The Volunteer Needs Profile: A Tool for Reducing Turnover

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INTRODUCTION

Brown County (Wisconsin) Department of Social Services recruited 104 volunteers in 1979. But they also lost 102 volunteers and so tallied a net gain of two! The problem addressed by this research is that of volunteer turnover. People terminate their voluntary work for two reasons: they may be fired or they may quit. None of the volunteers who terminated at Brown County Social Services were fired. The focus of this study was therefore to determine how to reduce the number of volunteers who quit their volunteer work.

A common notion about volunteers is that they are people who give unselfishly without any thought of reward. They are called "altruistic" persons. We began this study by challenging the proposition that volunteers behave altruistically. The vast majority of researchers and scientists are cynical of any definition of altruism in its absolute form, i.e., acting without any reward, internal or external, real or psychological (Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978). Researchers speak of what Kennett (1980) calls "quasi-altruistic" behavior, which appears to be altruistic but has hidden motives (peer recognition, status, etc.).

Scheier (1980:115) speaks of "motivational paychecks." Since volunteers are not paid in money, the mostly intrinsic rewards they receive are in fact their only pay. Volunteers will not ordinarily become involved in helping others unless they are in some sense helping themselves at the same time. Truly altruistic behavior is in the strict sense non-existent (Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978; Rydberg, 1980; Middlebrook, 1974; Darley & Latané, 1970). "There are, to be sure, some individuals who selflessly work for others without any thought of reward and even without expecting gratitude, but these are virtually saints, and saints are rare" (Blau, 1964:16). Gidron researched four health and mental health facilities to ascertain what rewards volunteers received and concluded that "volunteers should not be perceived as altruistic" (1976:202).

Since we can conclude that there is no absolute altruism, then we may proceed to look for other motivational "paychecks." In the next section we examine the concept of needs as motivation.

THE CONCEPT OF NEEDS AS MOTIVATION

The concept of needs seems to have become important with Maslow's (1943) theory. He began by identifying the motivation from within the individual in terms of human drives. These he saw as being in a hierarchical order. As the basic needs were met, individuals could turn their attention to higher order

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needs. Maslow would call a need motivating, but only until it was satisfied. He intended his theory of needs to be the foundation for understanding motivation.

Argyris (1957) relates the concept of needs to the work setting. He shows that an organization and its management both violate the basic givens of the healthy personality. They inhibit self-actualization and instead provide expression for only a few shallow, skin-surface abilities that do not satisfy the "endless challenge" desired by the healthy personality. Employees are paid for their dissatisfaction so they can find satisfaction outside the work environment. Volunteers, without wages, simply quit.

There has been criticism of the need-motivation theory. Some of it has been directed at the hierarchical nature of Maslow's list of needs, although Maslow himself never claimed that all people would wish to ascend his need hierarchy. Personality and cultural factors help determine whether people desire self-actualization (Strauss, 1974). Strauss and McClelland (1961) suggested three other basic needs (besides physical needs): need for achievement; need for affiliation; and need for power.

However, repeated failures have convinced most researchers that there are no universal human needs that are manifested the same for all people (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Research on job satisfaction and job design proceeds generally from the position that each individual is different (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), that people are simultaneously seeking satisfaction of a number of needs (Hackman, 1977), and that their needs change. Briggs (1982) made a comparison between the results of a national Psychology Today survey of employee work satisfactions and areas of greatest importance to her own survey of volunteers using a similar measure, modified as necessary in regards to pay. In both surveys, for paid employment and volunteer work, growth and esteem needs were highest in importance. However, social needs were also among the highest for volunteers, but not for paid workers. In both studies social aspects of the work were named as the source of greatest satisfaction. She concludes:

> *Volunteers then, are distinctively different from paid workers, in that they value different aspects of a job assignment. People who are prospective volunteers arrive at a program's door, for the most part, not with overflowing altruistic motives, but with real needs for self-growth, for work experience, for building self-esteem, for enjoyment, for building relationships with others, for contributing to valued goals, for affiliating with an organization or its staff, and so on. Many times (consciously or unconsciously) they are looking to the volunteer program to satisfy one or a healthy combination of those needs not currently being met by their paid work or by their home situation. (Briggs, 1982:6)*

This evidence indicates that people do have needs that motivate them to seek satisfaction of these needs in the work setting. We examined the evidence to support the existence of seven specific needs that seem to be related to volunteer work in a social or human service agency. We took our cues directly from volunteers themselves who report the benefits they receive from volunteering. From the literature we were able to tie these benefits to specific needs.

NEEDS SPECIFIC TO VOLUNTEERING IN A SOCIAL SERVICE SETTING

At Brown County Department of Social Services (BCDSS), volunteers work in the field and often are not seen by the agency for long periods of time. To maintain contact and accountability, they report to the agency on a monthly report form.

One question on the form is: "What benefits have you received from your volunteer work this month?" Even though the question is sometimes not answered, over several years with 60 to 80 volunteers reporting on this form, a large number of responses have been received. My co-worker Constance Usiak and I grouped the answers into seven blocks that seemed to capture all but the most unusual responses. Space will not permit us to discuss each need at length, but some references are included to guide those who wish to examine the empirical evidence for each need.

1. The Need for Experience (EX). This has been defined as the need to break into the job market, try out different skills, have a new learning experience, do something not possible with daily work, get in touch with a different part of ourselves (example: "young people keep me feeling young"), or promote personal growth (Allen, 1982; Adams, 1980; Rydberg & Peterson, 1980; Stone & Velmans, 1980; Gidron, 1978).

2. The Need to Express Feelings of Social Responsibility (SR). This is concern for others, the need to do something about social problems, caring, wanting to get involved, to relieve feelings of concern about one's good life as compared to others (Schwartz, 1970; Zuckerman & Reis, 1978; Gidron, 1976; Conrad, 1980; Briggs, 1982).

3. The Need for Social Contact (SC). This includes the need to make new friends, "get out of the house," justify one's existence and feel needed ("I am important to someone"), alleviate loneliness, find a sense of belonging or of being included, be a part of something, and test out values and norms (Mulford & Klonglon, 1972; Hackman, 1977; Briggs, 1982; Benson, et al., 1980).

4. The Need to Respond to the Expectations of Others (EO). Sometimes volunteer work is required by a high school class, a club or one's employer. People may be pressured by a spouse, friend, or peers, or perhaps respond to the church or pastor. Volunteer work may be sought because "all my friends are doing it" (Allen, 1982; Stockman, 1977; Adams, 1980; Krebs, 1970; Darley & Latane, 1970).

5. The Need for Social Approval (SA). One wants to be appreciated, thanked, praised, respected, looked up to. It may be important to get recognition (especially if not received at work or home) or to make someone proud (Wispe & Kiecolt, 1980; Krebs, 1978; Staub, 1974; Briggs, 1982; Satow, 1975).

6. The Need for Future Rewards (SE). This need is derived from "social exchange" (hence the code SE). It is the feeling that "some day I may need help." It is the faith in social justice, the belief that in helping others we avert being in need ourselves, or if we are, we will receive help. It is the belief that our behavior returns to us. It may include the concept of judgement in the future (Kennett, 1980; Bar-Tal, et al., 1980; Staub, 1974; Batson, 1976; Batson & Gray, 1981).

7. The Need to Achieve (AC). This is often the sense of power in making things happen, or to experience completion, an end, closure (assembly line workers often do not get this feeling) and to get feedback. It is goal orientation. It is the ability to feel proud of a job, good workmanship, satisfy a creative urge, see and experience change, prove or demonstrate abilities in a task (McClelland, 1966; Reddy & Smith, 1972; Arnold & House, 1980; Weiner, 1979).

Each of these needs have been shown to be associated with the motive to become a volunteer. It therefore seems logical that if these needs are met in volunteer work, the individual will feel rewarded and satisfied. Let us take a look at that assumption.

THE NEED-SATISFACTION RELATIONSHIP

Our main support for the relation-

ship between need and satisfaction is a series of studies in vocational rehabilitation at the University of Minnesota called the Work Adjustment Model (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). The basic premise of this theory is that individuals will seek to achieve and maintain a "fit" or correspondence between themselves and their environment. In the work setting, this consists of personal abilities that must correspond to the ability requirements of the job, and personal needs that must correspond to the reward potential of the job to meet those needs, i.e., the reinforcer system. This may take effort on the part of both the individual and the work environment to adjust to the other, hence the concept of work adjustment.

> *This theory uses the correspondence (or lack of it) between the work personality and the work environment as the principle reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcomes (satisfactoriness, satisfaction and tenure). The theory states further that vocational abilities and vocational needs are the significant aspects of the work personality, while ability requirements and reinforcer systems are the significant aspects of the work environment. Work adjustment is predicted by matching an individual's work personality with work environments. In other words, work adjustment depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how well his needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment. (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1976:v)*

This model may be diagramed as in Figure 1. These researchers have based their model on five propositions: (a) satisfactoriness is a function of the correspondence between a worker's abilities and the ability requirements of the job; (b) the probability that a worker will be forced out of the job is inversely related to his or her satisfactoriness; (c) satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between a worker's needs and the reinforcer system; (d) the probability that a worker will quit is inversely related to his or her satisfaction; (e) tenure is a joint function of satisfaction and satisfactoriness. Since volunteers are rarely fired, our concern is with propositions (c) and (d).

It is important to note that these researchers have sought to match profiles, that of the worker's needs to that of the job's characteristics. The model is based on the premise that there are no universal needs and that tasks do differ in their ability to address those needs. Therefore it is important to discover a particular person's need profile before attempting to place that individual in a task, or before redesigning the task to meet one's needs. Although the Work Adjustment Model is intended for paid employment, it provides a theoretical foundation and rationale for constructing an instrument to measure needs of volunteers, for matching volunteer needs to a task, and for using the construct of satisfaction as a measure of how rewarded a person feels from his or her volunteer work.

The model also indicates that satisfaction will lead to tenure. If a volunteer's job meets the needs he or she brings to the task and the volunteer feels satisfied, then that person should remain on the job longer than dissatisfied workers. Thus keeping volunteers satisfied is not an end in itself. The purpose of striving for satisfied volunteers is to prevent early termination of their commitment to their volunteer assignment. It is upon these concepts that the Volunteer Needs Profile was constructed. Its purpose is to measure the relative strength of a person's needs in the seven areas that have been discussed.

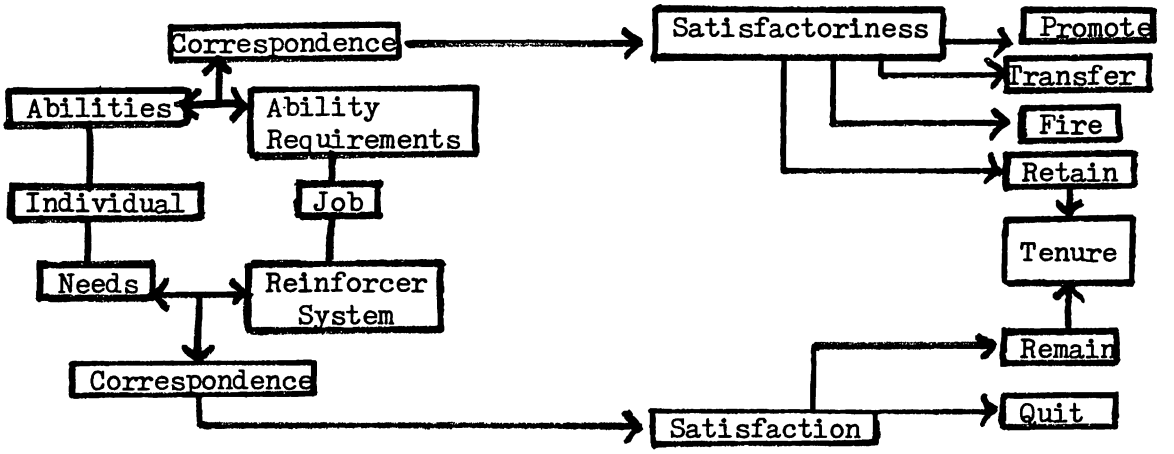

Figure 1

THE WORK ADJUSTMENT MODEL

(from Lofquist & Davis, 1969)

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY STUDIES

A complete discussion of the evolution of the Volunteer Needs Profile is given in Francies (1982). From a simple check list limited to one volunteer program, it was expanded to all volunteers involved in human services, and it was further refined into the seven subscales based on the seven needs discussed above. (See note at end of article for information about obtaining the complete Profile.)

Twenty-three volunteers acted as "judges" to match each statement in the profile with the subscale definition to which they thought it related. Ambiguous items were discarded and replaced with statements that received at least 55% agreement of the judges (75% if the alternative choice was consistent). This test was used to arrive at the statements that would be included in the final version of the Profile.

A second test for further refinement was aimed at testing the discrimination power of each statement. This was done by comparing the low quartile of scores with the high quartile using Students' t test. Statements with $p > .01$ were eliminated. The final version of the needs profile was constructed based on these preliminary studies.

Self-rank scores were compared to the Profile scores for a new sample of 78 subjects. Using Spearman's Rank Order Correlation (r_s), the results indicated $r_s = .54$, $p < .001$. This revised Profile was retested for discrimination power as before by comparing the high and low quartiles of scores for 92 subjects. Each statement discriminated at $p < .01$.

The statistical test used for internal consistency was Cronbach's Alpha (r^n) (Cronbach, 1951; Winer, 1971). The results for each subscale are displayed below for 128 subjects. Each subscale was well above our decision level of .50 (Cronbach, 1970:135).

A test for concurrent validity was made using the active volunteers at BCDSS as subjects. First the degree of match between the volunteers' needs and their job was determined. This was done by rating the tasks and then comparing the results to each volunteer's needs profile score. Second, each volunteer was rated by his or her supervisor on four characteristics: (1) time spent in relation to assignment requirement; (2) cooperativeness and identification with task goals; (3) enthusiasm, attitude, effort made; and (4) reliability, responsibility, consistency. The degree of match was then compared to the supervisor's rating for each volunteer.

Since the strength of initial motivation may also explain good performance, this was controlled for in the statistical analysis by using the volunteers' raw profile scores as an indication of motivation. The degree of match had been determined independently by three judges. The result obtained from this test was $F = 4.55$ $(2/54)$, $p < .025$. Thus the degree of match seems to have made a difference in the volunteer's performance as judged by the coordinator's rating of that volunteer.

Construct validity was tested by comparing the performance of our Profile to theoretical expectations based on other empirical studies. A new sample of 128 subjects was used.

Subscale	r^5
EX	.69
SR	.75
SC	.75
EO	.66
SA	.70
SE	.64
AC	.69

Thirty-one were classified as "non-volunteers" using as the criteria a negative answer to the question: "Would you now or perhaps someday care to be a volunteer for a social service agency?" These profiles came from workers in a local paper mill. Our sample also contained 34 volunteers of similar age range (29 to 60 years old) chosen to control for the age variable. Volunteers over 60 and staff of human service agencies contained in our sample were not utilized in this test. The test was to compare the mean scores of volunteers to non-volunteers.

Based on previous research reported in the literature, specific predictions were possible for four of the seven subscales. We predicted that volunteers would score higher in: EX--The Need for Experience; SR--The Need to Express Feelings of Social Responsibility; and SC--The Need for Social Contact. We also predicted SR to be the greatest difference between the two groups. We predicted that non-volunteers would score higher in EO--The Need to Respond to the Expectations of Others. The results are shown in Table 1.

Our expectations for all four of the predicted subscales were supported. Also as predicted, the greatest difference was the SR subscale, and the EO subscale was higher for non-volunteers as Schwartz (1968) suggested it would be.

A second test of construct validity consisted of comparing the Profile scores with age-related differences as identified in the literature (see, for example, Gidron, 1976). It was predicted that older volunteers would score higher in SR, SC, and SA, while younger volunteers would score higher in EX and AC. Our sample was all volunteers recruited from BCDSS and the Green Bay Voluntary Action Center. There were 95 students with an age range of 18 to 83 years. The sample was predominately female (n=84) so no tests for sex differences were made. However, we were able to make the following predictions based on Gidron's studies:

EX - Younger volunteers would score higher than older.
SR - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
SC - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
EO - No age differences predicted.
SA - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
SE - No age differences predicted.
AC - Younger volunteers would score higher than older.

We divided the volunteers into three groups as shown in Table 2. In each case the test was Student's t using the "under 30" X "over 60" groups. The results show that:

Table 1 COMPARISON OF VOLUNTEERS WITH NON-VOLUNTEERS

Subscale	Volunteers n = 34		Non-volunteers n = 31		t	level of significance
	$\bar{x}$	s^2	$\bar{x}$	s^2		(two tailed)
EX	15.18	10.39	11.42	12.25	4.51	.001
SR	15.50	4.32	9.68	9.96	8.85	.001
SC	15.59	6.13	10.87	9.52	6.83	.001
EO	9.85	3.40	13.68	15.63	5.08	.001
SA	10.85	7.04	15.19	9.96	6.02	.001
SE	13.15	6.61	12.52	14.26	.79	NS
AC	11.61	4.37	14.61	10.98	4.39	.01
All	91.91	60.15	87.97	147.30	1.57	NS

Table 2. TEST FOR AGE DIFFERENCE IN SUBSCALE SCORES

Subscale	Under 30 (n = 27) $\bar{x}$	s^2	30 to 60 (n = 27) $\bar{x}$	s^2	Over 60 (n = 41) $\bar{x}$	s^2	t	Sign*
EX	15.74	6.56	14.30	8.36	13.56	9.42	3.01	.001
SR	16.11	4.69	14.67	4.44	14.66	6.27	2.43	.01
SC	16.22	6.32	14.78	5.51	16.37	4.04	.26	NS
EO	9.96	4.41	10.44	5.51	10.83	4.53	1.62	NS
SA	10.11	9.88	10.96	8.04	10.15	8.61	.05	NS
SE	13.93	6.59	13.48	9.88	14.59	6.88	1.01	NS
AC	11.63	7.27	11.33	6.67	10.39	6.19	1.92	.05

*One-tailed test used where prediction of direction was made.

EX - Prediction supported.
SR - Significant difference in opposite direction!
SC - Trend in predicted direction, not significant. However, adult x older is significant ($t = 2.94$, $p < .005$).
EO - (Not predicted.)
SA - Not supported.
SE - (Not predicted.)
AC - Prediction supported.

The results of the two tests of construct validity by comparing results of the Volunteer Needs Profile to previous research are moderate to strong. In the comparison with non-volunteers, four of the four predictions were supported at the .01 level or better. This in itself is strong support for the Profile. The test for age differences needed to rely entirely upon the work of Gidron with his survey of four health and mental health institution volunteers. His population may not be comparable to ours. Gidron's data comes from survey results rather than empirical evidence. This may introduce error in the need for Social Approval (SA) prediction due to "social desirability bias" as Gidron (1978:21) himself suggests. Two of the five predictions were supported and a third (SC) found qualified support. Two were not supported. The SR scale, which was significant in the wrong direction is not explained. Gidron found his older volunteers had a higher "feeling of duty to the community" than younger volunteers. This was interpreted as a sense of social responsibility. However, our population seems to indicate younger volunteers have a stronger sense of social responsibility.

Of the nine predictions made, seven found support. One was not in the predicted direction. The ninth prediction was not supported. At this point it was concluded that the instrument did perform according to theoretical expectations to a modest extent. It is difficult to make comparisons when adequate theoretical bases are lacking. Nevertheless, these tests as a whole are strong evidence in favor of the validity and reliability of the Volunteer Needs Profile.

TESTING THE VOLUNTEER NEEDS PROFILE

From the literature we were able to formulate three hypotheses which relate directly to the problem which we have stated: how to reduce volunteer turnover.

Hypothesis One: Using the Volunteer Needs Profile to assign volunteers to a task will result in more high degrees of match than using the interview method alone.

Hypothesis Two: A high degree of match will lead to greater work satisfaction than a low degree of match of the volunteer's needs to the work assignment.

Hypothesis Three: The mortality rate (those dropping out) will be higher for the low degree of match than for those with a high degree of match.

As has been discussed previously, job satisfaction is related in a positive way to the correspondence of

Table 3.
DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREE OF MATCH OF VOLUNTEER X CONDITION

	Low	Medium	High	Totals
Control Group	n = 14	n = 26	n = 20	60
Experimental Group	n = 7	n = 18	n = 35	60
				120

individual needs and the potential of a task to satisfy those needs. Since the purpose of using the Profile is to be able to assign volunteers to a task that will satisfy their needs, this experiment is a direct assessment of how well that is possible using the Profile as opposed to the previous method of relying on the coordinator's interview skills alone.

Methods

A 2 x 3 design was used, with volunteers assigned to one of two groups (control or experimental), each with three levels of match (low, medium, or high). Subjects for this experiment were all volunteers newly recruited since January 1, 1982. They were recruited by ordinary means by both BCDSS and the Voluntary Action Center.

Every other volunteer was assigned to the experimental group, with the rest in the control group. All volunteers took the Profile, but it was not scored for the control group until after they were assigned to a task. The experimental volunteers' Profiles were scored, and the results used in their interviews and in making each task assignment. (See Francies, 1982, for complete details of this experiment.)

Instrumentation

The instruments used, in addition to the Profile, were the Job Questionnaire (JQ) (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) and the Satisfaction With Volunteer Assignment Evaluation (SWVAE) (Francies, 1982) which were both used to make an assessment of satisfaction. The SWVAE was developed to assess satisfaction specific to the seven subscales of the Profile. The JQ is more general. The reliability of the SWVAE, using Cronbach's Alpha, was r = .92. Satisfaction instruments were mailed to both groups between 10 and 12 weeks after tasks were assigned.

Results

Hypothesis One stated that there would be more high degree of matches when the Profile was used to make assignments than when using the interview method alone. This hypothesis was supported. As can be seen in Table 3, the distribution of

Table 4. RESPONSE TO EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRES

	n	Control	Experimental	Low	Medium	High
Returned	71	32	39	9	23	39
No basis for evaluation	44	26	18	12	19	13
Unable to contact subject	2	--	2	--	--	2
Refused	3	2	1	--	2	1
Totals	120	60	60	21	44	55

the control group is nearly normal, while the experimental group is skewed toward the high degree of match. Using the profile significantly improved the likelihood of obtaining a suitable assignment as compared to the interview method alone.

Hypothesis Two stated that those in the high degree of match condition will be more satisfied than those in the low degree of match. Of the 120 volunteers in the experiment, two had moved and left no forwarding address and three refused to complete the evaluations. Of the remaining 115, 44 did not follow through on their assignment and so could not evaluate the task. The distribution of these 44 are shown in Table 4. Note that 57% of the Low group did not follow through as compared to 43% of the Medium group and 24% of the High group, suggesting that the Low group may not have felt the assignment was what they wanted. Of the 71 volunteers who did complete the questionnaires, 70 SWVAE's were usable and 64 of the JQ's. The remaining were incomplete, or in the case of the JQ, five had been completed in terms of the volunteer's paid employment and so could not be used.

Student's t was used to test the mean satisfaction scores of the Low and High groups. Since the groups were so unequal in size, the Low and Medium groups were collapsed in a second test. This was done for the SWVAE and the JQ separately and then the two measures were combined. The SWVAE was weighted equal to the JQ (see Francies, 1982, for details).

Hypothesis Two was supported (see Table 5). The results of every test indicated that the high degree of match subjects were significantly more satisfied with their volunteer work than the Low condition or the Low and Medium combined conditions. It is concluded that the degree of match does affect the volunteer's satisfaction in a positive direction.

Hypothesis Three predicted volunteers in the high degree of match condition would stay longer than those in the low degree of match condition. Volunteers were contacted as indicated between ten and twelve weeks after being assigned to a task. Telephone follow-up was made for those not responding. The agencies were contacted for the two volunteers that had moved. We were able to ascertain one of two conditions for each volunteer: "active" (still involved at time of contact) or "inactive" (had terminated prior to our contact). The results are shown in Table 6.

The reader will notice that the proportion of active to inactive volunteers reverses as one goes from the low to the high degree of match. The result of the Chi-square test is $X^2 = 13.21$, $p < .005$. 69% of the High match group remained active as compared to 29% of the Low match group. It is concluded that the degree of match does influence the likelihood of a volunteer remaining at the task for at least ten weeks.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The Volunteer Needs Profile was constructed and tested as was planned. Validity studies included correlations of test results with the subjects' self-rank of their motivation needs. The correlations were significant at the .01 level. Content validity consisted of judges matching each statement to one of the seven definitions of the seven subscales. The discrimination power of each statement was tested using Student's t test. This consisted of comparing the low quartile of scores to the high quartile. Each statement discriminated at the .01 level or better.

The reliability test used was Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of internal consistency. In the final version of the Profile, all Alpha scores were better than our decision level of .50, ranging from .64 to .75.

A test of construct validity was made, using analysis of co-variance

Table 5. DEGREE OF MATCH X SATISFACTION SCORES

	SWVAE (n = 70)				JQ (n = 64)				Combined (n = 63)			
	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High
n	9	23	32	38	10	21	31	33	9	21	30	33
$\bar{x}$	56.4	59.0	58.3	65.5	59.1	64.1	62.5	70.0	57.1	61.2	60.0	67.4
Σ	508	1358	1865	2490	591	1347	1938	2311	514	1285	1799	2223
$\Sigma(\Sigma x2)$	30704	87270	117974	169240	36453	88307	124760	163423	30666	82140	112806	152273
Low X High	$t = 1.82$, $p < .05$				$t = 3.47$, $p < .005$				$t = 2.78$, $p < .005$			
(L&M) X High	$t = 2.00$, $p < .025$ (One-tailed test)				$t = 3.28$, $p < .005$ (One-tailed test)				$t = 2.65$, $p < .01$ (One-tailed test)			

Table 6. DEGREE OF MATCH X ACTIVE OR INACTIVE AT 10 WEEKS

	Low	Medium	High	Totals
Active	6	18	38	62
Inactive	15	26	17	58

controlling for initial motivation and comparing the estimated degree of match between the volunteers' high profile scores and the estimated potential of their assignments to meet that need with their supervisors' estimation of the volunteers' work performance. The results, $F = 4.55$ $(2/54)$, $p < .025$, should be accepted with caution however, since these were supervisors' ratings which involved the experimenter in making some of the ratings.

Another test of construct validity of the instrument was made by comparing the performance of our Profile with expectations derived from previous research. Two tests were made, one comparing volunteers with non-volunteers, and the other comparing younger with older volunteers. In the first test, all four of our predictions were significant in the predicted direction.

The second test, predicting differences based on age, relied almost entirely on the work of one research for empirical evidence upon which to base the predictions. We did not find any difference between older and younger volunteers in the Need for Social Approval. This may be explained in part by the fact that Gidron's data came from survey results, and a social desirability bias may have affected his findings. Social Approval is a need that is not readily admitted by some individuals as we have seen. This is an area that should be further researched before any conclusions are drawn that there is an age difference. Tests that control for the social desirability bias, using age as a variable, would be especially helpful if volunteers were used as subjects.

A more serious difference is in the Social Responsibility subscale. We predicted that older volunteers would score higher than younger volunteers based on Gidron's (1976) survey. We found a significant difference in the opposite direction. However, this may be explained by the fact that many of our younger sample were high school and college youth. They may well have a heightened sense of social responsibility due to an emphasis of the schools in that direction. Future research may continue to find young people with a greater sense of social responsibility than previous generations. I have no facts to support the contention regarding the emphasis of the schools in this regard, but my own seven children all received more concentration in social studies than my generation did. For us the emphasis was on the "three R's." I certainly have no information about the schools in Maryland where Gidron's study was conducted.

A more potent explanation may have to do with the instrumentation. Gidron based his conclusions on one statement: "Opportunity to fulfill an obligation to the community" (1976:222). This was expected by 50% of volunteers under 24 years old, but by 79% of those over 55 years old. However another statement in Gidron's questionnaire is: "Opportunity to be of service to people less fortunate than me." It appears he did not consider this statement to be part of an obligation to the community. Here the age difference disappears, as nearly all of the volunteers in these health institutions expected this reward; 93% of those under 24 and 98% of those over 55 years old. Both of these concepts are included in our Profile as a sense of social responsibility. Therefore not only may there be a real difference in our two populations, but there very likely is an instrumentation effect that makes it difficult to draw conclusions.

Of the nine predictions of these two tests, seven were supported. The lack of firm empirical research probably explains the other two. This is interpreted as support for the construct validity of the Volunteer Needs Profile. In fact, our measure may provide more valid results than the survey method used by Gidron due in part to the social desirability bias inherent in such surveys.

Additional support for the validity of the Profile comes from the experiment. All three of our hypotheses were strongly supported. As predicted, using the Profile increased the likelihood of obtaining a high degree of match between the needs of the volunteer and the task as compared to the interview method alone. Volunteers in the control group displayed a normal distribution, while those in the experimental group were strongly skewed toward the high degree of match. Using the Chi Square test, we found $X^2 = 7.88$, $p < .025$.

Further, volunteers who were matched to a high degree to their task were significantly more satisfied. The results show that for the SWVA measure, $t = 1.82$, $p < .05$ when compared to the low match group, and $t = 2.00$, $p < .025$ when the low and medium groups were collapsed. Using the same procedure for the JQ, the results were $t = 3.47$, $p < .005$ and $t = 3.28$, $p < .005$ respectively. And combining the two measures gave $t = 2.78$, $p < .005$ and $t = 2.65$, $p < .01$. These results indicate that volunteers who are well matched to the task are more satisfied than volunteers whose needs are not addressed by the work. These findings, as predicted by the Work Adjustment Model, indicate that the Profile has predictive validity.

And finally, 69% of those matched to a high degree were active after ten weeks as compared to 29% for those matched to a low degree. This is strong support for the validity of the Volunteer Needs Profile, but it is also strong support for its utility. Using the Profile did conserve volunteers and reduced turnover to a greater extent than using the interview method alone to place volunteers in a job. The high matched volunteers as a group become involved to a greater extent and stayed longer than those not well matched to the job.

Field experiments are especially difficult to control. There may well have been experimenter effects since the staff all knew the nature of the experiment. Whether consciously or unconsciously, they may have tried to "help." That effect, if present, would have been partly overcome by a new staff person who was employed about half way through the experiment. She did not know the nature of the test, but may have at least partly guessed. However, the staff at the Voluntary Action Center always try to make the very best placements possible with the tools they have. Their enthusiasm over the results seems to indicate that they had confidence in the procedures they used. Although the effect cannot be ruled out, it would seem to be minor.

One challenge that might be raised is that the initial motivation of the control and experimental groups was different. This was tested and it was found that the mean scores (measured by points over 14) of the two groups were statistically the same: 7.167 for the control group and 6.533 for the experimental. If anything, the bias would favor the control group. The author has considerable confidence in the outcome, and these results should easily be replicated in similar settings. The conditions under which this experiment took place would be similar to that in which the Profile might be used in actual practice. Unlike laboratory experiments, this one will readily generalize to the field.

IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

The implications and applications of this research are obvious in the area of assigning volunteers to a task. Placement coaches in VAC and RSVP programs should find their percentages of persons staying on the job increased when the Profile is used in conjunction with the interview. It should also be easily adaptable to other agencies where there is a variety of assignments from which to choose to place volunteers.

Further, the reliability and valid-

ity is great enough to suggest that the Profile may be useful in further research, such as determining if there are indeed differences between other populations of non-volunteers and volunteers, or between different types of volunteer workers, such as volunteers in direct service and volunteers in policy-making positions. The instrument may also be useful in monitoring trends. For example, are more volunteers today looking for experience, and will this trend continue; or is the heightened sense of social responsibility a temporary experience of students, or will this continue into their later adult years? It could also be used to determine if a volunteer's needs change over time, perhaps after one year on the job.

The limitation of this study is in part in the area of its generalizability to other types of volunteer work. It was designed specifically for volunteers in a social service setting. I feel it would need modification for other types of volunteer work, such as volunteers in forestry service. Such modification is not recommended unless the user is willing to follow the procedures we have to establish its reliability and validity again.

We have not tested the usefulness of this tool in matching to individuals rather than jobs, such as is necessary in a Big Brother program. An objective and practical way must be developed to assess the potential of a task to meet specific needs of volunteers. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, et al., 1967) does this by asking workers directly about the level of satisfaction received from specific jobs. Such an instrument could be developed to assess volunteer jobs in relation to the seven needs that have been identified.

One weakness in this study is that we needed to use staff to judge the tasks. Having workers involved with a particular task assess its potential to satisfy needs would be a superior method since the assessment would come from those who have experienced the task.

A further limitation of the Profile is in its psychometric abilities. The Profile does not give an absolute score that can be compared to national norms. Instead it yields a score that only estimates relative strength of one need as compared to other needs within the same individual. We did not find the total score of all seven subscales to have any significance in predicting turnover. Only the degree of match with the task was predictive in this regard, and the degree of match was based on the high scores for that individual. The absolute score may be lower than for other individuals, but if these others were mismatched, we could predict failure to stay with the task for them. In short, users of this instrument should not attempt to derive valid information from the scores in any absolute sense, but only in relation to the other subscales for that person. For that reason it is not recommended that norms be established.

The Volunteer Needs Profile is a tool that depends upon the user's ability to follow the leads it provides. The Need for Experience, for example, may mean simply to get out of the house and do something different, or it may mean the volunteer is in need of an experience that can help prepare for future employment. It is the user's task to discover the meaning of each high score for that individual.

This study has been concerned with volunteer turnover due for the most part to volunteers quitting their jobs, usually within the first three months. The Volunteer Needs Profile, when used with the interview in placing volunteers in their jobs, does help to solve the problem. Using the instrument, it is possible to get a higher degree of match between the volunteer's needs and the task's potential to meet those needs. This leads to more satisfaction on the part of volunteers. Because they are

more satisfied with their work, they stay on the job longer. Thus the instrument helps solve the problem of volunteer turnover.

A specimen set of the Profile with instructions, scoring guide, and suggestions for use will be sent upon request to:

Brown County Department of Social Services
300 South Adams Street
Green Bay, WI 54301

Please send your request to the attention of the Volunteer Service Unit.

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