Understanding and managing volunteer motivation:
Two regional tourism cases

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ABSTRACT

This study looks at two regional New South Wales tourism organisations heavily dependant on volunteers in order to analyse whether managers understand what motivates their volunteers and whether, as a result, they have any management strategies in place to retain current volunteers and to attract new ones. The Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) was used to measure both management and volunteer perceptions as they relate to motivation. It was found that creating opportunities to permit new learning experiences and/or the opportunity to use skills or knowledge that would otherwise go unpractised, the understanding function of the VFI, is what mostly motivated those interviewed to become volunteers. It is argued that the VFI offers managers of volunteers a valuable tool to recruit new people and to re-invigorate, and maintain, existing volunteers.

INTRODUCTION

It is widely recognised within service based organisations that an effective human resource management strategy is vital for organisations to gain a sustainable competitive advantage. The task of delivering effective human resource policies and procedures is made even more challenging for management when the workforce comprises unpaid workers, such as volunteers (Deery, Jago & Shaw 1997). To effectively manage volunteers, it is assumed from the literature pertaining to motivation that it is essential for managers to be aware of, and understand, the motivations behind volunteering. Industries with such a heavy reliance on volunteer workforces such as the tourism industry need to recognise this link between understanding the motivation of volunteers and the need to take action to attract and maintain their motivation.

The most important human resource factors relating to the management of volunteers have been identified as the recruitment, motivation and characteristics of volunteers (Kemp 2002). The most common source of volunteer recruitment is often through existing volunteers (Lockstone, Jago and Deery 2002). Researchers on volunteering are aware of these factors and have identified these as being crucial to the performance of volunteers as these volunteers often play pivotal roles in many not for profit organisations. Even though considerable research has been completed on volunteering and volunteer motivation, the actual concept of managing and maintaining motivation once a volunteer belongs to an organisation seems to be largely neglected. This paper attempts to address this issue.

This study is in five main parts. In the first part, trends in volunteering are outlined and then theories of motivation and volunteer motivation are considered. The literature pertaining to the management of volunteers is then briefly analysed. In the fourth

part the methodology of the study is outlined followed by the limitations of the study. Lastly a number of conclusions relating to the motivation of volunteers, the use of a motivation measurement tool (the VFI) and its potential importance to the management of volunteers are discussed.

TRENDS IN VOLUNTEERING

Certain trends have been identified as having an impact on not only the way in which volunteers are managed, but also in the way they affect the structure of non profit organisations. These trends include changes to workforce composition, an ageing population, increasing social inequalities and private and public sector downsizing (Paull 2002, Lockstone, Jago & Deery 2002; Warburton & Mutch 2000).

The changing nature of the Australian workforce has had a large impact on people's readiness to volunteer. The increased pressure on paid workers to perform and put in longer hours has resulted in employees having no time or energy to volunteer (Metzer 2003). Further the fact more women are entering the paid workforce has led to the diminishment of what has been a traditional source of volunteers (Metzer 2003). Although the Australia the Bureau of Statistics (2001) has highlighted that women are increasingly volunteering making up 32 per cent of all volunteers. On the other side of the ledger, the baby boomer generation is starting to become more prominent as a volunteer base that still offers a largely untapped new pool of knowledge and resources (ABS 2001).

Alternatively, Zappala (2000) argues that a new type of volunteer is emerging as the population grows and changes. Traditionally volunteers engaged in only the time consuming and menial tasks. This tradition however, has been affected by the changes in society, as today's volunteers are often 'skill rich but time poor'. New volunteers are now often involved in Employee Volunteer Programs (EVP) where they can donate their professional skills for development purposes such as website development, financial and management consultancy. Zappala also suggests that the key for non profit organisations gaining a competitive edge is making use of EVP through partnerships with government or business organisations. Instead of just 'managing' their volunteers, managers of non profit organisations need to better understand their existing volunteers (2000).

To take advantage of these trends, it has been noted that non profit organisations will need to take them into account when recruiting volunteers. The National Agenda on Volunteering (Volunteering Australia 2001) suggests that organisations will need to consider offering flexible working hours, accommodating volunteers with disabilities and health concerns, and to provide more accessible opportunities to volunteers such as virtual volunteering. This may prove a challenging task for the managers of tourism volunteers, as the positions they fill are crucial to the delivery of a perceived quality service.

Due to the pivotal role that volunteers do play within the tourism industry, the lack of substantial literature relating to this specific industry is interesting given the growing importance of tourism to the Australian economy. The small amount of existing literature specific to tourism volunteers is limited to specific tourism locations and occupations with very little looking at volunteer motivation and its management.

Particular focus has been given to service quality and human resource management issues at heritage visitor attractions by authors such as Jago and Deery (2001 and 2002), as well as smaller studies of motivation focusing on one-off and regular event volunteers and volunteer rescuers of a tourism nature (Strigas and Newton Jackson Jnr 2003; and Uriely, Schwartz, Cohen & Reichel 2002). Although this research is seminal and important, it fails to analyse the importance of having an understanding of volunteer motivation, particularly in a tourism setting, and the need to maintain and manage this once a volunteer joins an organisation.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation as a concept has fascinated researchers for a long time now and an agreed definition of it still proves elusive (Reber 1985). Pearce (1993) has attempted to describe it as a set of forces; either weak or strong that initiates, directs and sustains work related behaviour. While Statt (1994) claims that due to the numerous, ever changing, often unconscious and sometimes even contradictory nature of motivations, they can vary from one individual to another. Due to this widely recognised perception of motivation, several key theories have been examined in this study. Three informal and four formal theories of motivation are examined along with the newer Reversal Theory of motivation.

The first informal theory of motivation considered is McGregor's (1960) well known Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor's Theory Y, postulated jointly with his Theory X, supports the assumption that people generally exercise self direction and control to reach organisational goals (1960). In a voluntary organisation, this has the potential to restrict the growth of a volunteer to the culture of the organisation, as new projects are often up to the volunteer to initiate (Haslam 2001; Statt 1994).

Another theory of motivation is the social assumption theory, which has been adapted from Elton Mayo's (1949) 'Hawthorne Studies' labelled the originator of the human relations movement. The biggest finding to come from that study suggests individuals will circumvent, modify or ignore aspects of the workplace structure they find objectionable. A primary notion of the social assumption approach suggests that human behaviour is motivated by social needs and a sense of identity results from interpersonal relationships (Haslam 2001; Statt 1994), a concept that has been in voluntary literature for many years.

The formal theories of motivation include some theories that are regarded as key motivation theories. Apter's (1982) newer 'reversal theory' has been included among the formal theories to emphasise Statt's (1994) claim that motivation does vary from one individual to another. Maslow's (1947) 'Hierarchy of Needs' is also relevant in that it is accepted that volunteering would generally not occur before social needs, but is not always the case.

Alderfer's (1972) existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory has been derived directly from Maslow's (1947) Hierarchy of Needs theory. However, Alderefer claims that humans only have three needs and those needs can be activated at any time in any order as well as simultaneously. Much like moving along a continuum rather than up and down a hierarchy Alderfer's existence needs are adapted from Maslow's physiological and certain safety needs. Alderfer's (1972) relatedness needs correspond with Maslow's (1947) safety and social needs and some esteem needs. Whereas Alderfer's (1972) growth needs correspond to the esteem and self actualisation needs of Maslow's (1947) Hierarchy of Needs (Haslam 2001; Statt 1994). In volunteering terms it means that an individual could be volunteering to create new friendships and social interaction as well as being able to use their skills and knowledge.

McClelland's (1973) Need for Achievement theory suggests that we have three needs. He also claims that all humans posses the need for affiliation and the Need for Power, but not all humans posses the need for achievement. The need for achievement is characterised by a strong work ethic and desire to achieve organisational objectives (McKenna 2000). Where volunteering is concerned, the specialised need for achievement is often very active.

Herzberg et. al. (1959) 'Two Factor' theory argues that people are compelled towards activity that makes them feel good and to avoid activity that makes them feel bad (McKenna 2000). The two needs of the two factor theory are hygiene factors, the need to feel safe, and motivator factors, the need for recognition and responsibility for achievement. Hygiene factors are regarded as lower level needs and are generally satisfied before the needs of the motivating factors. When the act of volunteering is considered, volunteers want to feel safe in their work environment and be engaged in rewarding and motivating tasks.

The reversal theory of motivation suggests that personality is a pattern over time rather than a static dimension and offers an explanation of the way metamotivational dominance determines behaviours and actions. The theory suggests four domains of experience and two opposite ways of experiencing them. There is no way the domains can be experienced in both ways at the same time. A main notion of reversal theory is that people can and do perform the same actions over time for different motives, a concept that can be adapted to volunteering. Volunteers may decide to volunteer at one point to enhance their career prospects whilst at another time they may volunteer out of compassion for others. (More information can be found in Apter 2001 as well as Svebak and Murgatroyd 1985).

It is important to recognise the link between motivation and volunteering, and that the motivations for volunteering need to be addressed. Powers (1998) claims that most people volunteer because they are asked to. However, he has identified three different types of volunteers (Powers, 1998). The first volunteer he describes is a spot volunteer, who responds to specific volunteering needs but maintains a casual relationship with the organisation. The second type of volunteer develops a more formal and ongoing relationship with the volunteer organisation and often become involved out of personal commit-

ment. They also gain a sense of gratification and accomplishment. The third type of volunteer is pressured into volunteering by an employer or some other person or entity (Powers 1998). This defining of volunteer types by Powers supports notions of 'Reversal Theory', as the theory postulates that there are different ways of experiencing each domain that can't be experienced at the same time.

Volunteering has been established as behaviour, that if established early continues throughout life (Powers 1998). Whilst Strigas and Newton Jackson Jnr emphasise that what 'researchers know about the internal structure of motivation to engage in voluntary activity remains in an embryonic stage' (p. 115, 2003). In spite of this embryonic understanding of the deep structure of motivation, it is still essential for managers to gain an understanding of why their volunteers are donating their time and what rewards they want from volunteering.

MANAGING VOLUNTEERS

There are many similarities in the way in which paid staff are managed that can be adapted to managing volunteers, with some significant differences. Managers could significantly increase their own effectiveness by using this knowledge (Mason 1984 in Paull 2002). Perhaps the most significant of these differences is addressing the motives for wanting to volunteer. As Clary et. al. (1998) suggest, the 'effortful' sustained and non remunerated nature of volunteering raises the fundamental question as to why people engage in it, and if their managers are aware of why volunteers are involved. This study aims to continue from the Clary et. al. (1998) foundation of motivational research and to incorporate the manager's perception of what motivates volunteers.

Managers of volunteers and non profit organisations have been forced into a tricky situation whereby they have to find the balance between professionalising the management of volunteers, while still maintaining the unique amateur quality volunteering offers. It is generally accepted that volunteers need their time and tasks to be well organised, yet debate about the appropriate management techniques still occurs. Paull (2002) suggests that volunteers give a gift of their time and to fail to successfully manage this gift fails to afford volunteering its appropriate value. Others suggest that there are things known

about how to manage paid staff that can be applied to the special needs of volunteers (Cuskelly and Brosnan 2001).

Volunteering is no longer viewed as a one way relationship, it is a reciprocal agreement. Volunteers themselves should not be seen as an extra pair of hands; managers should be aware of their needs and ensure they are satisfied so as to create a healthy give and take relationship (Vanstien 2002). The way in which volunteers are managed can have an impact on the service quality in the non profit sector, particularly in a service based industry such as tourism. This relationship with perceived service quality has been recognised and many voluntary organisations are applying a range of measures, and tools to monitor and maintain perceived service quality (Vaughan & Shiu 2001; Vineyard 1985; Shin & Kleiner 1998).

A number of authors have looked at other motivations of volunteering. Gooch (2003), for example, found that a volunteers 'sense of place' or attachment to their geographical and sociological surroundings can be a powerful motivator for many volunteers while Willis (1991) suggests that volunteers offer their services in exchange for receiving social contact with others, personal development, skill acquisition and learning, challenge and achievement and to make a contribution to society. Willis goes on to claim that volunteers need to gain at least some of these rewards in order to secure their continuing commitment so that the work of the organisation is completed. Three management tasks have been identified by Willis (1991) for ensuring that volunteers receive these rewards.

The first task is to ensure that recruitment of volunteers is not the sole responsibility of the manager, but other volunteers as well. Research indicates that a substantial number of volunteers are recruited by friends, relatives and associates (Deery, Jago & Shaw 1997), and managers should take advantage of this. The second task of managers involves the matching of volunteers with a position which meets their motivational needs, which ideally should be done during the interview stage. The manager should ascertain the volunteer's skills, interests and intended time of commitment and gently probe their motivation for volunteering. This motivation for volunteering should also be addressed for the entire term of the work to ensure the successful development of the volunteer. The final task of management

is to support and nurture the development of the volunteer. It is the role of the manager to create a safe and meaningful environment for the volunteer and to give them the opportunity to satisfy their personal needs (Willis 1991; Pearce 1980).

METHODOLOGY

A case study methodology was used for this study, based around a questionnaire and two separate regional tourism cases. Each case consisted of ten volunteers and one manager, with a different survey for the volunteers and managers. Each manager was interviewed as were the ten volunteers from each case. The questionnaires formed the basis of a recorded interview with the researcher and transcripts of the interviews were later typed up so as to triangulate the findings. The survey instrument used for the volunteers was developed by the researcher and incorporated Clary et. al. (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) model.

The VFI developed by Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen and Miene in 1998 suggests that people maintain their voluntary behaviour provided they fulfill one or more of the six individualist functions as postulated by Clary et. al. (1989). The six functions are that are addressed in the inventory are:

1   **Values** – addressing the altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others, often distinguishing volunteers from non volunteers. or the chance to use skills or knowledge that would otherwise go unpractised.
2   **Understanding** – creating opportunities to permit new learning experiences, or the chance to use skills or knowledge that would otherwise go unpractised.
3   **Social** – concerns relationships with others and addresses the need to be with ones friends or create new relationships.
4   **Career** – suggests that avenues of volunteering have the possibility to assist career opportunities in the future.
5   **Protective** – serves to protect the self from negative thoughts of perhaps being more fortunate than others.
6   **Enhancement** – offers the ego positive growth and development. Often used in contrast to the protective function which aims to eliminate negativity, whereas the enhancement function aims to promote a positive environment

The inventory measures motivation based on selecting on a Likert scale the relevance of statements regarding volunteering. The interview also requested detailed basic demographic information, other volunteering status and then asked the volunteer whether they believed they were effectively managed at their place of work and their reasons for this belief.

The manager's survey was structured similarly, but the manager was asked to complete the VFI according to what they thought were the actual motives of the volunteers. They were also asked whether or not they implemented any plans or strategies specifically designed to maintain motives in volunteers. The collective scores of the volunteer's VFI and their perception of management were then compared against the manager's perception of their motives and their managerial efforts to maintain volunteer motivation.

VOLUNTEER MOTIVATIONS AT TWO REGIONAL TOURISM ORGANISATIONS

CASE STUDY A

A regional Visitors Information Centre. The data revealed that the primary motive for the volunteers was the understanding function. This was closely followed by the values then enhancement functions. The protective, social then career function proved to be the least relevant. This suggests that volunteers of Case Study A are looking for both new learning experiences and to do tasks which utilise the skills they already have.

The Manager of Case Study A also scored the understanding function as the primary motivator for the volunteers of this organisation, then the social function. The manager perceived the values, protective and enhancement functions to be equal motives for the volunteers of Case Study A. As with the volunteers, the manager suggested that the career function was the least prominent motivator for these volunteers. Table One shows the similarities in the scores suggest that the manager is wary that these volunteers are wishing to use their existing skills and to also learn and practice new ones.

Table 1: Understanding function scores at Case Study A

Understanding Function	Mean Volunteer Score	Manager Response
I can learn more about the organisation that I volunteer for	1.4	2
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	1.3	2
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct hands on experience	1.6	1
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	1.3	3
I can explore my own strengths	2.3	3
Total mean scores	1.58	2.2

Likert Scale = 1 strongly agree – 5 strongly disagree. Source: (Clary et. al. 1998)

The biggest variation in the scores occurred within the social function, as the manager scored this function to be the second most prominent motivator for volunteers, while the volunteers themselves scored it fifth out of the six functions. This indicates a slight misinterpretation by the manager that socialising is more important to the volunteers than showing their concern for others and enhancing their own wellbeing

The Manager of Case Study A, when asked if he used any formal plans or strategies to specifically maintain motivation once a volunteer belonged to his organisation, suggested hesitantly that volunteer familiarity tours ('famils') and inductions were his main means of achieving this. He also suggested the volunteers had a degree of empowerment in being able to highlight any issues they had in a monthly newsletter and that those issues would be given due consideration and put into action where feasible

The manager went on to highlight the fact that he was aware of the importance of motivation in volunteers yet failed to specifically monitor it with any tools or strategies. This is particularly important where long term volunteers are involved, as their 'famil' or induction may have occurred twenty years ago or more. The manager also claimed that their induction package outlined the roles and responsibilities of volunteers to ensure they do not go outside the set boundaries.

The actions taken by the manager of Case Study A suggests that he is primarily concerned with the volunteers being aware of, and abiding by, their duties, not making sure volunteers get what they desire from their volunteering experience. The volunteer's

perception of management in Case Study A is a little cloudy, as the levels of management and decision making was not made clear to the volunteers. On the whole, 70 per cent of the volunteers believed that they were effectively managed. However, only a few were willing to justify why they believed this, and the few that were willing to do so based their perceptions around the tasks they performed and the interaction they had with tourists and others.

Another 20 per cent of the sample thought they were sometimes managed effectively and their reasons were based around training and reward. One of these volunteers stated they "weren't given enough training and nobody was really aware of how to do things properly", while another suggested that sometimes they "were made to feel really important" while at other times they felt "just like a volunteer". The final 10 per cent suggested that volunteers are not effectively managed at Case Study A due to the influence of the managing body, (the local City Council) on volunteer management and in the lack of recognition by Council for work achieved. After thirty years as volunteers at this organisation, some were clearly unhappy. One volunteer proffered that she "felt unrecognised and undervalued".

Even though the majority of the volunteers believed they were effectively managed most of the time, 30 per cent still made reference to the presence of a managing body and the limitations that placed on their management. The reference was made in relation to both the current environment and to past situations. Figure One outlines the organisational structure of Case Study A.
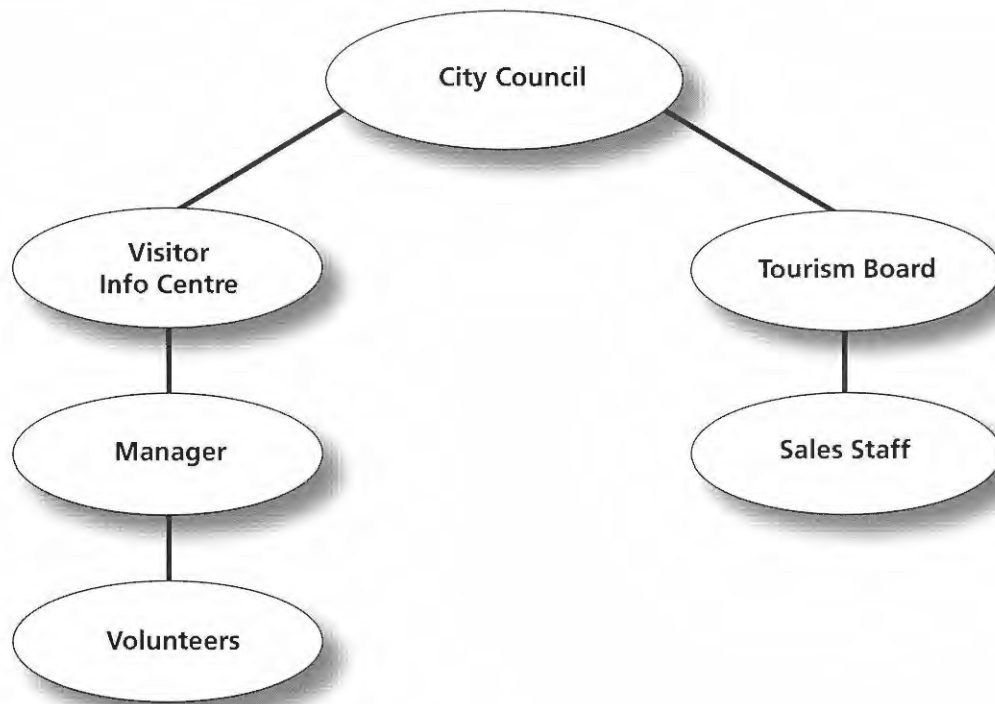
Figure 1: Case Study A – organisational chart

CASE STUDY B

A regional art gallery highly dependent on tourists. The data relating to the second case study, revealed that the primary three motivators for volunteers were very closely aligned to the understanding, values and enhancement functions of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The prioritisation of these functions suggests that the volunteers interviewed desired new learning experiences and to also make the most of the skills that they already had which would otherwise wasted. It became clear from the volunteers interviewed at Case Study B that it is also an important motivator for the volunteers to show their humanitarian side and to help others less fortunate than themselves.

The next three most important motives were the social, career and finally, the protective functions which suggests that social interaction and the chance to create new friendships was still a desired outcome for the volunteers at Case Study B. The volunteers were more interested in keeping their minds active by learning new experiences than enhancing their feelings of self worth by being a volunteer.

The manager of Case Study B perceived both the understanding and enhancement functions to be the core motives behind volunteering at her organisation. This indicates the manager perceived the volunteers had a desire to enhance their feelings of self worth and to engage in new learning experiences. Table Two shows that there was a close match in this area between both volunteers and their manager, particularly in regard to the understanding function of the VFI.

The manager then suggested that the values, social, career then protective functions followed in order as motivators for volunteers. This consistency between the manager's perception of volunteer motives and the actual volunteer motives indicates that the manager of Case Study B has a sound understanding of what motivates the volunteers at that organisation. This understanding is a fundamental step in being able to effectively manage and maintain volunteer motivation once a person volunteers at an organisation.

The Manager of Case Study B was confident in

Table 2: Understanding function scores at Case Study B

Understanding Function	Mean Volunteer Score	Manager Response
I can learn more about the organisation that I volunteer for	1.37	2
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	1.7	2
Volunteering lets me learn things through direct hands on experience	2	1
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	1.5	1
I can explore my own strengths	1.8	3
Total mean scores	1.67	1.8

Likert 5cale = 1 strongly agree – 5 strongly disagree. Source: (Clary et. al. 1998)

saying that to maintain motivation she did seek out those volunteers who wanted extra responsibilities and tried to match volunteers to the tasks she thought they might enjoy. She also matched tasks to skills and training that the volunteers already have. The manager of Case Study B also adopted a professional approach when dealing with workplace conflicts and disagreements, implying that when rostering is done and tasks assigned she tries to avoid situations where there might be conflict. The strategies used by the manager of Case Study B suggest that she is aware of the need to give the volunteers rewarding and meaningful tasks, but she is also aware of the skills that can be adapted from managing a paid workforce. Many human resource approaches can be applied to managing an unpaid workforce as detailed earlier. As suggested from the perceptions of the volunteers the manager of Case Study B appears to have found that balance between managing volunteers effectively while also satisfying their needs.

All of the volunteers from Case Study B believed that they were effectively managed by their manager although, as with Case Study A, only a few were willing to justify why. The volunteers appeared to be aware of the responsibilities of each level of management in their organisation, and respect their manager's ability when they know that a decision is out of her hands.

The volunteers were genuinely happy with the way they are respected by their manager and had only one area which they believed could be improved. The manager was relatively new to the organisation and the volunteers gave her leeway for this, but they believed that they "needed to be included in com-

munications more" and to be made aware of the purpose of tasks rather than "just being asked to do them". The volunteers believed the manager could gather some creative input and enhance volunteer enthusiasm if they knew the reasons for particular tasks. Nevertheless, there seemed to be far less concern about the influence of the governance structure and its influence at Case Study B than was apparent at Case Study A. The simpler, less bureaucratic, organisational structure outlined in Figure Two may well account for this.
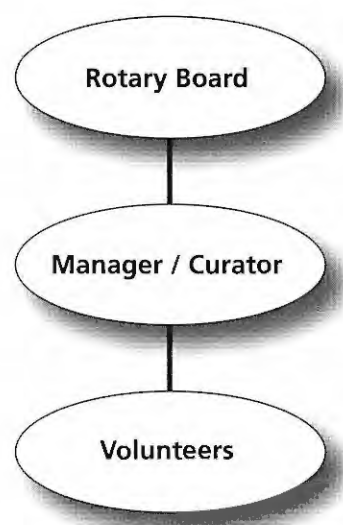
Figure 2: Case Study B – organisational chart

As volunteers come from all walks of life, it is not uncommon for a volunteer to have previous experience in what they are being asked to do. Therefore if volunteers know the reasons for being asked to undertake certain tasks it might encourage a more free flowing communication between management and volunteers resulting in volunteers feeling confident to offer their knowledge.

The major differences in perceptions occurred in regard to the social function of the VFI, where both managers believed that their volunteers were volunteering to be with existing friends. Conversely, the volunteers indicated that they volunteered to make new friends. This discrepancy however does not seem to have had an affect on the actual performance of the volunteers or the managers. The managers did know that volunteers were seeking social opportunities; they just did not understand what motivated the desire for social activities.

From this study it appears that the parts of the VFI of particular value to regional tourism organisations are the social and the understanding functions. The social function addresses the need to be with friends and to create new friendships, an immense source of satisfaction from engaging in voluntary activity for many volunteers. While the understanding function also permits the opportunity to learn new skills and utilise existing ones, it also gives managers an opportunity to make the most of a wide variety of volunteers' skills.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Apart from the obvious limitation of the size of this research (two case studies), an issue about the make up of volunteers does need to be considered when taking into account the apparent limitations of this study. Ninety per cent of those interviewed were aged from 50 to 70 years and approximately 80 per cent stated that they were retired. All came from a city in northern New South Wales which has a high proportion of retirees. As a result the use of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) for this study did not allow for any examination of the literature as it pertains to older volunteers as the VFI does not specifically allow for demographic or income variables to be tested (Baldock 1999). Clearly there are factors relating to this that need to be further tested, particularly where a high percentage of volunteers are retirees.

Additionally, there were a high percentage of volunteers who were on low incomes of less than $30,000 per annum. This may well be distorted by the fact that many retirees are on pensions and this may not be such an influential factor if the VFI were to be used as a tool to measure volunteer motivation in tourism organisations elsewhere where retirees are less prominent among the volunteer base. The responses in this study to the various factors in the VFI may be distorted by age and possibly income, two factors that, as has been explained previously, cannot be analysed using the VFI. Nevertheless, this does not mean the VFI is a tool that managers of volunteers in other settings could not use successfully.

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, it can be suggested that the managers of these two case studies have some degree of awareness as to what primarily motivates their volunteers, according to the VFI. However, they appear to be unaware just how the other functions may affect the volunteer's propensity to offer their services and time. This misunderstanding of various functions can be demonstrated by the effects of the social function on volunteers. Due to the sources of volunteer recruitment for these cases, the managers suggest that people are volunteering to be with existing friends, when in fact the reverse may be the case and they are in fact seeking opportunities to make new friendships. In this situation a thorough knowledge of the understanding function of the VFI would be of benefit to volunteer managers.

Indeed perhaps a better understanding of how the other functions of the VFI motivate volunteers, will lead managers of volunteers into creating more meaningful and fulfilling tasks for volunteers and help them to attract those who are looking for new friendships. The fact that all the VFI functions did not feature strongly in the two case's studied does not mean it is not a useful tool for other volunteering situations. It is in this regard that a grounded understanding of the VFI and how it works could prove to be a very useful recruitment and motivation tool for the managers of volunteers to have and to understand.

It also appears it is essential to keep volunteers 'in the loop' with regards to decision making especially as to who makes the final decision. If vol-

unteers are given some insight as to how an organisation operates, they may feel more comfortable in their environment. This is similar to the way many employers use employee empowerment as a way to foster commitment, growth and development in their employees. This study also indicates that keeping a skills audit of the skills a volunteer possesses, such as past employment history and responsibilities, not only helps to match volunteers to tasks that maintains both their enthusiasm and their motivation in relation to established skills and interests but may also be used to highlight areas of potential volunteer development too.

The tourism framework that this study was conducted in also suggested that even though the volunteers may not receive much recognition and reward from their respective managing boards, their personal reward comes from maintaining a positive and desirable image for their city which reflects Gooch's finding (2003) that sense of place may be a powerful motivator for volunteers. Even though this gives the volunteer some sense of satisfaction, it is obvious that in order to help volunteers achieve this outcome, it is essential that their manager must be aware of what motivates a volunteer to give their time and effort in the first place. It is here that the VFI may be used as an effective management tool to measure volunteer motivations and to create opportunities for the volunteers to maintain their motivation.

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