, celebratory worship (guitars, drums
and other percussion instruments, and visual projection equipment) are more likely to experience substantial growth (Hadaway, n.d.).

New churches, organizationally, are more flexible and open to change. They are also more volatile than older organizations making them more likely to grow or die (Hadaway, 1990). Since the network of friendships is not as set or rigid, relational space allows for the admittance of new members making growth more likely (Hadaway, 1990; Olson, 1989). Congregations in the new suburbs are more likely to experience diversity over congregations located in small city, town, and country locations (Roozen, 2010). This lack of diversity illustrates homophily. McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook (2001, p. 416) define homophily as “the principle that a contact between similar people occur at a higher rate than among dissimilar people” (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001, p. 416). Zipf’s (1949) law is an illustration of this principle, which states more effort is required to connect with people far away than people nearby.

As previously stated, growth becomes more likely as people connect (Hadaway 1990; Olson, 1989). In order to sustain this growth, additional programming and resources are needed (Iannaccone et al., 1995). As the church grows, changes – organizational, programmatic, and process – must be made allowing the church to continue to grow into what is called a mega-church (Thumma, 1996).

*Mega-churches*

Bibby (1987) suggests church involvement in the U.S. may be related more to the aggressive marketing of church than to strongly held religious convictions. Despite aggressive marketing, most churches are small; however, the majority of people are in mega-churches (Chaves, 2006). The mega-church is a church with an average weekly attendance of at least 2,000 (Zelinsky, 2001). However, attendance alone does not make a
mega-church. Strategic approaches to organizational, program, and member care approaches characterize mega-churches (Thumma, 1996). Many mega-churches experienced immense growth over a short period, which makes the church look like an overnight success. This is not the case (Chaves, 2006). Simple population growth and density do not completely explain the long-term nature of this trend. Research suggests the largest churches are growing even larger; however, church attendance is not increasing (Chaves, 2006). This trend seems to suggest mega-churches are growing by attracting people away from smaller churches (Chaves, 2006).

The following section of the literature review describes volunteers in general. More specifically, differences between paid versus volunteer labor forces are delineated. Followed by Human Resource Management (HRM) practices of effective volunteering programs are considered. Finally, antecedents of volunteers are examined.

Volunteers

According to Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering (2001), 44% of the U.S. adult population volunteered between 1999 and 2000. In 2005, 65.4 million Americans volunteered (Kadlec, 2006). By 2010, volunteers should have totaled 75 million (Kadlec, 2006). However, the volunteering trend has flattened and between 2009 and 2013 only 63.5 million Americans volunteered (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014).

Gallup (2013) reported 65% of Americans volunteered over the previous year. In 1999, volunteered contributed 15.5 billion hours, which is the equivalent of nine million full-time paid workers. Therefore, volunteers saved nonprofits an estimated $239 billion in labor costs (Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering, 2001). According to Rossi (2001), up to 75% of all volunteering occurs within the context of a nonprofit
organization. Hayghe (1991) finds 20% of Americans volunteer; 40% volunteer regularly throughout the year.

Religious organizations received an average of 16 hours of volunteer labor per month (Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering, 2001). As such, religious organizations are the largest benefactor of volunteer labor (Brudney & Kellough, 2000), while the public sector has more than 23 million volunteers and this number is growing (Brudney & Kellough, 2000). According to research by Cnaan et al. (2002) and Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering (2001), church membership increases the likelihood people will volunteer. One’s connection to the group (Low, Butt, Ellis, & Davis-Smith, 2007; Pearce, 1983a) and not personal faith (Cnaan et al., 2002) seems to serve as the motivation for congregants volunteering. Social support exemplifies research findings showing people often begin volunteering at the invitation of a friend (Blanchard, 2006).

Freeman (1997) depicts people who financially contribute to nonprofits are three times as likely to volunteer compared with people who do not contribute to nonprofits. Other research finds the work of the volunteer provides benefits to the volunteer in addition to the organization. These intrinsic benefits forever change the volunteer and remains with the volunteer long after the role is completed (Wilson & Musick, 1999). Volunteers who report a very high match between their own and the organization’s motivation receive more intrinsic motivation from their volunteering experiences and experience higher retention (Clary et al., 1998).

Volunteer workers tend to act like their public sector counterparts “their priority is to be of service to others” (Rossi, 2001, p. 47). Furthermore, research suggests volunteers can experience long-term volunteer careers (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Volunteers
working in long-term careers, work in the same organization, in the same position, and with the same people for years, adopting as a lifestyle the goals and values of the organization in which they serve (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). Nevertheless, important differences exist between paid and volunteer workers.

*Labor: Paid versus Volunteer*

Great diversity and highly divergent needs and demands characterize all workforces (Schepers et al., 2005). Paid labor expects to be paid an agreed upon wage (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001), rely on some sense of job security, and finance their lifestyle by the earnings from their job (Blanchflower & Oswald, 1999; Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Volunteer workers include workers who are willing to either accept lower pay or freely give of their time and labor because they believe in the cause (Smith, 1981). Despite this low or no wage belief in the cause, volunteers expect to receive some type of benefit from their volunteering (Smith, 1981). Leonard, Onyx, and Hayward-Brown (2004) describe the primary differentiator between paid labor and volunteer labor as a volunteer’s ability to leave without concerns for financial loss. “Not only can volunteers leave entirely but also they can refuse to do particular tasks or work at particular times” (p. 206) according to Leonard et al. (2004).

Other characteristics of volunteering describe the exchange occurring between the organization and the volunteer; the work being sustainable and ongoing; and other innate benefits (Doherty & Carron, 2003; Sharp, 1978). Volunteer workers have other reasons for joining nonprofit organizations and they are often complex motivations (Blanchard, 2006; Farmer & Fedor, 1999). Typically, volunteers do not demand compensation for their service; nor, do they assume alternative forms of consideration (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). However, individuals who volunteer increase their social and human capital via
networking and training received while volunteering. Although intrinsic benefits exist, volunteers may incur costs associated with volunteering ranging from childcare and transportation costs to foregone opportunity costs (Handy & Brudney, 2007); therefore, some volunteers are paid a nominal amount to help offset expenses incurred while volunteering (Nickson, Warhurst, Durron, & Hurrell, 2008).

Several studies have shown volunteers cautiously enter working relationships with specific expectations (Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Gidron, 1978). Volunteers react to how the organization meets expectations; this becomes a determining factor in a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Unmet expectations result in increased dissatisfaction (Omoto & Snyder, 1990; Seashore & Taber, 1975). As dissatisfaction increases, the volunteer begins offering only the bare minimum and the volunteer begins considering exit (Farmer & Fedor, 1999). Whereas, support builds for the organization resulting in increased attendance, performance, innovation, and retention as volunteer’s expectations are met (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Accordingly, Omoto and Snyder (1995) suggest the perceived satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, devotion, and the match between the volunteer’s experience and the individual’s motivations all influence retention.

Many nonprofits depend upon volunteers to carry out their purpose (Machin & Paine, 2008; Saad, 2008). In many small organizations, volunteers outnumber paid workers (MacDuff, Netting, & O’Connor, 2009). Furthermore, in small organizations, outsiders may have trouble separating the volunteer workforce from the organization itself (MacDuff et al., 2009). Often, larger organizations have the necessary staffing and financial resources to deploy a volunteer workforce; however, small organizations could
benefit the most from volunteer labor (Brudney & Kellough, 2000). Volunteers are a
growing crucial component of the labor market (Clary et al., 1998; Houle et al., 2005). In
fact, the demand for volunteers is on the rise (Brudney, 1985; Hobson & Heler, 2007;
Schilling, Schinke, & Weatherly, 1988).

Many nonprofits could not operate without critical volunteers (Woods, 2006). Schor (1991) describe the current American family as “working longer hours” with “less
free time for leisure and volunteering” (p. 29). Nonprofits have to respond to this
shortage with paid workers and professionals to pursue their mission (Costa et al., 2006;
Hwang & Powell, 2009). Nevertheless, the hiring of more paid workers exacerbates the
available supply of volunteers as suggested by Cnaan et al. (2002). Research suggests
that in churches with large paid staff, members assume paid staff provides community
service on behalf of the congregation; thereby, further reducing the available supply of
volunteer workers (Wilson & Janoski, 1995). Because of this short supply of volunteers,
nonprofits tend not to encourage their volunteers to work with likeminded community
organizations (Wilson & Janoski, 1995).

Furthermore, as volunteers and paid workers work side-by-side (Netting,
O’Connor, Thomas, & Yancey, 2005) roles begin to blur between members, volunteer
workers, and paid workers (Ammerman, 1997). It is plausible a congregant would play
all three roles simultaneously or sequentially, depending upon the need. This is precisely
the versatility allowing volunteer workers to phase into paid staff. This phasing normally
begins as a part-time arrangement; then later becomes full-time (Netting et al., 2005).

Volunteer labor and lower paid labor is equivalent to monetary donations since it
lowers overhead (Eisner et al., 2009; Preston, 1989). Research on wage differentials is
ambiguous. Some of the research shows nonprofit workers earn lower wages while other
studies result in higher paying jobs due to not having to distribute profits to shareholders (Benz, 2005). Frank (1996) sees this wage disparity as an exchange for more virtuous work. Alternately, Rose-Ackerman (1996) reports some workers accept lower pay in an effort to achieve their idealistic goals and work for a firm viewed as more socially responsible.

Due to pressures resulting from inadequate funding in recent years, the jobs volunteers preform have become highly formalized. In areas such as community development, social services, health care, the arts, and higher education, volunteers are frontline service providers in many cases (Hwang & Powell, 2009; Schram, 1985; Young, 2013). Handy and Srinivasan (2005), in speaking of volunteers working in a hospital setting, report the volunteer workforce not only provides quality work; but their work is economical as well. Additionally, as government grows, volunteerism is strengthened, which enriches the quality of the volunteers available to nonprofits (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006).

The typical volunteer has been the focus of a number of studies. Some of the studies base their findings on samples of volunteers while others compare volunteers to non-volunteers (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001). One such study, found non-volunteers watch hundreds of more hours of TV than volunteers watch (Eisner et al., 2009). Although, studies based on comparisons between volunteers and non-volunteers have mixed results (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

According to some studies, the typical volunteer is likely a middle class, middle-aged, married woman with at least some college education (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014; Freeman, 1997; Hayghe, 1991; Hettman & Jenkins, 1990). Other studies describe the typical volunteer as married individuals with higher education and income (Bureau of
Labor Statistics, 2014; Rotolo, 2000; Smith, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Wilson and Janoski (1995) and Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering (2001) adds volunteers are likely active in church. Currently, volunteer rates nationally are in decline (Eisner et al., 2009). In order to capitalize on the abilities of volunteers, nonprofits “need to expand their vision of volunteering, integrate volunteers into their strategic planning, and reinvent the way their organizations support and manage volunteer talent” (Eisner et al., 2009, p. 35). Nonprofits are missing volunteers because they are not providing interesting volunteer opportunities; so, potential volunteers are sitting at home watching TV (Eisner et al., 2009).

The Urban Institute (2004) concludes half of nonprofits with volunteers have failed to exploit an adequate amount of human resource management (HRM) practices, which could help in the recruitment and retention of volunteers. Whereas, Handy and Brudney (2007) find volunteers’ demands and contributions to the organization increase volunteer recruitment and retention success. Recruitment and retention requires attention to non-monetary exchanges for labor because organizations utilize volunteers in various ways, intrinsic rewards tend to vary within the sector. Freeman (1997) and Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering (2001) conclude many people would volunteer if they were simply asked to volunteer.

The benefits of volunteer workers to the organization can differ from the benefits of paid workers. In some cases, the productivity of volunteer workers may be higher than the productivity of paid workers (Handy & Brudney, 2007). On the other hand, since volunteer workers do not receive pay, their incentives regarding effort could differ (higher or lower) from paid workers who depend upon their wages for their income (Handy & Brudney, 2007).
Volunteer Management: Human Resource Management (HRM)

Nonprofits are under a great deal of pressure from the public, stakeholders, and donors to increase their flexibility, be more responsive, and efficiently utilize their scarce resources while more effectively serving their stakeholders (Alexander et al., 1999; Guo, Brown, Ashcraft, Yoshioka, & Dong, 2011; Salamon, 2002). Grube and Piliavin (2000) remind managers “all behavior takes place within a situational context and the characteristics of the context must be considered in models of volunteer behavior” (p. 1118). With Grube and Piliavin’s (2000) caution, it is important to note a well thought out human resource (HR) system assists a firm in the accomplish of a competitive advantage and increases effectiveness (Akingbola, 2006; Barney & Wright, 1997; Becker & Huselid, 1998; Huselid, 1995). Akingbola (2006) says this “strategy could improve performance and ensure the survival of their organization” (p. 1708).

As nonprofits firms improve their performance, HRM plays an ever increasingly important role (Ridder, Piening, & Baluch, 2012). HRM is a concept incorporating individual HR practices; formal policies; and overarching HR values (Jackson & Schuler, 1995). According to Huselid (1995), HRM accumulates the HR assets in an effort to develop a firm’s human capital. Strategic HRM points to the workforce as a cause “of strategic value and their development, deployment, and organization all contribute to firm performance and sustainability” (Mayson & Barrett, 2006, p. 448). While a strict list of HRM best practices do not exist (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Guest, 1997; Pfeffer, 1995), the essential volunteer management concerns of how to recruit, train, motivate, and retain essential personnel are central to all HRM approaches. In summary, strategic HRM is the defining framework within which HRM processes take place. Human capital influences
strategic HRM; but it is not its replacement (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012).

In the nonprofit sector, research finds the larger the organization the more likely it is to have implemented strategic HRM practices (Guo et al., 2011; Wiesner & McDonald, 2001). Additionally, organizations lacking HR staff, new organizations, and organizations focused on education are more inclined to have implemented strategic HRM systems (Guo et al., 2011; Wiesner & McDonald, 2001). In many small firms, unplanned and informal is the best description of the HRM practices (Mayson & Barrett, 2006; Mazzarol, 2003; Wiesner & McDonald, 2001). Volunteer-dependent nonprofits have different needs than paid employee led nonprofits; therefore, nonprofits need to employ different HRM practices.

Research suggests paring or bundling among individual HR practices and among organization’s different HR practices and its strategies enhance firm performance. The complexity of HRM is a result of the interconnectedness of individual HR components such as practices, principles, and policies (Arthur & Boyles, 2007; Becker & Huselid, 2006; Colbert, 2004; Lepak & Snell, 1999). Ridder et al. (2012) found higher quality returns develop with the deployment of a high functioning HRM system in which HR practices are bundled, rather than individually applied. However, due to varied and unique demands of nonprofit organizations, no generic bundle exists especially in small firms (Kotey & Sheridan, 2004; Purcell, 1999). Additionally, the mere presence of an unspecified HR bundle does not lead to any competitive advantage or gains (Purcell, 1999).

Researchers and managers now recognize people as the biggest asset of firms (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012). In
order to create value, managers must effectively deploy the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the workforce—volunteer or paid—to their maximum effect (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012). The intangible value of an organization relating to its workforce is quickly becoming the new model. Furthermore, long-term lasting performance determines the ability of the organization to connect with its workforce in a satisfying way (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012).

Two approaches to HRM in the literature are—resource-based view (RBV) and strategic HRM (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Colbert, 2004). Strategic HRM enables a firm to respond to its environment and supplement its other systems while RBV produces value utilizing highly specialized HR (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Colbert, 2004). Strategic HRM concentrates on the fit between HRM activities and strategic outcomes (Huselid, 1995; Ridder et al., 2012). Huselid, Jackson, and Schuler (1997) describe strategic HRM as “designing and implementing a set of internally consistent policies and practices ensure a firm’s human capital contributes to the achievement of its business objectives” (p. 171). RBV achieves competitive advantage by applying HR assets in a manner producing a HR process, which is difficult to replicate (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Colbert, 2004).

Nonprofit organizations must begin to think more strategically “in the face of constantly changing resources and” (p. 252) a competitive business setting (Guo et al., 2011). Over extended periods, extrinsic rewards and punishments diminish in terms of effectiveness, as workers both—paid and volunteer—view extrinsic motivators like money as a way to accomplish their purpose (Mayson & Barrett, 2006). Nonprofits must use intrinsic motivators rather than extrinsic motivators to lead and direct paid and volunteer workers (Nickson et al., 2008). One way to improve performance is to improve
volunteer management systems which affects the supply of willing volunteers; thereby, increasing financial donations of individuals and corporations (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005).

Churches must introduce policies and practices, which fit their specific values and mission (Akingbola, 2006; Ridder & McCandless, 2008). A correctly administered volunteer program is a highly valuable asset. Unfortunately, volunteers are deemed free labor, nonprofits do not consider their volunteers as a valuable asset; therefore, they have not developed systems extracting the most from volunteers (Eisner et al., 2009).

Nonprofit organizations, such as churches, would greatly benefit from adopting business perspectives and utilizing strategic human resource management (HRM) approaches created and refined in the business world (Butler & Herman, 2003; Lindenberg, 2003; Lynch & Smith, 2010; Paton, Foot, & Payne, 2003; Sawhill & Williamson, 2001; Standley, 2003; Young, 2001a; 2001b).

Such perspectives and solutions would include well-written policies (Brudney, 2000). Written policies should be inclusive of detailed job descriptions for volunteer positions (Brudney, 2000; Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2011). The recruitment and training of volunteers should only occur after well-written job descriptions are available (Brudney, 2000; Volunteer Canada, 2001). Training is vital to volunteers; however, due to funding limitations, nonprofits seldom invest adequate amounts of time or money into training (Bozzo, 2003; Lindenberg, 2003; Zimmermann, Stevens, Thames, Sieverdes, & Powell, 2003). According to Brudney (2000), the practice of providing on-going training reduces volunteer boredom, burnout, and turnover. Other research finds organizations who practice investing in employees reduce turnover (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). Another practice of strong volunteer programs, involves
creating career ladders for volunteers (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2011). Related to the practice of career ladders, is the practice of empowering volunteers to supervise other volunteers (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2011).

Fisher and Cole (1993) promote career ladders and supervision of other volunteers as a way to retain skilled volunteers. Stepputat (1996) says, “Creating such leadership roles within the volunteer corps demonstrates that volunteer experience is valued and trusted” (p. 177). Recognition and rewarding of volunteers is essential to effective volunteer programs (Hager & Brudney, 2011; McCurley & Lynch, 1996). This recognition can be either formal or informal. However, the reward program could reduce intrinsic motivation resulting in less volunteering; therefore, careful attention must be paid to the reward program (Deckop & Cirka, 2000; Frey & Goette, 1999).

Brudney (2000) contends effective volunteer programs, also, provide honest evaluations of volunteers. Volunteer evaluations provide insights, which assist the volunteer, the supervisor, and the volunteer coordinator (Stepputat, 1996). In order for effective evaluations to occur, organizations must keep formal records of volunteers, including, but not limited to, hours volunteered (Brudney, 2000). Bozzo (2003) adds skills and resources must be in place before the organization can handle the demands of evaluation, which should include opportunities for education, training, and skill building.

Other practices of effective volunteer programs include training for paid staff working with volunteers (Fisher & Cole, 1993), resourcing the program (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Ellis, 1996a), a volunteer newsletter (Ellis, 1996b), and providing liability coverage for volunteers (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; McCurley & Lynch, 1996). Regarding training of paid staff for working with volunteers, researchers highlight the importance of this training because paid staff are not familiar with training, volunteer
involvement, and administration (Ellis, 1996a). Moreover, working with volunteers is not typically part of any formal education process (Ellis, 1996a; Fisher & Cole, 1993). Beck et al. (2008) finds vast diversity (heterogeneity) between nonprofits; therefore, business principles may not apply easily to nonprofits. Beck et al. (2008) points out nonprofits vary dramatically in size, structure, services, missions, clients, and stakeholders. Despite this, nonprofits have increasingly begun to utilize business models to improve both their effectiveness and efficiency (Sawhill & Williamson, 2001).

The literature review identified several factors related to volunteerism. These included motivation, satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, the volunteer’s intent-to-continue, and retention. Volunteer’s motivation will be discussed first.

**Volunteer Motivation**

According to Ryan and Deci (2000a), “motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence and equifinality – all aspects of activation and intention” (p. 69). Early researchers simply categorized motivation as ego defense or ego extension (Allport, 1945). Motivation characterized as ego defense exhibits wellbeing or feelings of superiority. Ego defense is more emotional based. According to Allport (1945), ego extension seeks the development of one’s self or the development of skill.

A variety of factors combines to produce motivation in volunteers (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Parker, 1992; Perkinson, 1992; Schondel, Shields, & Orel, 1992) despite the common treatment of motivation as a single construct (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). As such, motivation is very specific to the individual members of the workforce. What is motivating to one employee may be demotivating to another (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Furthermore, what is motivating to an employee today may no longer motivate because needs change over time (McCurley & Lynch, 1996).
Motivation serves as a reflection of someone’s response. It is a comprehensive, imperceptible, internal, theoretical construct (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000). One must remember money in and of itself is not intrinsically motivating (Vroom, 1964). It only becomes motivating when it symbolizes some intangible goal (Vroom, 1964; Wernimont & Fitzpatrick, 1972). Despite this, people do work in an effort to earn money (Vroom, 1964). Nevertheless, other types of motivations include the expenditure of energy, the production of goods and services, social interaction, and social status (Jacoby, 1966; Vroom, 1964). The aforementioned factors attributed to both intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation (Parker, 1992; Perkinson, 1992; Schondel et al., 1992). Researchers have to depend upon known theories to measure the discernable expressions of motivation (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation refers to externally focused acquisition of goods such as food, water, sleep, and safety (Pinder, 1985). Alderfer (1972) calls externally focused needs existence needs. He describes an inverse relationship between their need and supply; therefore, unmet needs drive the desire for them. Existence needs are biological or physiological in nature and are typically tangible in nature (Pinder, 1985). A second category of extrinsic motivation is Alderfer’s (1972) relatedness needs. The pursuit of needs result in social interaction (Pinder, 1985). Alderfer (1972) reports meeting existence needs drives the desire for relatedness needs. Like existence needs, unmet relatedness needs fuel the desire to have needs met.

Workers, who are intrinsically motivated, perform work because it is interesting; they receive satisfaction from the activity itself (Frey, 1993; 1997; Losier & Koestner, 1999). Extrinsicly motivated workers require a reward or tangible benefit between the activity and some consequence. Therefore, extrinsically motivated workers do not derive
satisfaction of the work itself (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Intrinsic motivation supports work environments, in which workers have autonomy support, increased levels of independence, and diversity among tasks (Murvis & Hackett, 1983; Preston, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). In addition to the aforementioned characteristics, nonprofits place importance on wage equity, which is evidence of the value these nonprofits place on their workforce (Leete, 2000).

Research indicates motivation influences job satisfaction (Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998). Porter and Lawler (1968) promoted configuring the work environment by expanding job responsibility to create more interesting jobs (intrinsically rewarding) and to more clearly tie work to rewards like increased wages and increases in responsibility (extrinsically rewarding). This approach assumes intrinsic and extrinsic rewards build upon one another (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Over time, research testing the additive hypothesis shows physical extrinsic rewards actually weakens intrinsic motivation and intangible rewards increase intrinsic motivation (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Hence, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation appears to function interdependently instead of just complementarily (Deci, 1971). Additional research led to cognitive evaluation theory, which suggests independence and accomplishment build or grow intrinsic motivation, while adverse elements work to reduce intrinsic motivation, resulting in an amotivated worker (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Unexpected rewards or extrinsic rewards given unrelated to a specific task do not erode intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Additionally, extrinsic rewards are dependent upon performance and a supportive work environment enhances intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983). Therefore, some positive rewards have the ability to purchase performance without eroding intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999).
Researchers have further developed self-determination theory, which adds the element of choice to motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Autonomy indicates the level of choice an employee has to perform or act (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). A positive correlation exists between autonomy and intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Whereas, being controlled indicates lack of choice; it is a feeling of manipulation or coercion into action (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). It is important to notice motivation varies or is graded (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). The controlled-to-autonomous operates on a continuum; there exists a mix of control and autonomy (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). According to Gagne and Deci (2005), “autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional, and together they stand in contrast to amotivation, which involves a lack of intention and motivation” (p. 334).

The continuum of motivation between autonomy and control results in four types of motivation in self-determination theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). Controlled motivation appears in two forms – extrinsic or introjected. Extrinsic motivation is simply working or acting for an incentive or payoff. Introjected motivation involves avoidance–acting to avoid feelings of guilt or anxiety. Introjected motivation carries feelings of coercion, internal coercion but coercion nonetheless. Autonomous motivation appears in two forms–intrinsic and identified. Intrinsic motivation originates from a person’s developed interest and is assume to be inherently enjoyable, while identified motivation is working out personal conviction (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). Identified motivation may or may not be enjoyable and may inflict pain. Yet, it fits with the person’s values and beliefs (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998).
Intrinsic motivation is both costly and fragile (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). Intrinsic motivation’s development and maintenance drives intrinsic motivation’s high cost; its frailty comes from externally imposed commands, rewards, and sanctions (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). Frey (1997) says intrinsic motivation can be crowded-in or crowded-out effects. Extrinsic motivation (either positive or negative) crowds out intrinsic motivation when it is introduced (Leete, 2000). For example, perceived unfairness from the employer by the employee is enough to crowd-out intrinsic motivation (Frey, 1997).

With the purpose of the nonprofits sector being to serve the public good, this tends to attract a certain type of worker (Hansmann, 1980). Leete (2000) says nonprofit firms rely heavily on intrinsically motivated workforce. Hansmann (1980) argues nonprofit workers are motivated more by the production of quality and less by monetary gain. Whereas, Rose-Ackerman (1996) suggest nonprofits relentlessly pursue a philosophical approach to providing a service; thereby, attracting workers who are motivated by the firms vision more than by profit. In other studies, nonprofit workers prefer to work for firms seen as socially responsible (Frank, 1996). Others workers prefer to volunteer in firms producing public goods and services valued by the volunteers (Preston, 1989).

Research shows volunteering serves different purposes for different workers (Hager & Brudney, 2011; Low et al., 2007); hence, the importance of intrinsic motivation in nonprofit firms cannot be understated (Benz, 2005). Nonprofit workers tend to obtain value from their work and the work context and less from their compensation (Benz, 2005; Cappellari & Turati, 2004). Nonprofits offer intrinsic value to workers (Benz, 2005); and must use caution in designing reward programs as to not undermine intrinsic motivation which would decrease volunteering (Cappellari & Turati, 2004). According to
Rotolo and Wilson (2006), workers supplement their motivation to serve the public with volunteering because their paid work does not fully satisfy their motivation. “Employees in the nonprofit sector are taken to be intrinsically motivated, be it by a desire to produce a quality service, to promote the ideas or the vision of the nonprofit’s mission or to assist in the production of a public good they see as desirable for society at large” (Benz, 2005, p. 156).

Benz (2005) concludes the reason nonprofit workers experience increased satisfaction levels as compared with their for-profit rivals is due to the intrinsic benefits found working in nonprofit firms. While intrinsic motivators are important to employees, extrinsic motivators, primarily pay and benefits, are crucial to a workforce (Goulet & Frank, 2002). Finally, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) suggest volunteers act not in one category of motives; rather volunteers pursue a bundle of motivations to achieve a rewarding experience.

Researchers have developed the following four models in an attempt to summarize volunteer motivation (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

1. Volunteer Motivations Model – This model characterizes motivations for volunteering upon the individuals’ goals in volunteering. People volunteer for a variety of reasons, which include skills development, personal growth or development, to gain experience, to enhance self-esteem, altruism, and for community development (Janoski, Musick, & Wilson, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1990; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Likewise, volunteering serves a variety of purposes for those involved in volunteer activities and at times various motivations for people (Omoto & Snyder, 1990). Therefore, there exists no known pattern of why people volunteer even though researchers continue to search for one (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).
2. **Values and Attitudes Model** – This model links the actions of individuals and volunteering to their beliefs about community involvement or altruistic concern (Janoski et al., 1998).

3. **Role-Identity Model** – Previous volunteer encounters link the growth of role-identity in which previous encounters drives future volunteer experiences (Callero, 1985; Charng, Piliavin, & Callero, 1988; Piliavin & Callero, 1991). The group-identity model is another closely related model (Simon, Sturmet, & Steffens, 2000), which suggests volunteers help people with whom they identify (Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

4. **Volunteer Personality Model** – This model suggests individuals are predisposed to variables, which manifest through volunteering (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997).

   Altruism is intrinsic motivation (Unger, 1991). As such, it represents one’s internal beliefs about helping others and improving the world (Unger, 1991). An altruistic person tends to place others before self. He or she feels empathy for others and tends to be benevolent (Unger, 1991). Early research reported volunteerism as a purely altruistic activity (Smith, 1981). While volunteerism is altruistic (Schram, 1985; Unger, 1991), a number of rewards go along with volunteering (Qureshi, Davies, & Challis, 1979; Schram, 1985). The act of volunteering allows people to demonstrate their values and exercise their altruistic concerns. Research shows volunteerism and altruistic values are related (Piliavin & Charng, 1990).

   The literature review, next, addresses variables related to volunteer retention. Additionally, the literature review produced several scales previously used to measure satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue, which are discussed.
Volunteer Job Satisfaction

Chelladurai (1999) defines job satisfaction as the gap between volunteers’ expected gains versus the actual gain from volunteering. Job satisfaction represents the meaning workers gain from work according to Benz (2005). Brown and Yoshioka (2003) finds a positive correlation exists between job satisfaction and intent-to-continue with the organization. Although discussed as a single variable, job satisfaction is a rather complex set of variables – multivariate (Oliver, 1980; Vroom, 1964).

The best understanding of volunteer satisfaction is as a synthesis of motivation and actual experience (Farrell et al., 1998). Therefore, volunteers, typically, continue volunteering until they no longer experience satisfaction nor rewards (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Oliver (1980) describes satisfaction as the residual feeling resulting from the actual and anticipated experience. Prior satisfying experiences induce a volunteer to continue volunteering (Oliver, 1980). As long as the volunteer is satisfied, he or she will continue; once dissatisfaction occurs, the volunteer considers neglect or exit (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

While pay may be a significant source of dissatisfaction or satisfaction, attitudinal views toward pay, supervision, promotion, and coworkers contributes more to dissatisfaction or satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Wieser, Rosner, & Vianello, 1974). Especially, since the supervisor is highly influential in the establishment of attitudes due to their ability to control feedback, pay, promotion, and verbal recognition (House & Widgor, 1967; Locke, 1973). Researchers believe volunteer job satisfaction is similar in nature to employee job satisfaction because they share a number of dimensions (Pearce, 1983a; Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991). At the same time, satisfaction between the two differs in regards to opportunities for advancement and
pay (Vinokur-Kaplan, 1991). While opportunities for advancement and pay are of concern to the paid workforce, they are irrelevant to the volunteer workforce (Silverberg et al., 2001).

When volunteers have unpleasant experiences, mere support and recognition of values will not suffice. The volunteer’s satisfaction is at risk (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Research into volunteer job satisfaction has varied through the years. Later researchers have designed and redesigned satisfaction scales multiple times (Silverberg et al., 2001). Some of the researchers and scales include Spector (1985), who developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Ronen (1977) utilized the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to study the job satisfaction of unpaid kibbutz members. Pearce (1983a) utilized a previously developed job satisfaction scale designed for use with the paid workforce to study volunteers in four different types of organizations. Finally, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) developed an assessment entitled the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI) to study volunteers from a central California internationally affiliated nonprofit.

Spector’s (1985) JSS assesses nine components of job satisfaction; each component contains a four-item subscale, as well as an individual’s global satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Spector, 1997). The scale utilizes a summated rating scale format, which is the most popular job satisfaction scale because of its ease of modification. The global satisfaction score is simply a summation of the nine subscales (Spector, 1997).

The JDI (Smith et al., 1969) is the most popular scale among researchers (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The JDI assesses five components of job satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Spector, 1997). The inventory contains 72 items. Each component in the inventory contains a brief explanation followed by evaluative adjectives or short
descriptive phrases about the job. Individuals respond with *Yes*, *Uncertain*, or *No*. Many researchers employing the JDI will sum the five component scores to obtain a global satisfaction score (Spector, 1997). Other researchers (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989) discourage this practice.

Gidron (1983, 1985) advises against utilizing job satisfaction assumptions gleaned from the paid workforce on the volunteer workforce. Primarily because measures related to pay, benefits, and promotions are not applicable in the volunteer context (Smith et al., 1969). Gidron (1983) points out the primary difference between the two groups and why no job satisfaction scales are universal is because the motivations of the two groups are different. Other important influencers in the volunteer context include the work itself, relationships with coworkers and supervisors, autonomy, client issues; however, the aforementioned influencers are largely unaddressed by job satisfaction scales used in the paid workforce context (Ozminkowski et al., 1991; Smith et al., 1969; Stevens, 1991).

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) suggest job satisfaction operates differently for the paid workers as compared to volunteer workers. Therefore, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) developed the VSI, which identifies four components of satisfaction. Two of the components involve satisfaction – satisfaction with organizational support (planning, training, and support) and satisfaction with the results of the work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The third component of satisfaction is concerned with the amount of power the volunteer receives in carrying out assigned tasks (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The final component measures volunteer’s satisfaction with the relationships they have formed because of their volunteer work (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Armed with this understanding and an understanding of motivations, perceptions, and behavior of volunteers, nonprofit managers can create work
environments increase volunteer satisfaction, which increase retention (Farrell et al., 1998; Hager & Brudney, 2004a; Silverberg et al., 2001).

It is important to understand volunteers may exhibit high levels of satisfaction with the overall volunteer experience while reporting low satisfaction levels regarding specific situations or encounters. Bennett and Barkensjo (2005) studied volunteer’s satisfaction levels and volunteer’s intent-to-continue following negative experiences. As one would expect, they found negative experiences were negatively associated with volunteers’ intent-to-continue and volunteers’ level of satisfaction. For example, a prolonged level of job dissatisfaction leads to turnover (Seashore & Taber, 1975). In addition, Bennett and Barkensjo (2005) observed negative experiences down played the importance of organizational support, even though the support of the organization is more important during frustrating situations. A determining factor in organizational support is the volunteer’s interaction and communication with paid staff. When confronted by frustration situations, the aforementioned interaction is a valuable component of their decision-making process of the volunteer (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005). Ozminkowski et al. (1991) found some satisfaction occurs simply through working relationships with others in the workforce – paid or unpaid. Further, they suggest it is often not the volunteer tasks completed; but, rather, the larger cause and the relational components derive satisfaction (Ozminkowski et al., 1991). Research largely reports a reciprocal relationship between satisfaction and ongoing connectedness (Carron & Eys, 2012). Connection with the work group is associated with satisfaction with the volunteer’s co-workers and coordinator (Dobbins & Zaccaro, 1986; Kikulis, 1990; Skaret & Bruning, 1986; Swift & Campbell, 1998), as well as with one’s tasks (Carless & De Paola, 2000;
Carron & Spink, 1993; Williams & Hacker, 1982). Therefore, the literature review concentrates on the influence of a volunteer coordinator.

**Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator**

According to the Urban Institute (2004), church’s biggest challenges revolve around lack of resources dedicated to volunteer development and not adopting best practices in volunteer management. Furthermore, organizations with large volunteer workforces make greater investments in the management of assets, which lead to the implementation of standardized practices to aid in the management of this workforce (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Hager & Brudney, 2004b). Research shows a deliberate, strong and viable volunteer workforce maximizes the advantages and minimizes the risks of employing a volunteer workforce (Hager & Brudney, 2004a).

The most difficult processes in volunteer administration are identifying, selecting, and recruiting (Brudney, 1990; Lynch & Smith, 2010); yet, yields the single biggest benefit (Brudney, 1990). Kemp (2002) says the greatest HRM system inputs for volunteers include recruitment, motivation, and volunteer characteristics. Furthermore, the more time a volunteer coordinator spends on the supervision of volunteers, the more successful the organization will be at recruiting (Urban Institute, 2004) and retention (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007). However, Peterson (2004) warns recruitment should avoid general communications announcing the need for volunteers. Instead, volunteer supervisors should utilize a more strategic and formalized approach (Lynch & Smith, 2010). Researchers suggest utilizing volunteers to recruit other volunteers (Blanchard, 2006; Hager & Brudney, 2011; Low et al., 2007). This relational strategy heightens recruitment results; however, it also results in greater retention of volunteers.
Volunteer management is more complicated than ever before (MacDuff et al., 2009). Well-managed, successful volunteer programs have volunteer coordinators who spend time managing and working with volunteers (Ellis, 1996a). Resulting in the leveraging of the skills of their volunteers by customizing tasks to fit volunteers’ skill set (Hager & Brudney, 2004a). Research reveals most supervisors of volunteers have little to no time for the administration of a volunteer program because of their primary duties (Brudney, 2000). Yet, research shows a positive correlation exists between the capacity of the organization to produce additional volunteers and the time volunteer supervisors spend on volunteer administration (Urban Institute, 2004). Hager and Brudney (2004a) found nonprofits could derive the same benefits from a volunteer coordinator as derived from paid volunteer supervision.

The volunteer coordinator influences the volunteer experience (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a) by the amount of support, input into decision-making, and organization (Sheard, 1996) provided for volunteers. Because volunteer coordinators recruit, train, retain, and organize the volunteer workforce, volunteer coordinators are crucial in generating volunteer’s perceptions about autonomy support or control (Struder & von Schnurbein, 2013). Pearce (1993) and Leonard et al. (2004) describes volunteer’s perceptions of control by their coordinator as experiences leading to less volunteerism. Autonomy support consists of the volunteer coordinator empathizing with volunteers, offering full access to information, and allowing opportunities for choice (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 1994; Williams & Deci, 1996). Autonomy-supportive workplaces capitalize on volunteer’s satisfaction (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989), volunteer’s initiative (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989), and
volunteer’s drive to accomplish results (Benware & Deci, 1984; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984).

Deci and Ryan (1985) and Gagne (2003) suggest that volunteer’s behavior persist to the extent it is autonomous. Deci et al. (1989) report autonomy-supportive coordinators create environments exuding high levels of trust and satisfaction. Similarly, Blais and Briere (2002) noticed when volunteers perceive their coordinators as supportive; the volunteers are more satisfied with their volunteer experience. Baard et al. (2004) describe autonomy support as referring “not so much to a characteristic of the job itself as to an interpersonal climate created by the manager in relating to subordinates and carrying out managerial functions” (p. 2048). Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere, and Fouquereau’s (2012) study found coordinator’s autonomy support influences satisfaction and intent-to-continue.

Gagne (2003) suggests autonomy support increases retention while conflict with supervisors leads to lower intent-to-continue (Frone, 2000). Volunteer coordinator utilizing autonomy creates volunteer experiences with high levels of engagement and retention (Deci et al., 1994). Volunteer coordinators who consider the needs of volunteers are better able to meet volunteer’s need satisfaction (Baard, 2002; Baard et al., 2004), increase their work performance (Baard, 2002), and exhibit high levels of engagement in the purpose of the organization (Baard et al., 2004).

The Problems at Work (PAW) questionnaire measures subordinates’ perceptions of managers’ autonomy support (Deci et al., 1989). The PAW utilizes eight vignettes managers could regularly encounter (Baard et al., 2004). Each situation has four responses to choose from describing ways managers handle the situation. Baard et al. (2004) report the “responses fall along a continuum ranging from highly autonomous
supportive to highly controlling” (p. 2050). Participants respond utilizing a 7-point scale (Deci et al., 1989). The higher aggregated scores the more autonomous the subordinates perceive the manager (Baard et al., 2004).

The Work Climate Questionnaire (WCQ) is another measure of a manager’s autonomy support (Baard et al., 2004). The WCQ measures workers’ perceptions regarding the autonomy support of their supervisor (Baard et al., 2004). Baard et al., (2004) utilized the WCQ instead of the PAW in their study “because of the differential strength of the relations and because the WCQ was specifically designed to assess workers’ perceptions of managers’ autonomy support” (p. 2060).

Next, the literature review addresses the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. Intent-to-continue was compared with satisfaction and the differences between the two were outlined. Additionally, the literature review identified scales previously used to measure intent-to-continue are described.

Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue

Intent-to-continue helps explain the connection between individuals and organizations (Chacon, Vecian, & Davila, 2007; Pearce, 1993). The concept of intent-to-continue developed in an attempt to explain participation by the workforce in social organizations (Etzioni & Doty, 1976; Kanter, 1968; Kelman, 1958). Employee’s attitudes such as task performance, absenteeism, and turnover, are expressions of employee’s commitment to the organization (Baron, Greenburg, DeNisi, & Goddard, 1990). As such, intent-to-continue is a multidimensional concept interconnecting attitudes, influence, identity, and a belief in organizational values (Mowday et al., 1979). Intent-to-continue reflects the holders’ attitudes and thoughts about the organization as a whole, whereas, job satisfaction reflects attitudes about specific aspects of the job or
work. This commitment develops overtime; however, satisfaction is more event driven and is known to change from day to day. Therefore, intent-to-continue is more stable as compared to job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979).

Intent-to-continue has been evaluated in a number of different ways; i.e., attitudinal and behavioral approaches (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1979). Becker (1960) conceptualized intent-to-continue as more of a behavioral factor. He described commitment as the accumulation of side bets (Becker, 1960). Therefore, it develops overtime with an organization. If the activity ceases, side bets would end which would end the workers commitment (Becker, 1960). Many researchers consider Becker’s side bet theory as part of behavioral approach to commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Meyer and Allen (1991) explains the behavioral view of intent-to-continue as the longer a worker stays, the fewer options they have to leave, and the more they have to give up in order to leave. Pearce (1993) believes this view is less relevant in voluntary workforces. Boezeman and Ellemers (2008) report a volunteer’s intent-to-continue is rooted in the volunteer’s perceived importance and perceived support of the firm. Since the volunteer understands the costs of his or her exit, the organization, itself, is a part of the person’s psychological state (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008). Therefore, the costs associated with exit influence the volunteer’s behavioral commitment (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008). This is why Meyer and Allen (1991) believe their view of attitudinal commitment coincides with Becker’s (1960) side bet theory.

Still other research suggests intent-to-continue is a more accurate predictor of employee behavior than job satisfaction (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Steers & Porter, 1975; Vroom, 1964). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a positive correlation exists between
intent-to-continue and attendance. This positive correlation has a negative linear relationship to lateness and turnover. Therefore, volunteers who exhibit commitment to an organization are likely to remain part of its workforce. Further, intent-to-continue is a more accurate predictor of retention than job satisfaction in an organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Buchanan (1974) contends, “[c]ommitment is, in sum, no less than a precondition for successful social organization” (p. 340). The best expressions of high levels of commitment are volunteer’s willingness to exercise substantial work for the organization and volunteering for new tasks (Mowday et al., 1982).

Mowday et al. (1979) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), which is the most commonly used tool to measure the commitment construct (Meyer et al., 2002; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1979). The OCQ is a 15-item scale, which returns a total commitment score and a 9-item subgroup of the same instrument developed to measure integration of organizational values, motivation to work for the organization, and intent-to-continue with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979). The OCQ produces a strong relationship to the construct of commitment (Morrow, 1983).

A more recent model of commitment has been developed by Allen and Meyer (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCM) breaks intent-to-continue down into three different components – affective, continuance, and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer et al. (2002) assert all factors measured by the TCM relate negatively to turnover, but they react differently to other work-related behaviors. Boezeman and Ellemers (2008) summarize the affective commitment component as a “sense of emotional attachment to the organization” (p. 161)
and the normative component as “a feeling of responsibility to stay with the organization” (p. 161). Allen and Meyer (1990) report the continuance component as obligatory connections linking the organization to the individual. Some previous researchers have found continuance commitment irrelevant to volunteer workers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008). Pearce (1993) believes volunteer’s values are as important as their affective commitment.

Next, the literature review addresses volunteer retention. The literature review identifies and discusses the implications of retention on nonprofits. Additionally, the literature review identified volunteer’s options which were discussed.

Volunteer Retention

When thinking of a nonprofit’s workforce, the returning of volunteers year after year is of critical importance (Farrell et al., 1998; Hager & Brudney, 2004a; Netting et al., 2005). Research suggests the demand for volunteers will continue to increase in the coming decades (Tang & Morrow-Howell, 2008). By simply reducing the volunteer turnover rate, an organization can stabilize its volunteer numbers and reduce expenditures needed for recruiting and new volunteer training to meet this increasing demand (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Hager & Brudney, 2004b). Volunteer coordinators must recognize the reasons a person decides to volunteer initially will not necessarily be the same reasons encouraging them to continue volunteering the next year (Chacon, Vecian, & Davila, 2007). One of the keys to retention is for the volunteer to have their complex of motivational needs met, which drives their satisfaction (McCurley & Lynch, 1996). Likewise, Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, and Darcy (2006) find clubs utilizing better planning systems and providing pertinent training and encouragement experienced higher retention. Studies collectively suggest commitment of the volunteers’ can be cultivated
by communicating the organization’s performance in relation to its mission and the volunteer’s contribution to performance (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Oliver, 1980; Pearce, 1983a). As previously reported, satisfaction drives a volunteer’s intention to stay with the organization (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Oliver, 1980; Pearce, 1983a). However, Pearce (1983b) suggests, in some cases, organizations are able to retain volunteers due to the volunteer’s habit, routine, or an increase in the volunteer’s responsibility. Some volunteer tasks require little preparation and obligation, thus, volunteers never consider quitting (Pearce, 1983b). The best predictor of turnover is the worker’s intentions (van Breukelen et al., 2004). However, research has also reported another predictor of volunteer turnover includes autonomy support (Deci et al., 1994; Gagne, 2003).

Volunteers may decide exit, voice, loyalty, or neglect (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Volunteers who choose to exit voluntarily leave the organization by transferring, quitting, searching for a different job, or thinking about a different job. Whereas, volunteers choosing voice decide to actively and constructively communicate their frustration in order to improve the situation or the organization. Volunteers choosing loyalty decide to passively but optimistically continue with the organization before responding to the problem to see if it will fix itself (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). The response of neglect means passively tolerating deteriorating conditions. The volunteer due to dissatisfaction begins to reduce interest and effort, being excessively absent or tardy, or experience an increased error rate (Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Rusbult et al. (1988) report voice and loyalty responses as helpful responses in which the volunteer attempts to maintain satisfactory work conditions
(Rusbult et al., 1988; Spencer, 1986). However, exit and neglect are extremely destructive (Rusbult et al., 1988).

Summary

As a church grows, participation (Wilken, 1971) and commitment (Knoke, 1981) begins to decline. Research suggests this is due to a lack of control, communication lags, a perceived decrease in quality, declining social incentives, and complexity (Ellison et al., 2009; Gulick et al., 1937; Williamson, 1967). This decrease in participation and commitment greatly affects a church’s volunteer workforce (Wilken, 1971). While at the same time, volunteerism rates, currently, in the United States, are on the decline (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Since churches are the largest benefactor of volunteerism in the United States (Brudney & Kellough, 2000) and because churches are dependent upon volunteers to carry out their purpose (Eisner et al., 2009; Hsieh et al., 2008; Independent Sector Survey on Giving and Volunteering, 2001; Machin & Paine, 2008; Saad, 2008; Urban Institute, 2004), this national decline severely impacts churches.

Churches cannot effectively operate without this critical volunteer workforce (Woods, 2006). If churches attempt to hire their way out of a volunteer shortage, members view the resulting large staff as being hired to accomplish the church’s mission resulting in even fewer volunteers (Cnaan et al., 2002). Furthermore, as volunteers and paid workers work side-by-side (Netting et al., 2005) roles begin to blur between members, volunteer workers, and paid workers (Ammerman, 1997; Harris, 1998). Additionally, volunteers are performing highly formalized, quality work previously performed by paid workers (Hwang & Powell, 2009; Young, 2013).

People are an organization’s biggest asset (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon, 2002). For a firm to create value and movement toward reaching its
mission, it must fully deploy the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the workforce – paid or volunteer (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012). Since volunteers are in such short supply (Rehm, 1980; Schor, 1991), simply reducing the volunteer turnover rate would stabilize the workforce. This stability would reduce recruiting and training expenses (Cuskelley & Boag, 2001). Retention (the antithesis of turnover) is the behavior (act) of a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Rusbult et al., 1988).

The current study will build on existing research and theory related to job satisfaction and intent-to-continue to determine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction and the volunteer experience as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The analysis is useful for churches in attempting to increase the likelihood of retaining its volunteers.
CHAPTER III
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Volunteers are increasingly in short supply (Rehm, 1980; Schor, 1991; Urban Institute, 2004). Additionally, growth in churches amplifies this shortage as growing membership results in less connectivity and unfamiliarity among members (Ellison et al., 2009). Research suggests churches can counterbalance this volunteer shortage by increasing a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Cuskelley & Boag, 2001). Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen’s (1991) research indicates high volunteer satisfaction levels typically result in continued participation by the volunteer, while other research finds a volunteer’s intent-to-continue is best measured by his or her intentions (Baron, Greenburg, DeNisi, & Goddard, 1990; van Breukelen et al., 2004).

The current study examines the relationship between satisfaction levels as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of volunteer coordinators as perceived by the volunteers, and volunteers’ intent-to-continue. Survey data was collected from volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches (Lifeway, 2013). The research design, research objectives, population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, and validity and reliability were described in the chapter.

Research Design

This study employed a descriptive, non-experimental research design utilizing a self-administered, cross-sectional survey (Fink, 2003a; Swanson & Holton, 2005). Descriptive research designs describe characteristics or relationships among variables (Belli, 2009; Gilner, Morgan, & Leech, 2009). Fink (2003a) says descriptive design does not create new groups to study because the design utilizes natural or existing groups. A self-administered questionnaire solicits an individual’s answers from questions the
individual completes (Fink, 2003a; Schutt, 2012). The sample is representative of a general population to which the data are generalizable (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Cross-sectional surveys are non-experimental designs because the researcher does not manipulate variables; the variables were studied, as they exist when collected (Belli, 2009). As such, cross-sectional surveys provide baseline and descriptive information about the participants and the study (Fink, 2003c). Cross-sectional research is a common research design supported in the literature for survey research (Gilner et al., 2009; Swanson & Holton, 2005).

This study utilized an electronic, self-administered, cross-sectional survey to collect the perceptions of volunteers from the 100 largest churches in America in 2013 as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013). The survey quantified the levels of job satisfaction as perceived by volunteers, intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by volunteers. Survey research design assists in gathering numerical information. This method involves collecting, either directly or indirectly (Fink, 2003a), then “analyzing numerical data from tests, questionnaires, checklists and surveys” (Gay & Airasian, 2003, p. 20).

**Research Objectives**

The objectives of this study focused on the perceptions of volunteers relating to the volunteer experience. This volunteer experience consists of the volunteer’s satisfaction and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer resulting in the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The objectives included the following.

**RO 1:** Describe the volunteer sample. The description will include age, ethnicity, education level, gender, marital status, and number of years in current volunteer position.
RO 2: Determine the level of the volunteers’ satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by volunteers within the mega-church.

RO 3: Determine the influence of a volunteer coordinator within the mega-church who is responsible for the volunteer program as perceived by the volunteer.

RO 4: Determine the perceived strength of volunteers’ intent-to-continue volunteering with the mega-church.

RO 5: Determine the relationship between (a) volunteers’ satisfaction with the volunteer experience, (b) influence of a volunteer coordinator, and (c) volunteers’ intent-to-continue volunteering with the church as perceived by the volunteer within the mega-church.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consists of volunteers from the 2013 100 largest churches in America. This is a list compiled annually by OutReach Magazine (Lifeway, 2013). The population of the potential volunteers of the 2013 100 largest churches in America is unknown but is expected to number in the hundreds of thousands.

Given a finite population of churches (N = 100) and to ensure a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error, the recommended sample size totals 80 as suggested by a sample size calculator (Raosoft, 2004) for the first stage of sampling. Due to this small, finite population size, the researcher used a census (Sprinthall, 2012) because of the potential for non-response. The researcher anticipated a high non-response rate due to issues such as solicitation, timing, and sharing of private information (Sheehan, 2001). As a result, the researcher performed a census, which included 100 Executive Pastors, in order to acquire the targeted response rate of at least 80 participating churches.
In regards to volunteers, given an unknown population and to ensure a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error, the recommended sample size of completed surveys totals 377 (Raosoft, 2004). Regarding the size of the sample, the larger the sample size, the greater the confidence the sample represents the target population; however, the larger the sample the more expensive the study becomes (Naing, Winn, & Rusli, 2006; Schutt, 2012). Therefore, researchers must decide, “the degree of confidence desired, the homogeneity of the population, the complexity of the analysis they plan, and the expected strength of the relationship” (p. 165) being measured (Schutt, 2012). It is incumbent upon researchers to establish a sample size large enough to accomplish the study’s purpose by employing statistical power analysis (Schutt, 2012). In order to conduct a statistical power analysis, the researcher will need to approximate the intensity of any perceived interactions in the study’s population (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991; Schutt, 2012). Because the researcher does not know who the volunteers are in the 100 largest Protestant churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013), the researcher had to use a sampling method that would identify the sample. Fowler (2009) suggests utilizing multistage sampling when the population is uncertain or not known. Schutt (2012) depicts multistage sampling as a practical sampling method when “a sampling frame of elements is not available, as often is the case for large populations spread out across a wide geographic area or among many different organizations” (p. 152). Multistage sampling must contain at least two stages but can contain numerous stages (Schutt, 2012). In a two-stage sampling design, the first stage selects the areas to study, while the second stage develops the groupings studied in the last stage of multistage sampling (Fowler, 2009; Groves et al., 2013).
This study consisted of two sampling stages. The first stage asked Executive Pastors of the 100 largest Protestant churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013) to identify the volunteer sample of the second stage. A census was utilized in the first sampling stage in which Executive Pastors were asked to forward the survey link to 20 or more of their current volunteers 18 years or older. This resulted in the second sampling stage of this study, which measured the volunteer’s satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, demographic characteristics, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The survey was prepared as an electronic survey due to the ease of composing and disseminating (Dillman, 2007) and due to the quicker response time (Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Sheehan, 2001).

Research varies on the expected response rates of electronic surveys although the expected response rates seem to be declining (Schuldt & Totten, 1994; Sheehan, 2001). The response rates for electronic surveys vary somewhat between studies; for example, Cobanoglu et al. (2001) reports a 44.21% response rate while Schuldt and Totten (1994) and Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004) report response rates of 19.3% and 20.7% respectively. Pre-notifications tend to enhance response rates for electronic surveys (Kaplowitz et al., 2004; Sheehan, 2001). This researcher anticipated a high non-response rate due to issues such as solicitation, timing, and inaccurate emails (Sheehan, 2001). Naing et al. (2006) suggest oversampling up to 20% will not affect the desired confidence level or precision. Given response rates for electronic surveys around 20% (Kaplowitz et al., 2004; Sheehan, 2001); the targeted sample size was 2,000 participants in the second stage of the study. Thus, each executive pastor was asked to forward the link to 20 or more current volunteers’ 18 years or older, which would produce the 2,000 participants for the study.
In order to achieve the sufficient statistical power, the researcher selects a sufficient estimate of the target population and a significance level. Typically in social sciences, an alpha equal to .05 is utilized (Schutt, 2012). An alpha of .01 results in higher power (Schutt, 2012). However, few studies utilize an alpha less than .05 because it places unreasonably high demands in the form of research costs on the researcher (Cohen, 1992). Additionally, significance levels of .01 increase the effects of trivial deviations (Huck, 2012). Therefore, alpha was set at .05 resulting in a confidence level of 95%.

Instrumentation

This research utilized a survey as the primary data collection tool. Schutt (2012) describes a survey as a process of collecting information from a population sample. Rosenfeld, Edwards, and Thomas (1995) describe a survey as a data collection method used to assemble information about attitudes, behaviors, or other characteristics of a population. Fink (2003a) describes surveys as a system utilized for information gathering “from or about people to describe, compare, or explain their knowledge, attitude, and behavior” (p. 1). The questions can be in the form of written, oral, or other visual records (Fink, 2003a). Surveys provide versatility, efficiency, and occasionally generalizability (Schutt, 2012). The aforementioned attributes combine to explain the global appeal of surveys (Gall et al., 2003; Schneider, Acherman, & Kanfer, 1996). Self-administered surveys are the most commonly used for research (Fink, 2003b). Technological advances in recent years and the availability and acceptance of surveys has reduced the costs of data collection down (Dillman, 2000).
Census Instrument for Executive Pastors

The Executive Pastors’ census asked the Executive Pastors to forward the Survey of Volunteers link to 20 or more current volunteers that are 18 years or older. The census of Executive Pastors resulted in the survey’s sample for the second stage. This study did not administer a survey to the participating Executive Pastors; no data were collected from the Executive Pastors as their role was to simply identify the sample for the second stage of the multistage sample.

Survey Instrument for Volunteers

This research utilized multi-item assessments to quantify the influence a volunteer coordinator has on the satisfaction level of volunteers as perceived by the volunteers and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The survey described the participants demographically. Additionally, the relationship among and between the two levels (intent-to-continue and satisfaction) and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer was drawn. The participating volunteers identified by the Executive Pastors were the only subjects to whom this study’s survey was administered.

In an effort to analyze the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue, this study combined the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI), Meyer and Allen’s Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCM), the Work Climate Questionnaire (WCQ), and six questions focused on demographics. This study’s survey consisted of 84 statements targeting the volunteer sample identified by the Executive Pastors’ census. Permission was obtained for the use of the VSI (R. Galindo-Kuhn, personal communication, August 20, 2014) as shown in Appendix A. Use of the WCQ was made under the license agreement for non-for-profit research purposes from Self Determination Theory,
Rochester, NY (Self-determination Theory, 2014). Finally, use of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey, authored by John Meyer and Natalie Allen was made under license from The University of Western Ontario, London, Canada (TCM, 2015).

**Volunteer Satisfaction Index**

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) developed the VSI to measure the perceived satisfaction levels of volunteers. The VSI eliminated several factors of satisfaction attributed to paid workers (pay, benefits, etc.) and included some components (power and connections) more representative of the volunteer’s context. The VSI focuses on five elements of volunteer satisfaction: communication quality, work assignment, participation efficacy, external support, and group integration (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Concerning communication quality, researchers have identified sharing of information, precision, and feedback as components of communication quality (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Knoke, 1981; Stevens, 1991; Wharton, 1991). Gidron (1983) describes work assignment as a task, which builds the volunteer’s skills and abilities. The expectation of volunteers to derive some form of benefit is what the participation efficacy variable represents (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Ozminkowski et al., 1991; Wharton, 1991). Both educational support (training) and emotional support leads to enhanced satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Ozminkowski et al., 1991). The final variable, group integration, “refers to the social aspect of the relationships that volunteers develop with other volunteers and paid staff” (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001, p. 54).

A factor analysis addresses concerns related to construct validity (Brown, 1996) by analyzing and confirming relationships in sets of correlational coefficients (Brown, 2001). A factor analysis calculates factors involved by accounting for variance in the correlational coefficients while ignoring the error variance (Brown, 2001). A varimax
factor analysis searches for linear relationships of the factors in an effort to maximize the variance of the loadings (Abdi, 2003). Eigenvalues determine the number of factors to extract during the factor analysis. An eigenvalue is essentially a correlational matrix used to condense the variance in all the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A varimax factor analysis enabled the development of the index with no specified solution (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001).

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) identified four usable factors from the analysis, which exhibited face validity. Furthermore, they found significant linear relationships between the four dimensions of volunteer satisfaction. Therefore, the researchers employed “multiple regression analysis to determine if the four dimensions of volunteer satisfaction were predictors of respondents’ intent-to-continue as a volunteer” (p. 60).

The VSI is a 48-item index which utilizes 7-point scale Likert-type statements. The index asks the respondent to rate their level of satisfaction with the statements. Example statements include The accuracy of the information I have been given concerning my volunteer job and The fit of the volunteer work to my skills (Galindo-Kuhn, 1999). The 7-point scale of responses begins with Very Dissatisfied and concludes with Very Satisfied.

Three-Component Model of Commitment

Meyer and Allen’s TCM is a measure of intent-to-continue (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The TCM assesses affective commitment (attitudinal), continuance commitment (fear of loss), and normative commitment (obligatory ties) held by the individual about the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1991). It is important to note volunteers can experience numerous components to varying degrees simultaneously. As such, the components develop
independently of each other. Allen and Meyer (1990) classify affective commitment along four categories: personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics. The researchers assert continuance commitment develops on two factors: side-bets and a perceived lack of alternatives. Finally, Winer (1982) described components influenced by familial and cultural experiences and by organizational socialization as normative commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1990) generated a group of 51-items in order to construct a scale. The items were adapted variations of statements from other scales; however, some were developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Allen and Meyer’s (1990) study presented the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) first, followed by the 51-items randomly presented for scale construction. For inclusion in the final scale, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a series of decision rules.

Specifically, items were eliminated if (a) the endorsement proportion was greater than .75, (b) the item correlated less with its keyed scale than with one or both of the other scales, and (c) the content of the item was redundant with respect to other items on the scale.” (p. 5)

Allen and Meyer’s (1990) scale resulted in eight items chosen from each of the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS).

The TCM is a 24-item questionnaire, which utilizes a 7-point scale Likert-type statements. The index asks the respondent to rate their level of agreement with the statements. Example statements from Allen and Meyer’s (1990) TCM include This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me (ACS item), I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization (CCS item), and I was taught to
believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization (NCS item). The 7-point scale of responses begins with Very Dissatisfied and concludes with Very Satisfied.

Work Climate Questionnaire

The WCQ as studied by Kirby, Knapper, Evans, Carty, and Gudula (2003) utilized three studies to evaluate the instrument. Baard et al. (2004) suggest the WCQ was adapted initially from two different studies. The first study by Williams, Grow, Freedman, Ryan, and Deci (1996) measured health care providers’ autonomy support as perceived by their patients (Cronbach’s alpha = .92), while the Williams and Deci (1996) study values the magnitude of encouragement students receive from their professor as perceived by the students (Cronbach’s alpha = .96).

Kirby et al. (2003) completed three studies focused on comparing the relationships between the Approaches to Work Questionnaire (AWQ) and WCQ. The first study focused on workers from various organizations while the second study focused upon a single, large employer. The third study sought to perfect and simplify the two instruments for future study.

Study 1. The first study employed a factor-analysis to develop a 3-factor solution utilizing maximum likelihood (ML) extraction and direct quartimin rotation to test the WCQ instrument (Kirby et al., 2003). Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999) recommend ML extraction because “it allows for the computation of a wide range of indexes of the goodness of fit of the model [and] permits statistical significance testing of factor loadings and correlations among factors and the computation of confidence intervals” (p. 277). The ML extraction assumes correlation coefficients residuals are normally distributed (de Winter & Dodou, 2012). In addition, the extraction assumes all error is sampling error (de Winter & Dodou, 2012). The ML approach weights
correlations by uniqueness similar to the generalized least squares method (de Winter & Dodou, 2012). Therefore, the ML approach allows for some inference about the population, the number of fit indices, and the confidence levels computed (Jackson & Chan, 1980).

The best method for determining the number of factors to retain for the rotation following the ML method is the scree test according to Costello and Osborne (2005). This test requires graphing the eigenvalues; break points tend to occur where the curve flattens (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The direct quartimin rotation is a type of oblique rotation (Brown, 2009). Oblique rotations assumes that factors are correlated resulting in correlations between the factors in addition to the loadings. The direct quartimin rotation produces fewer factors, and variables are more likely to be associated with more than one factor (Brown, 2009).

This first study focusing on various employees from a variety of employers achieved 3-, 4-, and 5-factor solutions (Kirby et al., 2003). The 3-factor solution consisted of supportive and receptive work environment, workloads, and workplace choice and independence. The 4-factor model included supportive environment, workloads, choice, and independence. The 5-factor solution included good supervision, clear expectations, workloads, choice, and independence. Kirby et al. (2003) used the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) to evaluate the model. The RMSEA is a common measure of fit in structural equation modeling (Kelly & Lai, 2011). There are three ways to evaluate RMSEA for fit: testing against the null hypothesis, comparing point estimates to cutoff values, or utilizing a specified confidence interval (Kelly & Lai, 2011). Kirby et al. (2003) found the 5-factor solution was a good fit and was optimal for the 40 items.
**Study 2.** This second study focused on employees within a large employer. A factor-analysis of the 40 items using ML extraction and direct quartimin rotation. A scree plot proposed 3-, 4-, and 5-factor solutions (Kirby et al., 2003). In this second study, the solution included workload, choice-independence (containing vocational relevance items), and supportive environment factors (containing good supervision, clear expectations, social network items, and others); but the results were less clear than the first study.

**Study 3.** This third study combined data from Study 1 and Study 2 in an effort to reduce the number of statements. Kirby et al. (2003) used the split-half method to test the statements for reliability. Again, the WCQ was factor-analyzed (Kirby et al., 2003). A 3-, 4-, 5-, and 6-factor solution was obtained; however, since the goal of this study was to produce a more efficient version of the WCQ the 3-factor solution attained acceptable fit. Therefore, the 3-factor solution based on the even numbered statements resulted in a 15-item solution that was chosen.

Baard et al. (2004) describe the WCQ as a measure of managers’ autonomy support as perceived by workers. The WCQ contains a long version containing 15 items and a short version containing six items (Self-Determination Theory, 2014). The six-question version of the WCQ consists of statements 1, 2, 4, 7, 10, and 14 from the 15-question version (Self-Determination Theory, 2014). Oostlander, Guntert, van Schie, and Wehner (2014) suggest that replacing *manager* with *supervisor* to adapt the questionnaire to the volunteer settings. Gagne (2003) and Haivas, Hofmans, and Pepermans (2012) utilized the WCQ in their research with volunteers.

The WCQ utilizes 7-point Likert-type scale (Oostlander et al., 2014). The questionnaire provides a way for volunteers to assess their perceived satisfaction level.
Statements include *I feel that my supervisor provides me choices and options*, *My supervisor encouraged me to ask questions*, and *My supervisor tries to understand how I see things before suggesting a new way to do things* (Baard et al., 2004). The 7-point scale of responses begins with *Very Dissatisfied* and concludes with *Very Satisfied*.

**Delivery Method for This Study**

The researcher utilized SurveyMonkey to create the survey and collect the responses. SurveyMonkey is an online survey tool, which assists the researcher with the design of electronic surveys. SurveyMonkey also provides features, which assisted in the data collection and real-time reporting through charts, graphs, and exporting capabilities. Furthermore, the messaging feature within SurveyMonkey allowed for tracking of survey responses and analytics of response rates. Participants embedded their responses into the electronic survey tool. Data was exported into *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet for compilation; then, data was exported into *IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (*SPSS*) *for Windows Software* for analysis and the development of charts and graphs of the results.

**Institutional Review Board Approval**

Preceding any contact with the study’s sample, the study was presented to The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Protection Review Committee for authorization. Participation in this study was voluntary, and participants could withdraw from this study at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits according to guidelines set forth by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The review process ensured study’s involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Approval was granted by the IRB as seen in Appendix B.
Data Collection

Due to multistage sampling, the action plan for data collection occurred in two stages. The researcher used an action plan for data collection to facilitate plan execution and data collection (Table 3.1). The first stage involved the Executive Pastors of the 2013 largest churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013). The first stage identified potential volunteer subjects for the second stage. The second stage surveyed current volunteers of the 100 largest churches to determine the volunteer’s job satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, the volunteer’s intent-to-continue, and several demographic characteristics.

Table 1

*Data Collection Plan*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Study Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Census of Executive Pastors</td>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Executive Pastors’ initial contact email; Census of Executive Pastors’ opens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey of Volunteers</td>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>Survey of Volunteers opens. Administer Survey of Volunteers through the Executive Pastors’ second contact email</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Administer Survey of Volunteers to non-responders through the Executive Pastors’ third contact email</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Day 1: Analyze responses to determine non-responders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Day 2: Morning phone calls of non-responders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>Week</td>
<td>Study Task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Day 3</td>
<td>Afternoon phone calls of non-responders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Day 4</td>
<td>Morning phone calls of non-responders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Day 5</td>
<td>Afternoon phone calls of non-responders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 5</td>
<td>If necessary: Administer Survey of Volunteers to non-responders through the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Executive Pastors’ final contact email</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 6</td>
<td>Census of Executive Pastors’ closes; Survey of volunteers closes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 7</td>
<td>Download data to SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 8 and 9</td>
<td>Analyze the data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week 10 and 11</td>
<td>Prepare report of results</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many large churches have a pastor who handles administrative pastoral duties, freeing the Senior Pastor up to pray, preach, and lead (Hawco, 2005; Keil, 2008).

Typically, this person’s title is the Executive Pastor (Keil, 2008). Through an Internet search, the Executive Pastors’ email addresses and contact information was obtained for the 100 largest churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013).

During the study, the researcher contacted the Executive Pastors up to five times. In an effort to increase participation and ensure attainment of appropriate information, the contacts occurred in the following chronological order:
1. **Executive Pastors’ initial contact email** – The researcher emailed an introduction letter to the Executive Pastors of the 100 largest Protestant churches in America. This Executive Pastors’ initial contact email included the purpose of the study, an explanation of benefits of the study, how the results would be used and commitment requirements (Appendix C). The email also explained confidentiality and voluntary participation. Additionally, the Executive Pastors’ initial contact email explained what information would be requested via email one week later. The Executive Pastors’ initial contact email provided early notification of the opportunity to participate (Dillman, 2000; Dillman, 2007; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009).

2. **Executive Pastors’ second contact email** – An Executive Pastor’s second contact email was sent one week later. The Executive Pastor’s second contact email contained the Survey of Volunteers and asked the Executive Pastor or their representative to forward the Survey of Volunteers link to 20 or more current volunteers who are 18 years or older and copy the researcher (Appendix D). The volunteers identified by the Executive Pastor were asked to participate in the current study via email, which sought to examine the relationship between satisfaction levels, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue.

3. **Executive Pastors’ third contact email** – If the researcher had not received the forwarded email containing the Survey of Volunteers link, the Executive Pastor’s third contact email was sent one week later. The Executive Pastor’s third contact email asked the Executive Pastor or their representative to forward the email containing the Survey of Volunteers link to 20 or more current volunteers 18 years or older and copy the researcher (Appendix E).
4. Executive Pastors’ phone contact – If the researcher had not received the forwarded email containing the Survey of Volunteers link within one week of the Executive Pastors’ third contact email, the researcher attempted to make contact via telephone up to four times. The phone contacts occurred on consecutive business days (Monday through Friday); attempts were alternated between morning and afternoon. If contact was unsuccessful, the church was removed from the study.

5. Executive Pastors’ final contact email – If the response rate was not met by week five, the researcher sent a final email to the Executive Pastors who had not copied the researcher in the forwarded email containing the Survey of Volunteers link. This final email requested the Executive Pastor or their representative forward the email containing the Survey of Volunteers link to 20 or more current volunteers 18 years or older and copy the researcher (Appendix F).

Both the Census of Executive Pastors’ and the Survey of Volunteers closed in the seventh week of data collection. The emails forwarded from the Census of the Executive Pastors by the Executive Pastors to current volunteers resulted in the study’s sample. The data was prepared for analysis.

The Data Analysis Plan (Table 2) displays the research objectives, the categories of data gathered, the specific statements in the surveys mapped to the associated research objectives, the statistical test to be used in the analysis the data, and the sources supplying the data. RO1 through RO4 was accomplished in the second survey stage. The plan outline presented in this chapter is adapted from Phillips (2012). The method for collecting the responses was an electronic census in the first sampling stage; the second sampling stage utilized an electronic survey.
Table 2

*Data Analysis Plan*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Objectives</th>
<th>Data Sources</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Data Category</th>
<th>Statistical Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RO1 Volunteers</td>
<td>Q79 - 84</td>
<td>Nominal(^a) and Interval(^b)</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics(^b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO2 Volunteers</td>
<td>VSI(^c) Q1 - 48</td>
<td>Interval(^d)</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics(^b) Cronbach’s alpha for consistency of ratings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO3 Volunteers</td>
<td>WCQ(^c) Q73-78</td>
<td>Interval(^d)</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics(^b) Cronbach’s alpha for consistency of ratings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO4 Volunteers</td>
<td>TCM(^c) Q49 - 72</td>
<td>Interval(^d)</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics(^b) Cronbach’s alpha for consistency of ratings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO5 Volunteers</td>
<td>Q1 - 78</td>
<td>3 Interval(^d)</td>
<td>Partial Correlation VSI, TCM, and WCQ(^c)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. \(^a\)Frequency distribution presented for nominal data. \(^b\)Descriptive statistics include: minimum and maximum score, mean, and standard deviation. \(^c\)VSI = Volunteer Satisfaction Index; WCQ = Work Climate Questionnaire; TCM = Three-Component Model of Commitment. \(^d\)Individual statements are ordinal. However, for the purposes of this study the scores are aggregated; therefore, the aggregated scores are treated as interval data.

*Confidentiality of Data*

The researcher will keep all information obtained from participants confidential and secured in the researcher’s office during this study (Phillips & Phillips, 2008). Only the researcher had access to any identifying information and treated all data in the aggregate form. The researcher secured the digital data in password protected electronic formats. After a period of one year, the researcher will delete all digital data.

*Data Analysis*

Data analysis embodies the scientific process within research. Its purpose is to establish links between a study’s research objectives and the study’s outcomes (Parikh,
2002). For compilation purposes, the information was exported into Microsoft Excel; then, the data was exported for statistical analysis and reporting using SPSS. The Data Analysis Plan (Table 3.2) related each research objective to specific survey and identified the data category and statistical test for statistical analysis.

Descriptive statistics were reported on demographic data (RO1) and all three variables (RO2, RO3, and RO4) within the 100 largest Protestant churches in America in 2013 as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013). To indicate the internal consistency of the ratings, Cronbach’s alphas were computed on the variables for RO2, RO3, and RO4 (volunteer’s satisfaction, influence of a volunteer coordinator and volunteer’s intent-to-continue). The survey instrument for volunteers utilized Likert-type scale statements (Boone & Boone, 2012; Huck, 2012) to collect data for RO2, RO3, and RO4. A 7-point scale was used for the Likert-type responses.

When individual statements are handled individually, Likert-type responses provide non-interval data (Huck, 2012). This non-interval data has no defined distance between the ratings (Boone & Boone, 2012). The statistical tests available to Likert-type responses are limited to tests appropriate for ordinal data such as descriptive statistics and non-parametric test (Boone & Boone, 2012; Huck, 2012). Other tests for ordinal data are descriptive statistics, which focus on describing phenomenon or characteristics of subject (Belli, 2009). Additionally, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the sample, demographic variables, volunteer satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue taken from the survey instrument for volunteers.

Ordinal response statements when summated generate empirically interval scales (Carifio & Perla, 2007; Clason & Dormody, 1994). This finding is particularly true when the following conditions exists: a 5- to 7-point Likert response format, Likert-like
scale statements expressing both positive and negative opinions or sentiments, with scales exhibiting acceptable levels of internal consistency (Carifio & Perla, 2007; Pell, 2005). Therefore, the application of parametric techniques to Likert-type non-parametric data is appropriate if the assumptions are clear and the data is of the appropriate size and shape (Boone & Boone, 2012; Pell, 2005). Jamieson (2004) points out Likert-type scales are often skewed or polarized distributions (shapes). The VSI, the WCQ, and the TCM utilize a 7-point Likert response format. The TCM contains both positive and negative responses.

Parametric statistics are considered to be more powerful, sensitive, and less likely to miss weaker findings in comparison to non-parametric statistics (Carifio & Perla, 2008; McCrum-Gardner, 2008; Vickers, 2005). Therefore, the selection of a parametric statistical test was selected for the more complex analysis of RO5 in an effort to increase the power and sensitive of the study. The current study’s survey data is ordinal data since individual responses to each question indicate a greater than relationship (Boone & Boone, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). However, the scale does not indicate how much greater than; it does not express any relative distance between each scale point (Boone & Boone, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). Furthermore, it is incorrect to assume an equal interval between responses (Jamieson, 2004). However, summed survey data for each variable and individual creates Likert scale data in order to represent the constructs in statements (Carifio & Perla, 2007; Carifio & Perla, 2008).

Validity and Reliability

Fink (2003a) describes survey reliability as producing consistent results over time, while a valid survey simply measures what it reports to measure. Measurement instruments used to collect data must be both reliable and valid (Fink, 2003a; Huck, 2005).
The instruments used in this study were the WCQ (Kirby et al., 2003), the TCM (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991), and the VSI (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Utilizing established measures from recognized valid surveys support an instrument’s reliability and content validity (Fink, 2003a).

**Census Instrument for Executive Pastors**

Internal validity addresses measures taken within the study’s design and implementation to ensure the study properly answers the questions it claims to answer using the information collected (Swanson & Holton, 2005). One threat to internal validity is attrition (also called mortality). Mortality refers to participants who do not complete the survey. Mortality is a subset of selection bias occurring after selection; however, random selection does not control for mortality (Fink, 2003c; Shadish et al., 2002). The researcher anticipated mortality due to issues such as solicitation, timing, and sharing of private information.

**Survey Instrument for Volunteers**

The goal of validity is for the study’s conclusions about empirical reality to be correct (Schutt, 2012). Shadish et al. (2002) break validity up into four aspects: statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity, and external validity. This section describes three threats relevant to the correlation between volunteer satisfaction, intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator. **Statistical Conclusion Validity.** Shadish et al. (2002) describe statistical conclusion validity as “the validity of inferences about the correlation (co-variation) between treatment and outcome” (p. 38). The threat this researcher is concerned about in regards to types of statistical conclusion validity is low statistical power. Relationships found in populations are tested by statistical power. Low statistical power leads to less precise effect size estimates, which
measures the strength of the relationship between variables (Huck, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). The greater the effect size the more likely deviations will be detected (Schutt, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). However, when researchers anticipate very strong relationships between the variables, they can utilize smaller sample sizes (Schutt, 2012). To address low statistical power, this researcher used a larger than required sample size.

**Internal Validity.** One threat to internal validity is selection bias. Selection bias explains people within groups typically share similar characteristics just by being in particular groups (Fink, 2003c). This threat entangles the effects within the population (Shadish et al., 2002). Selection bias is the result of using a non-randomly selected sample instead of the sample being randomly selected (Fink, 2003c; Schutt, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). Another threat to internal validity is attrition (also called mortality). Mortality refers to participants who do not complete the survey. Mortality is a subset of selection bias occurring after selection; however, random selection does not control for mortality (Fink, 2003c; Shadish et al., 2002). This researcher had some concerns over the 84-question survey leading to increased levels of mortality.

**External Validity.** External validity is concerned with the cause and effect relationships between variables (Shadish et al., 2002). An external validity threat this researcher was concerned about is reactivity. Reactivity is concerned with the survey responses and the participants’ perceptions. Therefore, survey results included participant perceptions entangled within their responses (Shadish et al., 2002). Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) recommend several ways to reduce problems associated with reactivity, which includes finding alternative ways to satisfy participant’s desires to please and making the experience less threatening in an effort to reduce apprehensions. In an effort to address reactivity, the researcher emphasized anonymity of the responses. Anonymity
was achieved by not collecting any identifying information from the participant or from the church. Furthermore, the Executive Pastors had no access to the results and they could not determine who had participated in the survey. In an effort to lower the potential participants stress, their Executive Pastor was used to recruit them. The study was designed in such a way to eliminate contact between the unknown researcher and the participant. This should have lower any anxiety or threats perceived by the survey participant and lowered the participants desire to please organizational leadership.

Reliability. Reliability refers to the instrument’s consistency; the degree to which an instrument is free from random error (Fink, 2003e; Huck, 2012; Schutt, 2012). Test-retest (intra-observer reliability), internal consistency (inter-item reliability), alternate forms, and inter-observer evaluate reliability within a survey (Fink, 2003a; Fink, 2003d; Schutt, 2012). Huck (2012) advises different reliability tests should be used to analyze for reliability because different tests address consistency from different points of view (Huck, 2012). Utilizing a couple of different methods looks at the data’s reliability from different perspectives (Huck, 2012). In an effort to determine the study’s reliability, the researcher ran Cronbach’s alpha to test for reliability. Additionally, the standard error of measurement was evaluated. Various statistical measures tested the reliability and validity of measures after the fact to access the quality of the information obtained in this study (Schutt, 2012).

Summary

This cross-sectional, non-experimental, descriptive research study seeks to determine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue for volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches as identified by OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in
America 2013” list (Lifeway, 2013). This researcher decided to use multistage sampling since there were an unknown number of volunteers in the 100 largest churches. In the first stage, the Executive Pastors of the 100 largest churches identified and selected 20 or more of their current volunteers over the age of 18 to survey. The second stage surveyed were the volunteers selected by the Executive Pastors. Questions covered volunteer’s job satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, demographics, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. An electronic survey collected the data.

The researcher utilized Microsoft Excel to compile data. SPSS software was used to analyze and report the survey data. Parametric tests and descriptive statistics including medians and frequencies and parametric statistic including means and standard deviations for specific statements were employed in this analysis. In addition, a partial correlation was used to test the relationship among the influence of a volunteer coordinator, a volunteer’s satisfaction, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

The researcher conducted research to ascertain the relationship between three variables: satisfaction, intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator. Specifically, this research sought to examine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue among current volunteers of the 100 largest Protestant churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America 2013”* list (Lifeway, 2013). Multi-item assessments were utilized to quantify the volunteer’s perceptions (for the construct of satisfaction and the volunteer coordinator’s influence) and intentions (for the construct of intent-to-continue), respectively.

The study used the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI) to measure volunteer’s satisfaction rate as perceived by the volunteer (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Allen and Meyer’s (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCM) evaluated volunteer’s intent-to-continue through affective, continuance, and normative perspectives. Finally, the Work Climate Questionnaire (WCQ) was used to value volunteers’ perceptions of their volunteer coordinator’s influence (Baard et al., 2004).

This chapter presents a review of how the survey data was analyzed along with a summary of the demographics of the sample. The statistical tests employed to answer the research objects are briefly reviewed. Finally, the results of the tests are presented.
Response Rate

Since the population of volunteers in the churches identified by OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America 2013” list (Lifeway, 2013) was not known nor identifiable by the researcher, multistage sampling framework was utilized to identify and engage the population of interest. The sample of prospective volunteers for stage two was a result of the census of Executive Pastors of the 100 largest Protestant churches in America as identified by OutReach Magazine (Lifeway, 2013) in stage one. The census of Executive Pastors requested the Executive Pastors forward the survey link to 20 or more of their current volunteers 18 years or older.

First Sampling Stage

The medium of communication with the Executive Pastors was email. The researcher included a Read Receipt of each email in an effort to track email receipt. Of the 100 churches on the OutReach Magazine list, four churches never responded to the email requests for their church to participate in this research. Therefore, they were removed from the study. Another 10 churches declined to participate after they reviewed the survey. Of the churches that declined to participate, the researcher received a Read Receipt notice indicating one church blocked the researcher’s email address. The remaining nine churches declined to participate citing similar reasons, which was that they did not want to frustrate or spam their volunteers. They all indicated they reserve email communications with volunteers for infrequent, essential matters. These 10 churches were removed from the study. Therefore, the first sampling stage resulted in 14 churches being removed from the study; so 86 participating churches remained, which exceeded the sample size calculator (Raosoft, 2004) recommendation of 80 participating
churches to achieve a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error for a finite population.

**Second Sampling Stage**

For the second sampling stage, each participating Executive Pastor \((n = 86)\) was asked to forward the survey link to 20 or more of their current volunteers 18 years or older. A sample size calculator (Raosoft, 2004) recommended 377 completed surveys given an unknown population and to ensure a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error. Since 14 of the original 100 churches chose not to participate \((n = 86)\), the targeted sample size equals 1,720. The link received 564 responses to the consent question (560 agreed to the consent question; four disagreed to the consent question). Of the 564 who responded to the survey, 424 (24.7%) completed the survey. The survey’s non-response rate equals 1,296 (75.3%).

**Data Analysis**

The survey consisted of four parts: VSI, TCM, WCQ, and demographic questions. Each of the aforementioned scales employs differing quantities of statements (VSI, 48; TCM, 24; WCQ, 6). Since the survey scales varied widely, composite scores provided numerical validity between the Likert scale data (Boone & Boone, 2012; Carifio & Perla, 2007).

The survey was distributed via email request from the participating Executive Pastors \((n = 86)\) of the 100 largest churches as identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013) sent to 20 or more of the church’s current volunteer 18 years or older. The survey was administered electronically utilizing SurveyMonkey to collect the responses. Data was exported into *Microsoft Excel* spreadsheet for compilation; then, data was exported into *SPSS* for analysis.
All three sets of scales in the current study (volunteer satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, volunteer’s intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer) used a 7-point Likert response format. All three scales exhibit validity across multiple research settings. Additionally, the TCM includes Likert scale statement expressing both positive and negative attitudes. Of the 24 statements in the TCM, nine are negatively or reversely worded (Jaros, 2007). Negatively or reversely worded statements in survey design is employed to thwart consenting behavior, which is often practiced by survey participant agreeing more than they disagree with survey statements (Barnette, 2000; Cronbach, 1950). In order to ensure common direction for the averaged variable ratings, statements 52, 53, 54, 56, 57, 60, 66, 67, and 72 are negatively or reversely worded. When the survey was built in SurveyMonkey, the researcher assigned numerical values for each label scale contained in the survey. Therefore, SurveyMonkey handled each label scale as follows:

- **Very Dissatisfied and Strongly Disagree** = 1
- **Dissatisfied and Disagree** = 2
- **Somewhat Dissatisfied and Somewhat Disagree** = 3
- **Undecided and Neither Disagree nor Agree** = 4
- **Somewhat Satisfied and Somewhat Agree** = 5
- **Satisfied and Agree** = 6
- **Very Satisfied and Strongly Agree** = 7

By reversing the values of each reversely worded statement or reversely coded statement during the survey design, SurveyMonkey automatically handled the negatively or reversely coded statements. This process ensures common direction of all ratings;
however, this researcher spot-checked the nine reversely worded on every twentieth survey to ensure accuracy.

Descriptive Statistics

To describe the demographic data representing the characteristics of the volunteer sample (tenure, gender, marital status, age, ethnicity, and education level) and the study’s constructs (volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, volunteer’s intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer’s coordinator as perceived by the volunteer), basic descriptive statistical analysis were produced for each construct. The descriptive statistic of the three constructs and the characteristic of tenure included: number of participants, mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum. However, the characteristics of gender, marital status, ethnicity, and education level are described in terms of number of participants and percentages due to the nominal nature of these characteristics.

Cronbach’s alpha

Cronbach’s alpha measures the internal consistency within a study (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). It contributes to the study’s reliability by verifying the contributions of each variable (Sprinthall, 2012). As a reliability measure, Cronbach’s alpha accomplished this by individually assessing each item for variability (Schutt, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). Similarly, summated scales demonstrate consistency in the constructs being assessed (Malhotra, 1996). Research suggests Cronbach’s alpha values between .70 and .95 are acceptable (Bland & Altman, 1997; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Because the length of the survey affects Cronbach’s alpha, long scales tend to exhibit higher Cronbach’s alphas (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Streiner (2003) suggests surveys producing Cronbach’s alpha values in excess of .90 are repetitive; he suggests shortening the test instrument.
**Partial correlation**

A partial correlation was utilized to understand the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer exerts on the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer and volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The purpose of the partial correlation is to measure the degree of association between variables while controlling for a variable (Tate, 1954). Partial correlations test the degree in which interval variables are linearly related, segmenting out the effects of one or more of the control variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). The implementation of the partial correlation occurs in two steps. First, the magnitude of the correlation between the three variables is calculated (volunteer’s satisfaction, volunteer’s intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator). Then, the correlation between the two dependent variables (volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue) is analyzed by controlling for the effects of the controlled for variable (the influence of a volunteer coordinator). Additionally, partial correlations are a type of parametric statistical test (Green & Salkind, 2011; Field, 2009).

**Results**

*Research Objective One (RO1)*

RO1 described the demographic characteristics of participants including age, ethnicity, education level, gender, marital status, and tenure. Due to the nominal nature of gender, marital status, ethnicity, and education level, only the numbers and percentages were available for descriptions. The following tables describe the participants demographically. Taken together, these tables meet the requirements for RO1. The figures are visual representations of the results as such they are visual interpretations of the tables.
After exporting the survey data to Microsoft Excel, the researcher converted the value for Tenure Month(s) to a decimal equivalent by dividing the Tenure Month(s) by twelve. Then, the Tenure Year(s) summed with the Tenure Month(s) to achieve a decimal representation of Tenure. Finally, the researcher exported survey data in Microsoft Excel to SPSS for analysis. Table 3 shows the average tenure of the study’s participating volunteers was 7 years, 3 months. However, data representing this characteristic was spread over much of the scale. The majority of volunteers in this study volunteered with their church between 1 year, 8 months and 12 years, 11 months. Almost 27% of these volunteers have served in their church for 3 years, 6 months or less; half of the respondents have volunteered for 5 years, 6 months at their church; and 76.2% have volunteered at their church for 10 years or less.

Table 3

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Tenure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>7.281</td>
<td>5.633</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>41.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Approximately 66% (n = 280) of this study’s participants were female (Table 4).

Additionally, 77.6% (n = 329) of the responses were married people. Single; Never Married and Divorced responses consisted of 9.2% (n = 39) and 10.1% (n = 43), respectively (Table 5). The age range of the participants in this study, like tenure, spread across the scale. 76.1% (n = 323) of the survey’s participants were between the ages of 36 and 65, very much a middle-aged group. Young adults ages 18-25 and 26-35 consisted of 2.4% (n = 10) and 10.4% (n = 44) of the sample, respectively. Additionally, as seen in Table 6, senior adults (volunteers over the age of 65) comprised 10.8% (n = 46) of the
respondents. Table 8 shows that 79.5% (n = 337) of the responding volunteers are Caucasian. In addition, survey participants include African Americans (8%; n = 34), Mexican American (3.1%; n = 13), and Other Hispanic (4.2%; n = 18). The final descriptive characteristic considered in this study was the education levels of the volunteers (Table 7). The respondents to this study are highly educated. Table 8 shows 91.7% (n = 379) of the responding volunteers are White. In addition, survey participants include African Americans (8%; n = 34), Mexican American (3.1%; n = 13), and Other Hispanic (4.2%; n = 18). The final descriptive characteristic considered in this study was the education levels of the volunteers (Table 7). The respondents to this study are highly educated. Table 8 shows 91.7% (n = 379) of the volunteers indicated they had Some College (Including Community College) or more education, while 6.8% (n = 29) of the respondent only had a High School education.

![Histogram of Volunteer Tenure](image)

*Figure 2.* Tenure of the Volunteers. This figure depicts the number of participants within the identified tenure (in years and months) categories. The graph’s positive skew indicating that many of the study’s participants have not been in their volunteer positions very long.
Table 4

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Gender of the Volunteers. The figure depicts the percentage of the study’s participants within the two categories (female and male). Over half (n = 280) of the study’s participants are female.

Table 5

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single; Never Married</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>77.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living with Partner; Not Married</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4. Marital Status of the Volunteers. The figure depicts the percentage of the study’s participants within the marital status categories. Over 75% (n = 329) of the volunteers are married.

Table 6

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Age Range

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 – 25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 35</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 45</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 – 55</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 – 65</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 – 75</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76 – 85</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86 – 95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older than 95</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 5. Age Range of the Volunteers. The figure depicts the percentage of the study’s participant’s age ranges. The ages of the participants in this study are normally distributed.

Table 7

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaskan Native</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian American/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laotian</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican American</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Hispanic</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6. Ethnicity of the Volunteers. The figure depicts the percentage of the study’s participants across the ethnic categories. The participants of this study are overwhelmingly Caucasian; although, the study’s participants are diverse.

Table 8

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Education Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less Than High School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College (Includes Community College)</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Graduate</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree(s)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7. Education Level of the Volunteers. The figure depicts the percentage of the participant’s education level. The participants are highly educated volunteers. Over 90% (n = 379) of the volunteers have at least some college education.

Research Objectives Two, Three, and Four (RO2, RO3, RO4)

The purpose of RO2, RO3, and RO4 was to describe the constructs (the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue). The scales utilized in the implementation of RO2, RO3, and RO4 are 7-point Likert response formats. The response formats indicated the survey participant’s level of agreement from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." SPSS converted the responses into a value between one and seven, respectively. While the data for TCM exhibited a wide range on the rating scales with a range of 3.64, the ranges of VSI (1.566) and WCQ (.663) fell within a much...
narrower range. However, the majority of the responses clustered tightly around the average construct result as expressed by the standard deviations (VSI, .77; TCM, .69; and WCQ, 1.11).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics: Volunteer’s Satisfaction, Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue, and Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min Mean</th>
<th>Max Mean</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer’s Satisfaction (VSI)</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue (TCM)</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator (WCQ)</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: VSI = Volunteer Satisfaction Index; TCM = Three-Component Model of Commitment; WCQ = Work Climate Questionnaire

To measure the internal consistency and internal reliability, Cronbach’s alpha were calculated and showed acceptable levels of internal consistency and internal reliability for all three variables. All Cronbach’s alphas were acceptable based on Bland and Altman (1997). The VSI and WCQ may contain redundant statements based on Streiner (2003). He recommends reducing the number of statements in the survey instrument (Streiner, 2003). The Cronbach’s alpha for both volunteer’s satisfaction as measured by VSI (.98) and influence of a volunteer coordinator as measured by WCQ (.94) reported in Table 9 are high.
Research Objective Five (RO5)

RO5 sought to determine the relationship between the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue volunteering with the church. A partial correlation was employed to identify the relationship between the variables (volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer and volunteer’s intent-to-continue) while controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer. The zero-order correlation (Table 10) is a measure of the relationship between multiple variables concurrently (Celine, 2013). When correlational coefficients ($r$) are significant, Guilford’s (as cited in Sprinthall, 2012) interpretation for $r$ can be used to understand the strength and direction of the relationships. The zero-order correlation indicated a significant, positive relationship exists amongst the combination of any two variables $r(422)$.

- Volunteer’s satisfaction and influence of a volunteer coordinator were strongly positively correlated, $r(422) = .68, p < .01$.

- Volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue were strongly, positively correlated, $r(422) = .45, p < .01$

- Volunteer’s intent-to-continue and influence of a volunteer coordinator were moderately, positively correlated, $r(422) = .35, p < .01$.

Table 10

Zero-Order Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator</th>
<th>Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer’s Satisfaction</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>.684*</td>
<td>.447*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10 (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator</th>
<th>Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>.351*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Note: *p < .01, two-tailed.

The partial correlation (Table 11) compared the volunteer’s satisfaction and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue while controlling for the variable influence of a volunteer coordinator. The relationship remained positive and significant, $r(421) = .3, p < .01$, although the strength of the relations weakened slightly compared with the zero-order relationship. Therefore, the observed relationship between the volunteer’s satisfaction and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue does not completely explain the influence of a volunteer coordinator.

Table 11

**Partial Correlation Controlling for the Volunteer Coordinator Effect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Controlling for the Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer’s Satisfaction</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>.302*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .01, two-tailed.

Variances were calculated and compared to determine the impact on the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator. Squaring the correlational coefficient provided in the zero-order correlation produced the coefficient of determination ($r^2$) (Rummel, 1976). According to Rummel (1976), this variance explains the percentage of the relationship attributed to the variables. The variance in the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue was 20%
according to the zero-order correlation. The partial correlation found controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator accounts for 9.1% of the variance. Therefore, the influence of a volunteer coordinator does not account for all of the variation in the relationship between the volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue in this study. There appeared to be other factors influencing this relationship. A complex relationship appears to exist amongst the three variables.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of the volunteer’s coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue for volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches as identified by *OutReach Magazine’s* “The Largest Churches in America 2013” list (Lifeway, 2013). The study utilized a multistage sample to identify and survey the participants over a six-week period. In stage one, the Executive Pastors of each church were asked to send the survey to 20 or more current volunteers age 18 years or older. In stage two, the participant completed an electronic survey via SurveyMonkey, which included statements on their satisfaction, their intent-to-continue, and the influence of their volunteer coordinator.

The results of the survey suggested volunteer coordinators influence both the satisfaction levels of volunteers and their intent-to-continue. The Cronbach’s alpha scores indicated acceptable internal consistency. The correlation between the volunteer’s satisfaction and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer was positive and statistically significant at the .01 level. The correlation between the volunteer’s intent-to-continue volunteering with the church and the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer was positive and statistically
significant at the .01 level. The zero-order correlation suggested the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue was 20%; whereas, the partial correlation indicated controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator accounted for 9.1% of the relationship. This result was a decreased positive correlation between volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue when the effects of the influence of a volunteer coordinator were controlled. Therefore, the result of the current study suggests the influence of a volunteer coordinator explained some of the effects on the relationship between volunteer’s satisfaction and volunteer’s intent-to-continue, indicating the importance of understanding complex relationship forming the volunteer’s experience. This relationship will be discussed further in Chapter V.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

Chapters I through IV presented the statement of the problem, research objectives, conceptual framework, significance of the study, associated literature review, research methodology, and research findings. In the section that follows, a summary of the study is presented along with the findings. Conclusions are discussed, and practical recommendations for addressing the issues raised in the research are proposed. Discussions of possible reasons for the results within the particular research settings are provided. Finally, the researcher reviews the limitations of the research, suggests additional areas for study, and confirms the importance of continued research.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue for volunteers among the 100 largest Protestant churches as identified by OutReach Magazine’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America 2013” list (Lifeway, 2013). The research applied a descriptive, non-experimental research design. Furthermore, the research utilized multistage sampling to identify the sample to which a cross-sectional, electronic survey was self-administered.

Summary of the Study

Traditionally, American churches have been small organizations in terms of programs, size, organizational structure, and management (Beaumont, 2011; Compton, 2003; Schaller, 2000). Over the past four decades, some churches have experienced significant growth in attendance leading to the mega-church (Thumma, 1996).
In a majority of churches, both large and small, due to the scarcity of financial resources, the available workforce grows through volunteers (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Eisner et al., 2009; Machin & Paine, 2008). As the size of the church and volunteer workforce grows, formalized management and human resource management (HRM) approaches are needed to organize and administer the efforts of this critical, large asset in order for the mission’s advancement (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012; Drucker, 1989; Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon, 2002). Churches supplement volunteers with paid workers (Costa et al., 2006; Hwang & Powell, 2009). The strategy results in volunteers and members shifting responsibility for ministry to the community from themselves to a paid workforce (Wilson & Janoski, 1995). This shift in responsibility results in a reduced volunteer force, adversely affects the church’s financial resources, and reduces its ability to fulfill its mission (Brudney & Kellough, 2000; Cnaan et al., 2002).

A review of the literature produced several concerns, including the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). The aforementioned concerns are problems in large churches because as churches grow larger the commitment level of its members deteriorates (Finke, 1994; Wilken, 1971). Researchers suggest this decline results from a loss of control, a decrease in accountability, and waning social incentives for members (Finke, 1994; Knoke, 1981). Thus, within large churches, an opportunity exists for the organizations to increase volunteerism simply by reducing volunteer turnover or increasing the number of volunteers whom intend to continue (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).
In the current study, perceptions of volunteer satisfaction, the influence of a volunteer coordinator, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue were collected to address five research objectives. Research Objective One describes the demographic characteristics of the study’s participants. Research Objectives Two, Three, and Four investigate the volunteers’ satisfaction, the influence of volunteer coordinators, and volunteers’ intent-to-continue. Research Objective Five examines the relationship between (a) volunteers’ satisfaction with the volunteer experience, (b) influence of a volunteer coordinator, and (c) volunteers’ intent-to-continue volunteering with the church as perceived by the volunteer.

Over a 6-week period, this study utilized an electronic, self-administered survey comprised of previously validated statements for each construct. Of the 100 largest churches identified by *OutReach Magazine* (Lifeway, 2013), 86 churches chose to participate by sending the survey to at least 20 current volunteers 18 year or older resulting in the targeted sample size of 1,720. Of the eligible participants, 424 voluntarily completed the survey for a response rate of 24.7%. *SPSS* was used to analyze the data received from the completed surveys.

Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

*Demographic Descriptor Findings (ROI)*

The average tenure of this study’s participants was 7 years, 3 months. However, half of the respondents have volunteered for 5 years, 6 months at their church. Sixty-six percent of this study’s participants were female, while 77.6% of the respondents were married. The age ranges of the participants in this study were overwhelmingly (76.1%) middle-aged (between the ages of 36 and 65). The respondents indicated they were *Caucasian, 79.5%*. Finally, 91.7% of the volunteers indicated they had *Some College*
including Community College) or more education. As a result, the typical participant in this study would be a highly educated, married, white female between the ages of 36 and 65.

Conclusions. The aforementioned, findings are similar to descriptions of volunteers reported in other studies (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014; Freeman, 1997; Hayghe, 1991; Hettman & Jenkins, 1990; Rotolo, 2000; Smith, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Although, socio-economic variables were not included in this study, this researcher believes the churches identified by OutReach Magazine (Lifeway, 2013) as the 100 Largest Churches in America are comprised of members and volunteers who are at least middle class. Additionally, the researcher believes the education levels offer support of this belief, which would correspond with the findings from similar studies (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014; Rotolo, 2000; Smith, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997).

Recommendation 1. Replicate this study in other Protestant churches that are smaller than the 100 largest Protestant churches. Studies involving smaller churches would begin to bring geographical (non-micropolitan and non-metropolitan areas) diversity, which could lead to demographic diversity.

Recommendation 2. Future studies should include in the collection of demographic data, socio-economic data such as levels of household income as well as levels of employment in an attempt to explain the participants’ demographics.

Volunteer Satisfaction, Volunteer Intent-to-Continue, and Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator Findings (RO2, RO3, and RO4)

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) proposed that volunteers continued volunteering until they became dissatisfied. At dissatisfaction, volunteers make several behavioral decisions in regards to their volunteering efforts. According to researchers,
these decisions include exit, voice, loyalty, or neglect (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). A volunteer’s decision to exit means they begin considering quitting, they begin looking for or thinking about a different job, or they quit (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Voice is the decision to actively and constructively communicate their frustration(s) in order to improve the organization or the situation. Loyalty is a wait and see decision to see if frustration(s) will resolve themselves (Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Neglect is another form of passivity; however, neglect does not carry the hope for improved conditions (Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Neglect manifests itself as a reduction of interest and effort, an increase in absence or tardiness, or an increased error rate (Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Rusbult et al. (1988) sees voice and loyalty responses as helpful responses in which the volunteer attempts to maintain satisfactory work conditions (Rusbult et al., 1988; Spencer, 1986). However, exit and neglect are extremely destructive (Rusbult et al., 1988).

The scale used to score the volunteers participating in this study’s perception of their satisfaction indicates they are satisfied. Additionally, the range of the results are weighted to the right of neutral with the minimum mean exceeding the neutral ranking. The lowest minimum mean satisfaction rating by the volunteers scored as Somewhat Agree in terms of their satisfaction levels. No average satisfaction rating by any volunteer indicated these volunteers were anything other than satisfied.

For the scale measuring a volunteer’s intent-to-continue, the volunteers ranked themselves as Somewhat Agree indicating they intend to continue volunteering. The range in this scale is much wider and the mean is slightly higher than the neutral rating.
The intent-to-continue scale indicates that some volunteers are exhibiting waning levels of commitment. Hence, they could be expressing the behaviors of voice and/or loyalty currently. As a result, they may be at risk of exit or neglect behaviors if their volunteer experience does not improve. The behaviors of exit and neglect are extremely destructive to the organization (Rusbult et al., 1988).

When assessing the influence of a volunteer coordinator, the study’s participants indicated they felt supported (Agree) by their coordinator. The mean is well above the neutral and heavily weighted toward the agreement scale. The influence of a volunteer coordinator’s minimum mean was the highest of all the variables resulting in the smallest range.

Conclusions. Volunteer satisfaction is simply the gap between the expectations of volunteering and the actual results of volunteering (Chelladurai, 1999; Farrell et al., 1998). Research suggests volunteers continue volunteering until they become dissatisfied and then they begin considering options of neglect, voice, loyalty or exit (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). This study found participating volunteers rate their satisfaction with their volunteer experiences as Somewhat Agree. This level of satisfaction seems to be reflected in the tenures of the participants. Therefore, the scores indicated the participating volunteers perceived their volunteer experience met their expectations, which explains the volunteer’s level of satisfaction (Omoto & Snyder, 1990; Seashore & Taber, 1975).

Whereas satisfaction changes with each volunteer experience, intent-to-continue is a summative measure of the volunteer’s experience over a longer period (Mowday et al., 1982). As such, it is a more accurate and stable predictor of behavior than a volunteer’s satisfaction level (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Steers & Porter, 1975; Vroom,
1964). As mentioned above, the participants in this study perceived their intent-to-continue level as *Somewhat Agree*. It is important to note, this *Somewhat Agree* is the lowest level of a firm intent-to-continue by the volunteer, one level lower (neither *Disagree nor Agree*) expresses uncertainty about their intentions to return. Therefore, despite being satisfied, some of these participating volunteers are evaluating their intent-to-continue, but most of these volunteers intend on returning.

Volunteer coordinators exert influence upon a volunteer’s experience (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a). This influence comes in the form of support, input, and organization controlled by the volunteer coordinator (Sheard, 1996). Volunteer coordinators who work on volunteer systems and processes and spend time working with volunteers (Ellis, 1996a), leverage the skills of the volunteers resulting in more volunteerism (Leonard et al., 2004) and satisfaction (Deci et al., 1989). Most participants selected *Somewhat Agree* and *Agree* with very few participants using the other label rankings. The maximum mean (average score) shows that volunteers rated the volunteer coordinators well above the neutral category indicating that the volunteers feel as though their coordinator provide high levels of support.

**Recommendation 1.** Replicate the study using future lists of *OutReach Magazine*’s “The largest 100 Churches in America” to create a longitudinal study design. A longitudinal study would explain three things: how volunteer perceptions change over time, the direction of any change, and the magnitude of the causal relationships (Menard, 2002). Additionally, a multi-year study of volunteer perceptions would separate short-term occurrences from long-term experiences. The researcher anticipates the majority of the churches would be the same from year to year; however, a couple of churches may make the list each year at the expense of a couple of churches falling off the list each
year. In addition, the researcher anticipates the church’s rank may vary from year to year. By replicating the study over time, the study’s design would become longitudinal which would provide deeper meaning potentially identifying causal relationships.

**Recommendation 2.** According to Knoke (1981), support decreases in larger organizations. Other research indicates communication lags and incorrect assumptions occur in larger organizations (Ellison et al., 2009; Wilken, 1971; Williamson, 1967). The participants in this study reported high levels of influence or support from their volunteer coordinator. Therefore, in an effort to identify best practices, the researcher recommends a qualitatively designed study focusing on the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer. Such a study could identify specific behaviors of the volunteer coordinators perceived by volunteers as influential. Additionally, this researcher anticipates that size related differences would surface in the various practices employed by the volunteer coordinator. A qualitatively designed study would identify any differences in the influence of a volunteer coordinator based on volunteer’s perceptions that surface due to differences related to the size of the church.

**Recommendation 3.** Intent-to-continue reflects the worker’s attitudes and thoughts about the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). Some research conceptualizes intent-to-continue as a behavioral factor, while other research describes intent-to-continue as an attitudinal factor (Becker G. S., 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Morrow, 1983; Mowday et al., 1979). Meyer and Allen’s (1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCM) measures what they call the three components of intent-to-continue. These components are affective, continuance, and normative. This study only evaluated the intent-to-continue or TCM instrument as an aggregated value. Future research should consider the relationship between the volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the
volunteer and these three components of intent-to-continue individually, while controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer. This analysis would explain the affective (sense of emotional attachments), continuance (obligatory feelings), and normative (feelings of responsibility) components making up the volunteer’s intent-to-continue ratings (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008).

Volunteer Satisfaction and Volunteer Intent-to-Continue Controlling for the Influence of a Volunteer Coordinator Findings (RO5)

The participating volunteers rated their perception of their satisfaction, their perception of the volunteer coordinator’s influence, and their intent-to-continue consistently high. The zero-order correlations showed the three variables were positively correlated and significant with respect to each other. The partial correlation showed that controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator affects the volunteer’s satisfaction level and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue as perceived by the volunteer.

Conclusions. Various studies have found a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and employee intent-to-continue (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003). As reported above, the zero-order correlation found the variables were significant and positively correlated; however, the partial correlation indicated that controlling for the influence of a volunteer coordinator alone does not completely account for the effects of this relationship. Therefore, this researcher concludes that other factors appear to influence this relationship.

Other important influencers include the context of the work itself, social support, the influence of a coordinator, and client issues (Ozminkowski et al., 1991; Smith et al., 1969; Stevens, 1991). Additionally, research suggests satisfaction is influenced by motivation (Farrell et al., 1998; Porter & Lawler, 1968) and the influence of a coordinator.
exhibited a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). The volunteer experience is a complex network of factors. Therefore, multiple variables fuse together to build the positive experience resulting in the volunteer’s intent-to-continue.

**Recommendation 1.** It is recommended that this study’s design be replicated substituting the variables of social support, client issues, and work context for the variables of satisfaction and intent-to-continue. Since research suggests a relationship exists between these variables, the researcher suggests evaluating the influence of a volunteer coordinator on these variables (Ozminkowski et al., 1991; Smith et al., 1969; Stevens, 1991).

**Recommendation 2.** The elevated Cronbach’s alpha of the satisfaction scale indicated multiple redundant statements. Streiner (2003) recommends reducing the number of statements in the scale to lower the Cronbach’s alpha. This researcher recommends a redesign of this survey instrument reducing the number of statements in the scale measuring satisfaction to shorten the survey. By shortening the survey, the Cronbach’s alphas may be slightly reduced to Streiner’s (2003) recommended levels. In addition, space would potentially be provided for the inclusion of statements concerning social support and intrinsic motivation without further lengthening the survey instrument.

**Recommendations for Volunteer Coordinators and Executive Pastors**

Volunteer management is more complicated than ever before (MacDuff et al., 2009). Because volunteer coordinators recruit, train, retain, and organize the volunteer workforce, volunteer coordinators are crucial in the creation and management of the volunteer experience (Struder & von Schnurbein, 2013). By focusing on the needs of volunteers, coordinators can effectively enhance volunteer’s satisfaction, work performance, and engagement (Baard, 2002; Baard et al., 2004). This results in tenured
volunteers expressing high levels of intent-to-continue (Ellis, 1996a). The following section outlines considerations for volunteer coordinators and Executive Pastors to enhance their volunteer programs by enhancing the volunteer’s experience.

**Volunteer Coordinators**

Volunteer coordinators influence the volunteer experience by creating and managing the volunteer’s experience (Ellis, 1996a; Hager & Brudney, 2004a; Sheard, 1996). Blais and Briere (2002) reported volunteers are more satisfied with their volunteer experience when they perceive their coordinators care about them and value them. These feelings of support from coordinators drive satisfaction and intent-to-continue (Gagne, 2003; Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere, and Fouquereau, 2012) while perceived feelings of conflict lowers intent-to-continue (Frone, 2000). As stated in the literature review, volunteers are thought of as free labor; however, they have expectations (Eisner et al., 2009; Smith, 1981). These expectations are not free. Churches will incur costs to meet these expectations.

**Recommendation 1.** One such cost, indicated by the survey responses, is time. Volunteers desire their coordinators spend time with them listening and appreciating them. Given the sheer number of volunteers in churches, no one person will have the time to spend with each volunteer; therefore, this researcher recommends volunteer coordinators develop a leadership pipeline whose volunteer service is Human Resources (HR) – recruit, train, retain, and organize the volunteer workforce. This frees the volunteer coordinator up to develop a strong volunteer program and invest time in a level of coordinators who oversee the work of multiple volunteers (c.f., Jethro’s counsel of Moses, Exodus 18). Research indicates creating clear, known tracks for volunteers to
advance to supervising other volunteers is empowering to volunteers and leads to volunteer career tracks (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2011).

**Recommendation 2.** The survey found volunteers like choices and options. Therefore, the researcher recommends cross training volunteers to provide options to volunteers. Cross training reduces boredom, burnout, and turnover in volunteers (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Brudney, 2000). Another practice of strong volunteer programs involves creating career ladders for volunteers (Brudney & Nezhina, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2011). Volunteers working in long-term volunteer careers choose to work in the same organization, in the same position, and with the same people for years, embodying the organization’s goals and values in which they serve (Grube & Piliavin, 2000).

**Recommendation 3.** Some volunteers’ expectations include social support (Handy and Brudney, 2007). Therefore, this researcher recommends routinely providing times to gather outside of the volunteering event to network and develop friendships. Recognition and reward should be built into the social times (Hager & Brudney, 2011; McCurley & Lynch, 1996). The, aforementioned, times could be designed into each volunteer event by planning something for those volunteers who arrive early and/or stay late. By being intentional during the pre- and post-service times, each volunteer experience could include connecting volunteers.

**Recommendation 4.** Some volunteers expect investments in human capital development (Handy & Brudney, 2007). This skills training can be provided through more administrative volunteer service opportunities. Often times, churches only consider volunteers during set times of programming (i.e., Wednesday evenings, Sunday mornings, and Sunday evenings) and then they only consider volunteers for highly relational, low tech expressions (i.e., teaching, greeting, customer service). This
researcher recommends planning opportunities for service in highly technical and low relational expressions. This will provide outlets for service to those who are introverted. In addition, the highly technical jobs will provide on the job training for people in a lower risk environment.

*Executive Pastors*

The Executive Pastor is responsible for the people function of the church – both ministerial and non-ministerial; and for the implementation of the vision throughout the organization (Hawco, 2005). As such, the Executive Pastor works through people in the accomplishment of his or her task. Likewise, the volunteer coordinator accomplishes his or her task through the work of others. Therefore, the Executive Pastor’s primary concern must be the global focus of the volunteer coordinator on the church’s volunteer workforce needs. The Executive Pastor must make sure the volunteer coordinator does not become a doer of ministry. Rather, the coordinator must stay focused on systems development of the volunteer program resulting in the development of leaders throughout all levels of the church (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012; Nickson et al., 2008).

*Recommendation 1.* Most people have never been trained to work with volunteers as it is not part of any formal education process (Ellis, 1996a; Fisher & Cole, 1993). As discussed in the literature review, volunteers have a complex set of motivations and expectations driving their willingness to volunteer. Therefore, this researcher recommends Executive Pastors set as a priority the necessary resources to routinely train all staff in regards to working with and leading volunteers.

*Recommendation 2.* Since the volunteer coordinator is the person primarily responsible for developing an effective volunteer program, this researcher recommends
the Executive Pastor work with the volunteer coordinator on the importance of obtaining ongoing skills training to develop an effective volunteer program. Several certification programs have been developed for specialized training in the coordination of volunteers (e.g., Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration, Professional Development for Volunteer Management Professionals, Volunteer Management Training Program). In addition, some of these certifications provide ongoing networking opportunities which they as extremely beneficial (Idealist, 2015).

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the responses of participating volunteers who are 18 years or older and who currently volunteer in one of America’s largest 100 Protestant churches as identified by OutReach Magazine (Lifeway, 2013). The decision to focus on these churches was made because the researcher believed they were more likely to employ knowledgeable coordinators; therefore, these respondents could address the study’s research objectives. Churches without coordinators are less likely to provide information specific to this study’s objectives.

This study examined the relationship between a volunteer’s satisfaction with the volunteer experience as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and a volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The relationship between the study’s variables were confirmed positive and significant where \( p < .01 \). Despite the study’s findings, it was possible study participants experienced higher satisfaction, had higher intent-to-continue intentions, were more motivated to complete surveys, or perceived stronger influence of their coordinator than volunteers who did not participate in the study.
Fourteen of the largest 100 churches as identified by *OutReach Magazine*’s “The 100 Largest Churches in America” list (Lifeway, 2013) chose not to participate. Although the number of participating churches exceeded the 80 participating churches needed to achieve a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error required by the sample size calculator (Raosoft, 2004), greater participation from churches may have changed the findings of this study. Moreover, different findings could result in different conclusions from this study. The sample size of the second stage sample equaled 1,720 (n=1,720). As previously described, 424 surveys were collected which represent a response rate of 24.7%. The researcher believes the varied communication efforts utilized in the data collection plan was a reason the completed surveys collected exceeded the 377 surveys needed to achieve a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error as required by the sample size calculator (Raosoft, 2004).

Attrition describes the process whereby data is permanently lost due to non-response from the participant (Shadish et al., 2002; Uhrig, 2008). Burchell and Marsh (1992) found the length of the survey affects the response rate. However, they were unable to isolate the effect to any specific factor. Groves, Cialdini, and Couper (1992) believe survey participants “base their [participation] decisions on one or two highly prominent and normally diagnostic considerations” (p. 487). Research has found attrition increases as the length of the survey increases (Groves et al., 1992; Love & Turner, 1975). The potential participants were told the survey was expected to take 20 minutes to complete; however, they were not told the number of statements (85 statements). Once the participant answered *Agree* to the consent question, the remaining 84 survey statements appeared. The survey received 564 responses to the consent question (560 *Agree*; 4 *Disagree*). Of the 560 surveys begun, 424 surveys were completed. The 136
incomplete surveys only received responses to the consent question. It is possible the length of the survey affected attrition rates; however, no information was collected within the study for the researcher to assume actual cause.

According to Shadish et al. (2002), the measurement of variables once with only one method leads to mono-operation bias or common method variance. “Common method variance refers to potential error that may contaminate both measures in a similar way such that a correlation between two measures may be due to the fact that both come from the same source, rather than a substantive relationship between them” (Rothbard, 2001, p. 26). Spector (1987) suggest common method variance applies more “to researchers in areas of psychology that are heavily dependent on questionnaire methods” (p. 438). However, well-designed multi-item validated scales address the aforementioned shortcomings (Spector, 1987). Although this study used previously validated survey statements, only one method was employed to measure each construct in the study. Since the constructs were measured in the same way with one method, the possibility of a potential error contaminating the relationships exists. In the case of contamination, the correlations mimic the findings due to the combination of measures derived from the same source rather than a credible relationship between them. In other words, the utilization of multiple tests would expose effects due to error. While additional measures with other means and in other settings could have been employed in the measurement of these constructs, specific decisions were made in this study for utilization of these statements, this setting, and these administrative procedures utilized for the objectives presented in this study. Nevertheless, the decision to measure the variables with one method is a threat to the validity of the results.
The results found in the research study were limited due to the characteristics of the setting and study design. Additional studies may expand the research to include different settings, qualitative and quantitative data, and additional constructs to increase the potential for external validity of the research as well as a better understanding of the reasons for the relationship between the variables.

Recommendations for Future Research

A number of opportunities exist to improve knowledge and understanding with further research. Within the parameters of the current study’s methodology, collaborating with OutReach Magazine for survey administration would potentially enhance participation by churches. OutReach Magazine is known by these churches and credibility is already established; therefore, a study whose communications originate from OutReach Magazine would be more likely to achieve more completed surveys for validity. In addition, increasing the pre-survey communications with the Executive Pastors may increase their understanding and support for the survey while also increasing their urgency.

Additionally, the instrument scales seemed to use sophisticated language potentially requiring a high level of education. Borgers, Hox, and Sikkel (2004) report variations in the wording or statements impact responses. Research focused on the survey responses of participants with low levels of education indicates increased variation in the response rates (Melnick & Gable, 1990). Therefore, conducting further examination into the test scale’s readability and understandability is recommended.

Depending on the outcome of the aforementioned research, stronger conclusions could potentially be drawn regarding the influence of the volunteer coordinator has on volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer and the volunteer’s intent-to-
Another potential for further research is to duplicate the study within other nonprofit organizations where volunteer retention is a concern. This will advance the knowledge obtained on the topic of satisfaction, intent-to-continue, and the influence of a volunteer coordinator.

Summary

A cross-sectional, non-experimental, descriptive study design was used along with an electronic, self-administered survey to collect data on three variables: volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer, and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue. The data were analyzed, and positive relationships were found among all three variables. In addition, the influence of a volunteer coordinator as perceived by the volunteer was found to positively correlate to the relationship between volunteer satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer and the volunteer’s intent-to-continue volunteering. A number of potential reasons for the results of the study were offered, primarily centering on volunteer experiences created by the volunteer coordinator.

Further study and differing study designs were suggested with future and past churches on *OutReach Magazine*’s annual “The 100 Largest Churches in America” list (Lifeway, 2013), as well as, with churches of varying sizes. Using the same methodology but different survey administration techniques might offer an increased sample size and more robust data from which to propose conclusions. In addition, other methodologies such as longitudinal, experimental, and mixed methods research would extend an understanding of the variable relationships.

As this study demonstrates, the employment of a volunteer coordinator positively influences both volunteer’s satisfaction as perceived by the volunteer and the volunteer’s
intent-to-continue as a volunteer with the church. This influence has the potential to reduce turnover within the volunteer ranks. Therefore, the recruitment of new volunteers may be used for ministry expansion and not for maintaining current volunteer levels within existing ministry programs associated with turnover. It is time for a new paradigm among churches in regard to volunteerism, one in which priority is placed on the retention of volunteers rather than simply on the recruitment of new volunteers for current and future needs. The volunteer workforce of a church donates as much if not more in labor than the church expends in paid labor cost. Churches need to consider the value of those contributed hours. When considered, the importance of the human capital development process is clearly established. As such, no longer can volunteer coordination be relegated to secondary job responsibilities.
APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO USE VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION INDEX (VSI) INSTRUMENT

August 20, 2014

Jason Golden
Executive Pastor, Venture Church
4142 Lincoln Road
Hattiesburg, Mississippi 39402

Dear Pastor Golden,

Permission has been granted by Roseanna Galindo-Kuhn, author and developer of the Volunteer Satisfaction Index, to reprint and use the measurement instrument for your academic research in volunteerism.

This permission is granted for the singular use in your current pursuit of your dissertation in partial fulfillment of a Ph.D. in Human Capital Development at the University of Southern Mississippi. Additional and/or subsequent use beyond the scope of the aforementioned research project is not permitted without request.

No fee will be required for this use in pursuit of academic research. Please use the standard credit line.

Thank you for your interest in the VSI. If you have any questions, you may contact me at the number below.

Sincerely,

Roseanna Galindo-Kuhn
Author & Developer, Volunteer Satisfaction Index
(530) 332-4575
Roseanna.galindo-kuhn@enloe.org
APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL TO CONDUCT STUDY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 34906-0001
Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 15011301
PROJECT TITLE: An Examination of the Volunteer Coordinator's Influence on Church Volunteers' Intent-to-Continue at the Largest Protestant Churches
PROJECT TYPE: New Project
RESEARCHER(S): Jason B. Golden
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Science and Technology
DEPARTMENT: Human Capital Development
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Exempt Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 01/14/2015 to 01/13/2016

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board
APPENDIX C

EMAIL COMMUNICATION FOR EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CENSUS PARTICIPANTS

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ INITIAL CONTACT EMAIL

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CONTACT NUMBER 1

Subject: Volunteer Satisfaction and Intent-to-Continue Survey of OutReach Magazine 2013’s 100 Largest Churches in America

Dear (Name of Executive Pastor):

Congratulations on being named one of America’s largest churches by OutReach Magazine in 2013! This recognition is very much a honor and I join you in celebrating God’s blessings.

I am Jason Golden, an Executive Pastor at Venture Church in Hattiesburg, MS and a doctoral candidate at The University of Southern Mississippi. My research focuses on the levels of a volunteer’s satisfaction and intent-to-continue among the 2013 100 largest churches in America as identified by OutReach Magazine. Since you lead one of America’s largest churches, I am seeking your help and the input of your volunteers to examine the volunteer experience in Protestant churches.

A number of research studies report job satisfaction and/or employee’s intent-to-continue for for-profit organizations. In fact, over the past couple of years, researchers have begun to report the satisfaction levels and/or volunteer’s intent-to-continue levels for nonprofits. However, no study exists that measure a volunteer’s intent-to-continue and a volunteer’s satisfaction. Your participation in generating potential participants in this study could provide valuable data that can be used to measure a volunteer’s intention-to-continue as a volunteer with your organization.

During the week of XXX you will receive an email containing a survey link. I will ask you to forward the letter to twenty or more of your current volunteers eighteen years or older and copy me in that email. Please note the email will arrive one week from today.

Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous. Individual responses are confidential. Your answers to questions confirm your consent to participate.

If you have any questions about this research you may contact me, Jason Golden, at 601-467-6982 or at jason@venturechurch.org. Thanks in advance for your participation.

Best Regards,
Jason Golden
Executive Pastor, Venture Church
Doctoral Candidate, The University of Southern Mississippi
APPENDIX D

EMAIL COMMUNICATION FOR EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CENSUS PARTICIPANTS

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ SECOND CONTACT EMAIL

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CONTACT NUMBER 2

Subject: Volunteer Satisfaction and Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue Survey of *OutReach Magazine* 2013’s 100 Largest Churches in America

Dear (Name of Executive Pastor):

Congratulations on being recognized as one of the 2013 100 largest Protestant churches in America by *OutReach Magazine*. As one of the leading churches in America, you have an opportunity to help other churches by allowing us to learn from you. Your participation and the participation of your volunteers can help increase awareness about the intentions and level of satisfaction found among volunteers in America’s largest churches. Once the study is complete, I will share the results and recommendations with those Executive Pastors who have participated in this study.

Please copy and paste the following letter (including the link) to twenty or more of your current volunteers eighteen years or older. Their response is needed by XXX. Please note this is one week from today.

________________________________

Subject: 2013 100 Largest Churches in America Volunteer Survey

*OutReach Magazine* recognized our church as one of America’s largest 100 churches in 2013. This is both a honor and a blessing and we are thankful to God for the people who worship Him here on a weekly basis.

Jason Golden is an Executive Pastor at a sister church and a doctoral candidate at The University of Southern Mississippi. His research focuses on the levels of a volunteer’s satisfaction and commitment to the churches in which they serve. He is seeking our help to complete a survey regarding your experience as a volunteer in one of America’s largest churches.

A number of research studies and reports describe these large churches. However, very little research focuses on the experiences of the volunteer’s that work in these churches. Your participation in this study could provide valuable input on the current status of volunteer’s experiences in such churches. **Your response is needed by XXX.** Please note this is one week away.
Simply click on the link below or copy and paste the entire URL into your browser to access the survey:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/VOLMatrix2

*Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous. Individual responses are confidential. You will be asked to confirm your consent to participate as the first question in the survey.*

If you experience any technical difficulties accessing or submitting the survey please contact Jason Golden at jason@venturechurch.org. You may also contact him if you have questions regarding this research. Thanks in advance for your participation for it will help us better understand your needs.

-----------------------------------

*Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous.*

Thank you, again, for your participation.

Best Regards,
Jason Golden
Executive Pastor, Venture Church
Doctoral Candidate, The University of Southern Mississippi
APPENDIX E

EMAIL COMMUNICATION FOR EXECUTIVE PASTORS’
CENSUS PARTICIPANTS

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ THIRD CONTACT EMAIL

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CONTACT NUMBER 3

Subject: Volunteer Satisfaction and Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue Survey of *OutReach Magazine* 2013’s 100 Largest Churches in America

Dear (Name of Executive Pastor):

Because of the size of your weekend experience, you are in position to propagate learning and research for Protestant churches, especially, when it comes to the volunteer experience. This study on the experiences of volunteer workers among the 2013 100 largest churches in America as identified by *OutReach Magazine* can help your church better understand the needs of volunteers’ at large churches. Additionally, fellow Executive Pastors will greatly benefit from the input of your volunteers and their participation in this study. Once the study is complete, I will share the results and recommendations with those Executive Pastors who have participated in this study.

The results of this study are expected to address retention or experiences that encourage volunteers to continue volunteering overtime. Studies have found up to 40% of volunteers do not return after their first twelve months volunteering. Imagine the increases in productivity, the decrease in training costs, and the increase in your sheer number of volunteers if you volunteers returned for multiple years.

In order to participate, you or your Executive Assistant simply needs to copy and paste the following letter (including the link) to twenty or more of your current volunteers eighteen years or older. Their response is needed by XXX. Please note this is in one week from today.

________________________________

Subject: 2013 100 Largest Churches in America Volunteer Survey

*OutReach Magazine* recognized our church as one of America’s largest 100 churches in 2013. This is both a honor and a blessing and we are thankful to God for the people who worship Him here on a weekly basis.

Jason Golden is an Executive Pastor at a sister church and a doctoral candidate at The University of Southern Mississippi. His research focuses on the levels of a volunteer’s satisfaction and commitment to the churches in which they serve. He is seeking our help.
to complete a survey regarding your experience as a volunteer in one of America’s largest churches.

A number of research studies and reports describe these large churches. However, very little research focuses on the experiences of the volunteer’s that work in these churches. Your participation in this study could provide valuable input on the current status of volunteer’s experiences in such churches. **Your response is needed by XXX.** Please note this is one week away.

Simply click on the link below or copy and paste the entire URL into your browser to access the survey:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/VOLMatrix2

*Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous. Individual responses are confidential. You will be asked to confirm your consent to participate as the first question in the survey.*

If you experience any technical difficulties accessing or submitting the survey please contact Jason Golden at jason@venturechurch.org. You may also contact him if you have questions regarding this research. Thanks in advance for your participation for it will help us better understand your needs.

________________________________

*Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous.*

Thank you, again, for your participation.

Best Regards,

Jason Golden
Executive Pastor, Venture Church
Doctoral Candidate, The University of Southern Mississippi
APPENDIX F

EMAIL COMMUNICATION FOR EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CENSUS PARTICIPANTS

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ THIRD CONTACT EMAIL

EXECUTIVE PASTORS’ CONTACT NUMBER 5

Subject: Volunteer Satisfaction and Volunteer’s Intent-to-Continue Survey of *OutReach Magazine* 2013’s 100 Largest Churches in America

Dear (Name of Executive Pastor):

Due to the large response and because people have asked for an opportunity to participate, I am extending a final opportunity to participate in this study regarding their experiences volunteering. It is not too late, today; but this study will be ending shortly.

In order to provide you volunteers with an opportunity to participate, your Executive Assistant simply needs to copy and paste the following letter (including the link) to twenty or more of your current volunteers eighteen years or older. Their response is needed by XXX. Please note this is in one week.

________________________________

Subject: 2013 100 Largest Churches in America Volunteer Survey

*OutReach Magazine* recognized our church as one of America’s largest 100 churches in 2013. This is both a honor and a blessing and we are thankful to God for the people who worship Him here on a weekly basis.

Jason Golden is an Executive Pastor at a sister church and a doctoral candidate at The University of Southern Mississippi. His research focuses on the levels of a volunteer’s satisfaction and commitment to the churches in which they serve. He is seeking our help to complete a survey regarding your experience as a volunteer in one of America’s largest churches.

A number of research studies and reports describe these large churches. However, very little research focuses on the experiences of the volunteer’s that work in these churches. Your participation in this study could provide valuable input on the current status of volunteer’s experiences in such churches. *Your response is needed by XXX.* Please note this is one week away.

Simply click on the link below or copy and paste the entire URL into your browser to access the survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/VOLMatrix2

Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous. Individual responses are confidential. You will be asked to confirm your consent to participate as the first question in the survey.

If you experience any technical difficulties accessing or submitting the survey please contact Jason Golden at jason@venturechurch.org. You may also contact him if you have questions regarding this research. Thanks in advance for your participation for it will help us better understand your needs.

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Your participation is voluntary and your identity will remain anonymous.

Thank you, again, for your participation.

Best Regards,
Jason Golden
Executive Pastor, Venture Church
Doctoral Candidate, The University of Southern Mississippi
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