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Factors that influence the continuation and discontinuation of adult volunteer leaders in the Iowa 4-H program

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FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE CONTINUATION AND DISCONTINUATION
OF ADULT VOLUNTEER LEADERS IN THE IOWA 4-H PROGRAM

Iowa State University

Ph.D. 1986

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**Factors that influence the continuation and discontinuation
of adult volunteer leaders in the Iowa 4-H program**

by .

Brenda Faye Thorbs

**A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**Department: Professional Studies in Education
Major: Education (Adult and Extension Education)**

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For the Major Department

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**Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa**

1986

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DEDICATION

To my parents and
to the memory of my brother,
Leslie Levon Thorbs

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION**Background**

Throughout the United States history, people have freely given their time, leadership skills, money, and other resources in various ways to help solve individual and community problems. It has been estimated that over 60 million people offer their services to volunteer organizations each year in the United States (Gallup, 1980).

The Cooperative Extension Service which has Home Economics, Agriculture, Community Resource Development, and 4-H and Youth as it's main program areas is one of many organizations which rely on adult volunteers. Boyce et al. (1982) reports that of the 1-1/2 million extension volunteers, 570,000 work in 4-H and youth programs.

The 4-H program is recognized for its educational value to youth between the ages of 9-19. Two objectives of 4-H are to provide opportunities for young people to develop leadership talents and abilities and to strengthen personal qualities and citizenship ideals. Based on these objectives, it is generally believed that activities associated with 4-H work bring about more positive social behavior in the participants.

The 4-H and Youth programs in Iowa are directed and supervised by the State and Assistant State 4-H leaders. Program implementation is accomplished by professional Extension 4-H and Youth leaders employed on a single-county, two-county, or multi-county basis. In 1983, over 93,421 youth were reached by Iowa's 4-H and Youth programs.

In each county throughout Iowa there are three groups of

volunteers, usually adults, who are directly involved in 4-H programs. The first group, the County Agriculture Extension Council, is responsible for the general supervision of educational programs for extension work in agriculture, home economics, community resource development, and 4-H activities. The second group, approved by the Extension Council upon recommendation of the professional Extension 4-H and Youth leader, is the county 4-H Committee. This group is responsible for developing organizational and procedural policies for the 4-H programs in their respective counties. Teenagers are sometimes selected and appointed to serve on the 4-H Committee in many counties. The third and largest group is the volunteer leaders of the (4-H) programs to which the 4-H members belong. The leaders provide guidance to the local 4-H club and instruction in appropriate subject matter to the 4-H members. Members of all three groups of volunteers are of both sexes, have a wide educational background, and may or may not have been a former 4-H member.

Statement of the Problem

The last decade has seen significant increases in youth participation in 4-H programs in Iowa. The sharp increase in membership from 66,443 in 1977 to 87,793 in 1980 has been attributed, in part, to the promotion of 4-H activities in several cities of the state (The Cooperative Extension Service).

However, between 1977 and 1980 adult volunteer 4-H club leader participation decreased from 15,329 to 14,180 (The Cooperative Extension Service). In 1978, the total number of first year

volunteers was 2,362. This number decreased by 24.6% after one year.

This situation is not a recent phenomenon, nor is it characteristic of Iowa. In a Michigan study, for example, Allen (1963) found a 27% drop in 4-H volunteers after one year. In his Northeastern Region study of 4-H club adult leadership, Sabrosky (1964) found that about one-third of the volunteer leaders discontinued rendering voluntary services to the 4-H program at the end of one year.

The problems associated with high turnover rate of volunteer leaders are two-fold. In the 4-H program, the high turnover of volunteers leads to: (1) disruption of planned programs and on-going activities; and (2) substantial costs associated with the recruitment, training, and placement of new volunteers. Cull and Hardy (1974, p. 6) state:

The volunteers are in many respects equivalent to employees of organizations in that they require job descriptions, inservice training programs, supervision, and well-planned rewards for meritorious service. . . . The volunteer is misused and is done an injustice when he is selected indiscriminantly and immediately assigned a task. He should be provided the same personnel management services as other employees if his services are to be of maximum benefit to himself and to the organization.

Short tenure does not help the volunteer either: (1) it makes it difficult for him/her to make any meaningful contribution to the 4-H and consequently very little, if any, personal satisfaction can be achieved, (2) rapid turnover of volunteers tends to lower the prestige associated with voluntarism generally, in the minds of many people and thus hamper any volunteer recruitment efforts (Cheatham, 1982), and (3)

high turnover tends to affect the efficiency of the 4-H clubs concerned. For example, a recent study done in Iowa using an "indicator of quality" instrument found that of the 141 4-H clubs observed, the 17 clubs with first-year leaders consistently ranked lowest in the areas of educational quality (Gamon, 1978).

A review of recent research on volunteer motivation consistently indicates multi-faceted motivational forces are involved with volunteer retention. According to Watson and Lewis (1976), motives for volunteering include: (1) career rehearsal, (2) skill maintenance during child-bearing years, and (3) an alternative to a period of unemployment spent at home. However, it is recognized that there are some volunteers who plan a short volunteer experience.

The reasons cited above for joining voluntary organizations may, therefore, be reasons for leaving the organization, depending upon whether or not the individual volunteer feels his/her objective has been fulfilled. Litterer (1965) and Ellis and Noyes (1978) see the motivational aspect of the volunteer as emanating essentially from his/her work situation, whereby time and effort are exchanged for satisfaction and psychic rewards to the individual. This finding was also supported by Qureshi, Davies, and Challis (1979). These studies lend support to the assertion that a multiplicity of factors combine in various ways to determine whether an individual will continue to volunteer. This study will consider rewards that influence adult 4-H volunteer's continuation or discontinuation as volunteer leaders connected with the Iowa 4-H program. Therefore, this study will address

the following questions

1. Are there rewards which help predict who will continue as a 4-H volunteer?
2. Is there a relationship between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H?
3. Are there any differences in perception toward rewards by continuing and discontinuing volunteers?

Significance of the Study

The valuable roles played by volunteers in Extension has been well-documented. It has been argued that volunteers can be effective teachers, more so than professionals, with some audiences (Taskerud and Strawn, 1979); that volunteers have the ability to relate to their own groups and serve as advocates extending staff outreach efforts (Cull and Hardy, 1974); and that these volunteers represent a source of strength in gaining support for services (Naylor, 1967). Indeed, the current inflationary trends and the consequent budgetary cutbacks at federal and state levels indicate that the survival of several human service agencies will depend on the extent to which they can recruit and retain volunteers.

Given the positive contributions of volunteers to Extension programs, any trend indicating a high dropout or turnover rate, as has been observed in Iowa and elsewhere, should be a matter of concern for researchers and program administrators. Previous studies in this area have been mostly descriptive and have, in most cases, not been anchored within a theoretical framework. The generalization of findings are therefore limited in space and scope.

Based on the assumption that rewards or benefits are legitimate and valid motives for volunteering, the significance of this study will be to better help understand some of the factors which contribute to the high dropout and turnover rate among 4-H volunteers in the state of Iowa. By identifying the factors which contribute to the longevity of volunteers, it is hoped that the findings would be useful for the Cooperative Extension Service and other human service organizations which draw on the services of volunteers.

Definitions of Concepts

Volunteer—a person who works with a particular institution on a regular basis, of his/her own free will and without receiving direct economic rewards for his/her own work.

Amount of influence in 4-H--reflects the impact an individual has on a given situation.

Social approval--the degree to which a volunteer gains the acceptance, friendship, and recognition from significant others.

Job satisfaction--reflects the degree to which a worker's performance matches his/her expected performance.

Career development--reflects skills a volunteer gains while volunteering that can enhance his/her potential for a professional job.

Reward--"pleasures, satisfactions, and gratifications a person gains through interactions" (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959).

Cost--"any status, relationship, interaction, milieu, or feeling disliked by an individual" (Nye, 1979).

Rationale and Hypothesis

Rationale

The social exchange theory purports that rewards received by an actor through interaction with others perpetuate activity, while costs incurred cause an actor to seek more profitable alternatives.

Individuals constantly compare rewards in a given situation, evaluating whether the level of profit is what they feel they deserve. If this is true, volunteers will continue to participate, if not, they will seek more profitable alternatives. Based on exchange theories, continuing volunteers will perceive greater rewards and less costs while discontinued volunteers will perceive greater costs and fewer rewards.

Based on the above, this study has the following hypotheses.

Hypotheses

- Hypothesis 1. There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H.
- Hypothesis 2. Job satisfaction as a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than will social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development.
- Hypothesis 3. There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H.
- Hypothesis 4. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) amount of influence as 4-H leaders than will volunteers who discontinued.

- Hypothesis 5. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) social approval among their peers than will volunteers who discontinued.
- Hypothesis 6. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) volunteer job satisfaction than will volunteers who discontinued.
- Hypothesis 7. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive that their career development is greater ($p \geq .05$) than will volunteers who discontinued.

Assumption

People serve as volunteers as a way to provide services to their fellow persons. As they remain in the organization, reward factors such as amount of influence in 4-H, social approval, career development, and job satisfaction have an impact upon their decision to remain in the organization.

Delimitation

This study will involve volunteer respondents who serve or have served as volunteer leaders in the 4-H program in Iowa. Consequently, the application of the findings might be limited to volunteers in Iowa and at best, to others elsewhere engaged in human service organizations.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation will be organized into five chapters, a bibliography, and appendices. Chapter I includes the Introduction, the Purpose of the Study, and Hypotheses to be used. Chapter II

contains a Review of Literature. Chapter III presents detailed information on the methods and procedures utilized in this study. Chapter IV includes the findings relevant to the objectives and hypotheses. Chapter V contains a summary of the problem, findings of the study, discussions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This study was designed to examine factors that influence adult 4-H volunteer's continuation or discontinuation as voluntary leaders connected with the Iowa 4-H program. More specifically, this research was undertaken to address the following questions.

1. Are there rewards which help predict who will continue as a 4-H volunteer?
2. Is there a relationship between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H?
3. Are there any differences in perception toward rewards by continuing and discontinuing volunteers?

The objective of this chapter is to present the theoretical framework which underlies this research. The social exchange theory was chosen as a theoretical framework because of the following reasons. First, it provides a framework which helps explain the interactions of human beings, and thus, the interactions of volunteers. Second, it provides a basis for the selection of the variables to be examined and the development of the instrument. Third, this theory provides a basis for the explanation of the study results.

This chapter is organized into four sections. The first section deals with the historical background of the social exchange theory. The second section contains selected contemporary social exchange theories. Section three provides a review of studies examining volunteerism using the exchange theory. The conclusion is provided in the final section.

Historical Background of Social Exchange Theory

There is no single comprehensive social exchange theory. Social exchange theory is a mixture of utilitarian economics, social anthropology, and psychological behaviorism. These three different areas are not meant to be either inclusive or exclusive of one another. They represent rather, explanations of social exchange from three different perspectives. This section contains contributions made by each of these areas to social exchange theory.

Utilitarian economics

The early conceptualization of utilitarian economics was established through the works of Adam Smith, John Stewart Mill, and Jeremy Bentham. While each made different contributions to utilitarianism, they all shared some of the same views about humans. According to Jonathan Turner (1974), Smith, Mill, and Bentham perceived humans as rational economic beings whose only objective is the acquisition of material goods. The fundamental principles of utilitarianism are that: (1) human beings seek rewards and benefits through exchanges with others in a free and competitive marketplace, (2) as rational beings, humans select those activities which would maximize material benefits, (3) in a free and competitive marketplace humans need to consider costs (Turner, 1974). These costs must be weighted against material benefits in an effort to determine which activities would yield the maximum payoff or profit (benefits less costs).

In an attempt to explain behavior in noneconomic situations, the utilitarian principles were revised to include new assumptions about

man.

According to Turner (1974) these assumptions are:

1. While humans do not seek to maximize profits, they always attempt to make some profit in their social transactions with others.
2. While humans are not perfectly rational, they engage in calculations of costs and benefits in social transactions.
3. While humans do not have perfect information on all alternatives, they are usually aware of at least some alternatives, which form the basis for assessments of costs and benefits.
4. While there are always constraints on human activity, humans compete with each other in seeking to make a profit in their transactions.
5. While economic transactions in a clearly defined marketplace occur in all societies, they are only a special case of more general exchange relations occurring among individuals in all social contexts.
6. While material goals typify exchanges in an economic marketplace, humans also exchange other, nonmaterial commodities, such as sentiments and services of various kinds.

Even though these assumptions were established as alternatives to utilitarian principles, they give support to the utilitarian's belief that man by nature is seeking economic benefits. In reviewing utilitarianism, only part of the historical legacy of social exchange

theory has been exposed.

Social anthropology

The social exchange theory has also been greatly influenced by contributions made by anthropologists. Sir James G. Frazer (1919) advanced the utilitarian perspective of social exchanges in kinship and marriage practices among primitive societies in Australia. Bronislaw and Malinowski (1922) viewed human behavior in terms of symbolic exchanges between individuals in the South Sea Islands. Levi-Strauss (1969) conceptualized the structural exchange perspective in cross-cousin marriages among the Australian aboriginals.

Sir James G. Frazer explained the predominance of cross-cousin marriage patterns among Australian aboriginals. He observed that economic motivations played an important role in acquiring spouses in that society. Among the Australian aboriginals, women had a high economic and commercial value. Men who had many sisters or daughters were rich, while men who had none were considered poor. Men had to provide a female relative, usually a sister or daughter in exchange for wives. Hence, men who had many female relatives were able to obtain more wives.

Frazer argued that as individual acts became accepted practice, social patterns emerged which can be traced back to an economic motive. In attempting to explain how elementary exchange processes create complex institutional patterns in a society, Frazer (1919, p. 198) identified four propositions of the exchange theory:

1. "Social exchange processes are developed to serve the population."

2. "Social institutions are developed to subserve the social exchange processes."
3. "Secondary institutions are shaped to conform to, and to subserve the needs of, the primary institutions."
4. "Once established in society, social exchange processes can be exploited by individuals to gain power and status."

Thus, the focus of Frazer's analysis was on how elementary exchange processes bring about and solidify social patterns with emphasis on differentiation of social systems in terms of privilege and power.

Ekeh (1974) contends that Frazer's exchange system suggests that those who possessed commodities of high economic value exploited those who had few commodities, thereby enabling the former to possess high privilege and presumably, power over the latter.

While Frazer espoused that social exchange processes are derived from economic motives of individuals in society, Bronislaw Malinowski believed that social exchange can be explained by focusing on the exchange dynamics between individuals. According to Ekeh (1974), Malinowski stands out as the first social scientist to make a distinction between economic exchange and social exchange.

Malinowski's conceptualization of exchange patterns was based on his interpretation of the Kula Ring ritual of the Trobriand Islanders of the South Sea Islands. The Kula Ring was a closed circle of exchange relations among individuals in communities. Two articles, necklaces and armshells were exchanged and set in motion in opposite directions around the circle. An exchange was effected between individual participants

when an armshell was exchanged for a necklace. Malinowski believed that this ceremony did not represent an economic exchange, but was a symbolic exchange designed to establish and foster social relationships between the islanders. Malinowski stated (1922, pp. 82-83):

"One transaction does not finish the Kula relationship, the rule being, once in the Kula always in the Kula; and a partnership between two men is a permanent and life long affair."

Besides establishing relationships between islanders, Malinowski theorized that the exchanges in the Kula Ring satisfied both the individual psychological needs and societal needs for social integration and solidarity.

Along with Malinowski, Levi-Strauss also rejected the utilitarian economic conceptualization of social exchange. Levi-Strauss provided a nonutilitarian interpretation of social exchange by exploring the rules governing cross-cousin marriages. For Levi-Strauss, women were exchanged not for economic gain, but rather for the symbolic value derived from the social exchange. According to Levi-Strauss (1969, p. 122), "it is the exchange which counts and not the things exchanged, since exchange should be viewed in terms of its functions for integrating the larger social structure."

Levi-Strauss also rejected psychological interpretations of exchange processes as advocated by behaviorists. Burrhus Frederic Skinner and other behaviorists assumed that there were little differences between the behavior of animals and humans. Levi-Strauss insisted that humans process norms and values which separates their

behavior apart from animals. In arguing this view, Levi-Strauss (1969, p. 219) posits several fundamental exchange principles.

1. "All exchange relations involve costs for individuals, but, in contrast with economic or psychological explanations of exchange, such costs are attributed to society."
2. "All those scarce and valued resources in society whether material objects, such as wives, or symbolic resources like esteem and prestige, their distribution is regulated by norms and values."
3. "All exchange relations are regulated by a norm of reciprocity, requiring those receiving value resources to bestow on their benefactors other valued resources."

Psychological behaviorism

Psychological behaviorism has derived its principles from observing animal behavior. It is assumed by many behaviorists that the elementary principles describing animal behavior can explain human behavior.

Behaviorism is an extreme variant of utilitarianism, since it operates on the principle that animals and humans are both reward seeking organisms that pursue alternatives that will yield the most reward and least punishment. Modern exchange theories have borrowed from behaviorists the notion of reward and used it to reinterpret the utilitarian exchange legacy. Instead of using the concept of utility, reward has been inserted, primarily because it allows exchange theorists to view behavior as motivated by psychological needs. The utilitarian concept of cost has been maintained by the behaviorist's since the notion

of "cost" allows exchange theorists to visualize more completely the alternative rewards that organisms forego in seeking to achieve a particular reward.

Despite some modifications of the basic concepts of behaviorism, several of its key theoretical generalizations have been incorporated into the exchange theory. Turner (1974, p. 222) lists the generalizations as follows.

1. "In any given situation, organisms will emit those behaviors that will yield the most reward and least punishment."
2. "Organisms will repeat those behaviors which have proved rewarding in the past."
3. "Organisms will repeat behaviors in situations that are similar to those emitted in the past."
4. "Present stimuli that on past occasions have been associated with rewards will evoke behaviors similar to those emitted in the past."
5. "Repetition of behaviors will occur only as long as they continue to yield rewards."
6. "An organism will display emanation if a behavior that has previously been rewarded in the same, or similar, situation suddenly goes unrewarded."
7. "The more an organism receives rewards from a particular behavior, the less rewarding that behavior becomes (due to satiation) and the more likely the organism to emit alternative behaviors in search of other rewards."

Summary of historical background

The above section provided an historical overview of social exchange theory. The modern social exchange theory is a mixture of utilitarian economics, anthropology and social psychology. Utilitarian economics view humans as rational beings exchanging goods or services for rewards among interacting individuals. This perspective provided the concepts of reward, cost, and profit. These concepts were redefined through social anthropology and psychological behaviorism to explain human interaction. In addition, proponents of this theory advocate that people will choose alternatives which will bring them pleasure, while avoiding costly activities.

Anthropologists provided momentum for the study of man from various perspectives. Frazer recognized the differentiation of social systems in terms of privilege and power. He noted that those who had any commodities tended to exploit the have nots. Malinowski was the first to distinguish material, or economic, from nonmaterial, or symbolic, exchanges. He felt that some motives for getting into relations are based on psychological needs. Levi-Strauss emphasized that it is the exchange which counts and not the things exchanged. Exchange for Levi-Strauss is viewed in terms of its function being for integrating into the larger social structure.

Psychological behaviorism's contribution to modern social exchange theories have been threefold. First, it examined man from a psychological basis. Second, it redefined the notion of utilitarian reward. Both behaviorism and utilitarianism see humans as reward

seeking organisms that pursue alternatives that will yield the most reward and least punishment. And third, it provided a theoretical basis and system of methodological principles for social exchange theory.

After examining the historical background of social exchange theory, it appears that early exchange theorists believed that the rewards people hope to gain, could help initiate and maintain relationships among people or groups. Humans in their interaction with others attempt to avoid costly behavior, that is, they attempt to maximize rewards while minimizing costs. If this premise is correct, it stands that social exchange theory could be useful in explaining what attracts people to join organizations, particularly, voluntary organizations. This theory might also provide insights on how to increase and sustain participation in voluntary activities.

Contemporary Social Exchange Theories

The evolution in the development of social exchange theory has brought many contemporary versions into focus. Theories provided by exchange theorists will be examined.

E. Foa and V. Foa (1976) provided rules that guide the exchange of resources and how they are exchanged in the exchange process. They (1976, p. 106) posited two propositions about social behavior: (1) "Every interpersonal behavior consists of giving and/or taking away one or more resources; and (2) behaviors that involve closely allied resources occur more frequently than behaviors that involve less closely related resources."

E. Walster and G. Walster (1976) examined the issue of fairness or justice in social relationships. They believed that people are selfish and will act according to their self-interest. According to Walster and Walster (1976, p. 16), "So long as individuals perceive they can maximize their outcomes by behaving inequitably they will do so." People adjust their behaviors to provide the greatest outcomes regardless of the impact upon others. If a situation demands fairness in order to obtain profit, they will act accordingly; if, however, getting ahead requires exploitation, they will also act accordingly.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) have combined the areas of social exchange and group dynamics to show how major propositions in the field of group dynamics can treat social interaction as an exchange. Their central concern is with the solutions that must be found by individuals to deal with problems created by their condition of interdependency.

George Homans bases his version of the social exchange theory on behavioral psychology and elementary economics. He attempts to explain the elementary properties of human social behavior as a function of its pay-off. By this he conceptualizes "exchange as a form of social association in which an activity tangible or intangible and more or less costly or rewarding takes place between two individuals" (Homans, 1974, p. 13).

Homans believes that two psychological theories, reinforcement and stimulus-response, can explain the theory of human exchange. He provides an interpretation of reinforcement theory and stimulus-response by examining the experiments of B. F. Skinner. Skinner found that if a

pigeon discovered that pecking a metal key would release a kernel of corn, his behavior in pecking the target would be reinforced and he would repeat the activity. The corn would be a reward for the activity of pecking. If the experimenter released the corn every time the pigeon pecked the key, the probability that the pigeon will peck the key again increased. By considering this, Homans has included a new psychological principle, that of stimulus-response. When the key is released (stimulus), the pigeon will peck the target (response). Homans ascertains that the same sort of behavior is characteristic of men in exchange relationships. According to Homans (1974), people will continue to repeat an activity that produces rewards and by so doing will maintain the relationship.

Two other elements which enter into the exchange relationship based on stimulus-response and reinforcement are: value and quantity of the exchange. Value may be referred to as the degree of reinforcement of another person's activity. The quantity of the exchange refers to the number of units received within a period of time. If a person does not value the activity of others or if these activities do not occur with a significant rate of frequency, then that person is not reinforced by the rewards of others and may cease to emit the activity that serves as a stimulus to others.

Homans has attempted to combine the two psychological theories of stimulus-response and reinforcement with his two main variables, value and quantity, in an effort to explain human behavior in exchange relationships. Within this framework, Homans (1974, pp. 17-30) suggests

four propositions about human exchange:

1. "If in the past, the occurrence of a particular stimulus situation has been the occasion on which a man's activity has been rewarded, then the more similar the present stimulus situation is to the past one, the more likely he is to emit the activity or some similar activity now."
2. "The more often within a given period of time a man's activity rewards the activity of another, the more often the other will emit the activity."
3. "The more value to a man a unit of the activity another gives him, the more often he will emit activity rewarded by the activity of the other."
4. "The more often a man has in the recent past received a rewarding activity from another, the less valuable any further unit of the activity becomes to him."

Homans suggest that his formulation of exchange behavior has high congruency with economic behavior. To support this contention, he compares the "law of supply" with his third proposition mentioned above. Homans (1974, p. 39) suggests that the higher the price of a commodity, the more of it a supplier will sell, is equivalent to "the more valuable a reward gotten by an activity the more often a man will emit it."

Peter Blau (1964) suggests that social exchange is limited to actions that are dependent on being rewarded by others and those actions cease to exist if the expected rewards do not appear. To Blau, therefore, social exchange "refers to voluntary actions of individuals

that are motivated by the returns they expect to bring and receive from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 40) The premise that Blau bases his conceptualization upon is that social interaction is governed by the concern of interacting parties with a reward dispersed by others. He takes a rational approach and does not accept irrational or emotional behavior as determinants of social exchange.

Using the rationalistic approach, Blau (1964) identifies three forces for the initiation of social exchange: (1) the social attraction felt by the exchange, (2) perceived special benefit that would result to the individual by virtue of the exchange, and (3) exchange where benefits appear to be given for altruistic reasons. In the latter case, however, Blau maintains that underneath the altruism there is strong egoism in which resides the expectation that helping others will bring rewards. The psychological needs and dispositions of individuals, Blau maintains, determine which rewards are important and thus, to whom individuals will be attracted to interact with to achieve these rewards.

All the above theorists have provided meaningful interpretations of social exchange. However, for purposes of this study, Blau's version has been used to provide a theoretical framework. This is primarily because recent studies in volunteerism have uncovered social rewards as possible motives for participation, Warner and Heffernan (1967); Gidron (1978); and Kemper (1980). Blau describes six types of social rewards: personal attraction, social acceptance, social approval, instrumental services, respect/prestige, and compliance/power. Blau states that as a person receives these rewards from others, he feels required to return

them. Or as Blau (1964, p. 24) puts it, "an individual who supplies rewarding services to another obligates him. To discharge this obligation the second must furnish to the first in turn." He maintains that the principle of reciprocal obligation is the force that serves to maintain the exchange relationship instead of reinforcement as posit by Homans. In rejecting reinforcement, Blau contends that social exchange is a joint product of actions of both participants engaged in exchange behavior and not the psychological process of reinforcement that motivates the behavior of one as a response to the stimulus of another.

Blau indicated several differences between the economic and social explanation of exchange. He ascertains that (1) economic exchange involves specific obligations between two people, whereas social exchange involves unspecified obligations. (2) Economic transactions rests on a formal contract that stipulates the exact quantities to be exchanged. The nature of the social exchange relationship cannot be bargained about and is based on feelings of personal obligation that arise within the relationship. (3) Economic exchange involves specified time frames in which an obligation is to be repaid whereas social exchange leaves the time period unspecified. (4) The value of economic benefits is easily detached from the individual who provides them, whereas social benefits often gain or lose value depending upon who gives them.

Studies Related to the Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory has been utilized to explain various interactions among volunteers. In the mid-1970s examining volunteers

motives from a nonaltruistic perspective led to the application of the social exchange theory in this area. This opened up a whole new dimension to research regarding aspirations and response patterns of volunteers. A multitude of reasons have been revealed for participation in volunteer work, as will be discussed below.

Reasons for volunteering

In 1975, Peter Gluck applied exchange theory to the study of volunteers in an urban political organization. Data on the incentives and contributions of organizational participation were collected in personal interviews with a randomly selected sample of fifty Republican and fifty Democratic committeemen in Buffalo, New York. Gluck (1975, p. 104) based his study upon the following assumptions:

1. "individuals have a variety of needs, drives, and goals which they seek to attain";
2. "some of these can best be achieved within the context of organizational participation";
3. "organizations need some mechanism to influence the behavior of their activist."

He identified four kinds of incentives: tangible/self-oriented, tangible/other oriented, intangible/self-oriented, and intangible other oriented. Tangible self-oriented included such things as wages, salaries, business contacts, patronage, and preferential treatment. The tangible other-oriented consisted of jobs, salaries, patronage, etc. The intangible self-oriented included social status and prestige and the feeling of importance which derives from association with important and

influential people. The intangible other-oriented incentives were identified as philosophical impulses to "serve the community" or fulfill a civic obligation. The data indicated that tangible self-oriented and intangible self-oriented incentives appealed to less educated persons (high school). It was only among the college and graduate professional school that tangible other-oriented and intangible other-oriented were expressed. Gluck found that tangible self-oriented and intangible self-oriented incentives were identified as being more important for older volunteers than for younger volunteers.

More recently, exchange theory has been employed by Michael Phillips (1982) to study how volunteers become involved and are retained in "The Friendly Town Program." This program is a largely volunteer effort guided by the professional Fresh Air Fund staff who coordinate the placement of some 11,000 deprived New York City children in the homes of volunteer families. Phillips looked at these host families' involvement as a progression with certain identifiable stages. In stage 1, "exposure to the idea that one might be a host," altruistic (to help someone else) motivation clearly prevails. In stage 2, "preliminary decision to be a host," altruistic motivation is mixed with "egoistic" (to receive rewards) motives as arrangements begin to be made for a two-week visit by a child. Stage 3, "final decision to be a host" brings the commitment to a family decision, typically made on the basis of benefits of companionship and exposure to a different life-style perceived from hosting. In stage 4, "the child actually comes for the visit," and altruism returns to prominence as a motive, particularly

when expectations are not met, and the visit turns out to be more difficult than anticipated. In stage 5, "the family decides whether or not to invite a child for the following summer." The Friendly Town Program has been successful because the rewards to the volunteer turn out to be larger than anticipated. Phillips (1982) states that while the initial motivation to volunteer may be altruistic that motivation may also be reassessed in terms of its return.

John Flynn and Gene Webb (1975) in a study of women volunteers in Kalamazoo, lends further credence to the multiple motives explanation. When asked what had led the participants to work on policy campaign issues, responses centered upon the primary beneficiary of their own participation. Almost one-half of the actors indicated that "self-oriented" needs were served by their "activism." However, the same women also spoke of the importance of "self-actualizing goals such as self-education and personal growth" (Flynn and Webb, 1975, p. 140).

Amount of influence

From a social-psychological standpoint, personal influence is an important human need. It has broad social implications and carries emotional meaning for those who hold it as well as those who do not. This variable includes how much influence the individual thinks he/she has.

A study of a Farmer Cooperative has revealed that members perceptions of their amount of influence in the organization were significantly associated with their immediate situation and that members with influence are more likely to identify with and feel loyalty toward

their organization (Copp, 1964).

Similar relationships exist between influence and attraction in other types of organizations. Morse and Reimer (1956) studied the relationship between influence in decision-making and worker satisfaction using clerical workers in a large scale industrial organization. Extensive questionnaires were given to the clerical workers to ascertain their perceptions and attitudes regarding this relationship. The authors hypothesized that an increase role in the decision-making processes for the rank-and-file members increases their satisfaction with the organization while a decreased role in decision-making reduces satisfaction. Data suggested that the worker's overall satisfaction increased significantly after an increase in the amount of influence.

Tannenbaum and Kahn (1958) investigated the relationship between influence and loyalty in a study of four union locals in the Midwest. Their original assumption posited that members' influence increases the value of the union to the member and consequently, his loyalty is increased. They found that individuals generally prefer exercising influence to being without it. Tannenbaum and Kahn reported that individuals who are unable to exercise influence are less satisfied with their immediate situation and that members with influence are more likely to identify with and feel loyalty toward their unions.

Karla A. Henderson (1981) surveyed 200 adult volunteers (club leaders, project leaders, activity leaders, committee members, and other volunteers) to ascertain what kept them involved and committed to the 4-

H program. The results showed that people volunteer for power (wanting to have influence over others). The volunteers stated that they participate because they receive status in the community and recognition for being a volunteer. Four-H volunteers who had once been 4-H members scored highest in power motivations. Four-H volunteers with higher education levels had higher motivation scores. Henderson argued that volunteers should be considered as staff in the organization.

Social approval

Social approval implies an individual's perception of acceptance, friendliness, and recognition which is bestowed on him or her by significant others.

Benjamin Gidron (1978) examined the sustained volunteer work of 317 volunteers in health and mental institutions in Maryland. The rewards most often expected and received by the volunteers were identified. The study also examined the relationship between the age of the volunteer and the kinds of rewards expected. The volunteers were asked the question: (1) Do you expect rewards such as symbols of social recognition, praise, and authority. The majority of the volunteers reported that symbols of social recognition and praise were important rewards. A small portion of the respondents expected rewards dealing with authority. An analysis of the respondents who expected the reward of "supervision over other volunteers" revealed that many of them were long-term volunteers (four years or more). The researcher concluded that with tenure, volunteers (like paid workers) expect more responsibility and promotion. A separate analysis, by age group of

volunteer's expectations, showed differences in expectations among the three groups. Rewards dealing with social recognition were generally expected more often by both the oldest (55 years or older) and the youngest group (24 years old or younger) than by those in the adult age group (between 25 and 54). Younger volunteers tended to expect (praise from professional staff). Younger volunteers perceived their volunteer work as a chance to test himself/herself in work that may be considered a possible career. Older volunteer's need for social recognition is explained in their need to be assured that their contribution is valuable and important. The receipt of rewards is important to volunteer's decision to remain in their volunteer jobs over long periods of time.

Nancy Bigler and Keith Smith (1985) conducted a study to examine why some volunteers continue as 4-H club leaders and some don't. Their study was conducted in 27 randomly selected counties in Ohio. Four-H volunteer club leaders in these counties were placed into continuing or discontinuing groups. Continuing leaders were those who at the time of the study had completed at least 1 year as a 4-H club leader. Discontinuing leaders were those who had terminated their participation as a volunteer leader after the 1981 4-H club year. From separate lists, the names of 813 continuing and 194 discontinuing volunteers were randomly selected. A total of 69% of the continuing volunteers returned the instruments, while 60% of the discontinuing volunteer's instruments were returned. A nine-point (1=strongly disagree to 9=strongly agree) Likert-type scale was used to record reactions of continuing and

discontinuing volunteers on the following variables: motivation for volunteering and recognition received. Both groups rated these two variables as important. Members of both groups agreed that a volunteer 4-H club leader should receive recognition. However, continuing volunteers consistently rated recognition higher. Continuing volunteers expressed that they received more tangible recognition and had greater attendance at recognition programs/dinners than the discontinuing volunteers. Smith and Bigler (1985) suggest that these variables may affect the volunteer's decision to continue serving as a 4-H club leader.

Job satisfaction

According to H. Naylor (1967), the concept "job satisfaction" is often used to assess the meaning this activity has for those engaged in it. Job satisfaction from volunteer work has not been given much attention to date by researchers. Utilizing this concept in the study of volunteer workers has both theoretical and practical implications. While the descriptive and prescriptive literature on volunteering suggests that volunteers should be satisfied with their job in order to persevere in it (Naylor, 1967), little systematic knowledge exists on precisely what constitutes job satisfaction from volunteer work.

Benjamin Gidron (1983) investigated the sources of job satisfaction among volunteers in human service agencies. Ninety percent of the respondents expressed an overall satisfaction with their work. This study found that overall job satisfaction of volunteers was related to two facets of job content (work itself and achievement) and two facets

of job context (convenience and absence of job stress). His findings indicated that volunteers found their job satisfying if: (1) they perceived it as challenging and interesting, (2) it made use of their skills and knowledge, (3) it allowed for independence, (4) required responsibility, and (5) their client(s) showed progress. The findings also imply that the work conditions should enable the volunteer to receive from the job what it has to offer. The volunteer should not have to waste precious time getting to work, looking for tools, or arguing with officials about what to do and how to do it. This lends support to C. Hulin (1966) who indicated a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. He investigated the impact of job satisfaction on turnover among female clerical workers. Hulin's study matched each subject who left the company over a 12 month period with two "stayers" along several demographic dimensions. Significant differences were found between the stayer and leaver groups on mean satisfaction scores. Hulin concluded that the leavers as a group could be accurately distinguished from stayers based on a knowledge of the worker's degree of job satisfaction up to 12 months prior to the act of termination. After this study, the company instituted new policies in the areas of salary administration and promotional opportunities. Approximately 1 1/2 years after these changes, Hulin (1966) conducted another experiment. Again it was found that termination decisions were significantly related to the degree of worker satisfaction. The company's turnover rate between these two periods dropped from 30% during the first study period to 12% during the second.

In 1978, Julia Gamon suggested that in Extension, volunteer leader turnover is expensive in terms of time and energy spent recruiting and training. For example, the Extension Council members are elected for one term, but may serve two. Gamon (1978) found that those who stay on for the second term generally do a better job. She states that Extension can retain their volunteers as long as the volunteers are satisfied with their job. She suggests, among other things, that volunteer's job satisfaction can be increased by providing them with convenient hours, pleasant surroundings, reasonable work load, better "pay," and opportunities for advancement. For example, she states that Extension train volunteers well for the jobs they do, but do not train them for advancement. Volunteers should be asked about their short- and long-term career goals. In a similar vein, she suggests giving adequate remuneration "better pay" as a method to increase job satisfaction. Public thank-you's and praise qualify as "pay." She suggests putting volunteers in working roles brings them respect and prestige, another form of pay. Volunteers often have skills that surpass those of Extension personnel.

Darrell Roach and L. Waters (1971) investigated the influence job satisfaction attitudes and biographical variables had on the termination of 160 female clerical workers. These female employees in a national insurance company were administered a job attitude questionnaire. The job satisfaction scale included questions about work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, job grade, and company tenure. They reported that satisfaction with the work itself was the only significant

attitudinal predictor of turnover. It was reported that only three of the job satisfaction variables (pay, work, and company tenure) added significantly to the prediction of turnover. The multiple correlation was .50 for the three predictors.

Shoukry Saleh and Jay Otis (1964) explored the relationship between age and job satisfaction with 80 male employees at the managerial level between the ages of 60 and 65 (Group A) and 38 comparable managers between the ages of 50 and 55 (Group B). These respondents were given a questionnaire in which work experience was divided into five age periods. They were asked: In light of your past work experience and your anticipation for the remaining working years, indicate the age period in which you have been most satisfied in your work, and the age period in which you have been least. The five age groups included: A. up to 29, B. 30-39, C. 40-49, D. 50-59 and E. 60 and over. The data confirmed Saleh and Otis hypothesis that the level of job satisfaction increases with age until the pre-retirement period, when it declines. They suggest the decline in job satisfaction in pre-retirement may be attributed to the workers feeling of hopelessness as they contemplate growing older in a job which holds little interest for them and which may, in addition, begin to demand a pace too fast for their advancing years.

Career development

Patricia Edwards and Ann Walts (1983) were concerned with identifying methods to retain volunteers. Data were obtained from administrators in 169 voluntary action agencies in Virginia.

Respondents indicated whether or not their organization reimbursed volunteers for expenses such as transportation or babysitting, provided training sessions, offered opportunities for "promotion" to paid employment, had increased their flexibility in scheduling volunteer activities, or had increased responsibilities for their volunteers. In analyzing the utility of strategies used to retain volunteers, it was noted that reimbursement and "promotion" to paid employment are less traditionally used methods of rewarding, and increasing responsibility are more traditional strategies. Fewer than 42 percent of the sampled agencies used the less traditional methods, as compared to the nearly 80 percent that used the more traditional methods. These agencies also thought the less traditional methods of retaining volunteers were not as effective as the more traditional methods. Educational agencies found the method of promoting volunteers into paid employment effective, while the youth agencies found the method ineffective. Walts and Edwards concluded that human service agencies continue to rely on traditional strategies in retaining volunteers. Their research also indicated that most social service agencies have not been creative in maintenance efforts, yet least insofar as seeking out and attempting to retain their volunteer workforce. Ken Allen (1968) reports of a study by Father Gammon in which the latter found the most often listed reasons for joining volunteers in the Harlem Domestic Peace Corps were career-oriented, to gain knowledge of the world of work. D. Sills (1957) argued that voluntary associations are efficient mechanisms for training the individual in organizational skills. He further maintains that

these skills are especially important for those who intend to pursue a career in public life where the list of affiliations demonstrates their dedication to community welfare and also provides certificates of organizational skill.

The Gallup Organization (1980) conducted a national survey on the nature and scope of volunteering in the U.S. as part of the regular bi-weekly Gallup Poll. In addition, the survey was administered to a separate sample of adults in California. Volunteers were asked why they continue in volunteer activities. A reason mentioned by both adults and teens for participating was to gain job experience. This lends support to John Anderson and Larry Moore's (1974) earlier study on motivations of volunteers. The researchers sent questionnaires to volunteers who had been a part of Canada's 49 social service agencies less than twenty years. They found that work-related experiences were moderately important in younger age categories. More and more high schools are requiring students to engage in voluntarism in order to gain both an understanding of related occupations and to obtain that all important 'real world' experience which is useful in obtaining a job.

J. Jenner (1982) found, in her study of women volunteers in a national organization, that most women see volunteerism as a way to prepare oneself for a new career and that a few see it as a way to maintain skills and contacts in a career that they are not actively pursuing. She concluded that "altruism and self-actualization were about equally important motivators for volunteering." It has also been reported that people can use their volunteer experience to get into paid

employment or use it to try out job fields they think they might like (Changing Times, 1981). The same magazine reports of a Timmie Faghin, who worked as an intern with senior citizens, used that experience to successfully pursue a masters degree program and eventually ended up with a \$25,000 a year job. In this regard volunteering is viewed as a springboard for some individuals to build their future career (Changing Times, 1981, p. 64).

A recent development in the job market relates to the increase in employers' preference for potential employees who have previous experience in volunteer activities. Norman Lunger reports that over "35 state governments and several large corporations provide space on job applications for description of past volunteer work" (Norman Lunger, 1982, p. 9). It has been conjectured that, in applying for paid jobs, the experience an individual has gained as a volunteer may give him or her an edge over other applicants for the same job.

These studies, each of which indicates that motivational multiplicity is the usual pattern among volunteers, lead to the conclusion so clearly drawn by Gidron (1978), that contrary to common beliefs which relate volunteer work mainly to altruistic motives, people have both other and self-oriented reasons for volunteering. The implications of this motivational multiplicity as Gidron further suggests is that, "in order to be satisfied, a volunteer needs a task in which self-expression is possible; a task which gives the volunteer the opportunity to develop abilities and skills; a task which is seen as a challenge; and a task where achievements can be seen" (Gidron, 1983,

p. 14).

Demographic variables

It can be stated that membership of voluntary association is a type of personal investment; hence, the expectation of rewards may differ from individual to individual. In a study of the social system of a high school, Gordon (1957) concluded that participation in nonfamilial institutions was prevalent among persons between twenty and twenty-five years. Other socio-demographic variables such as level of education (Hausknecht 1962), marital status (Curtis, 1971), income (Smith and Reddy, 1972) and sex (Nieva and Gutek, 1978) have been found to be related to participation in voluntary organizations. These studies demonstrate that personal and other demographic characteristics may also influence an individual volunteer's expectation for rewards from participation in volunteer organizations.

Conclusion

The chapter has developed reasons for the selection of the social exchange theory as a frame of reference for this study. It is conjectured that adult volunteer leaders leave 4-H due to a discrepancy between expectations for rewards and the actual rewards that the volunteer receives in light of other possible alternatives. If true, it is necessary to make the nature of rewards fit their expectation (or vice versa) to maintain volunteers.

The chapter has also presented studies which have used social exchange theory to explain volunteerism. These studies give credence to

the belief that volunteer activities are the result of multiple causation. One point central to all the studies is that rewards of various kinds are not just a by-product for those engaged in volunteer work, but are expected by volunteers. According to Kemper (1980) and Sharp (1978), volunteer work is perceived as an exchange between the volunteer and the volunteer work situation whereby time and effort are exchanged for benefits.

Reward variables such as the amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development are variables which may affect people's willingness to stay on in several voluntary organizations.

The studies are not explicit on how amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development variables differ among individuals with different demographic status. Secondly, they do not indicate whether these variables either individually or in what specific combination are more predictive of volunteer's continuation or discontinuation in voluntary organizations. This study used the social exchange theory to examine the above issues using adult 4-H volunteer leaders in the 4-H program in Iowa.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The objectives of this chapter are to describe the: (1) study design, (2) population and sample, (3) instrumentation, (4) procedures of data collection, (5) operationalization of concepts, and (6) data analysis.

Study Design

The research examined a series of rewards and demographic variables using a survey instrument (Figure 1). Data were collected to help explain the influence reward variables have on adult volunteer's continuation or discontinuation in 4-H. Amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, career development, along with the demographic variables of: sex, education, and age constituted the independent test variables. Continuation and discontinuation of adult 4-H volunteers were the dependent variables.

In this study, two groups, continuing 4-H volunteers and discontinued 4-H volunteers, were compared on each independent variable. Hypothesis one stated that there is a significant relationship ($p. \geq .05$) between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H. Hypotheses two stated that job satisfaction as a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than will social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development. Hypotheses three stated that there is a significant relationship ($p. \geq .05$) between demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H. Hypotheses four through seven

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

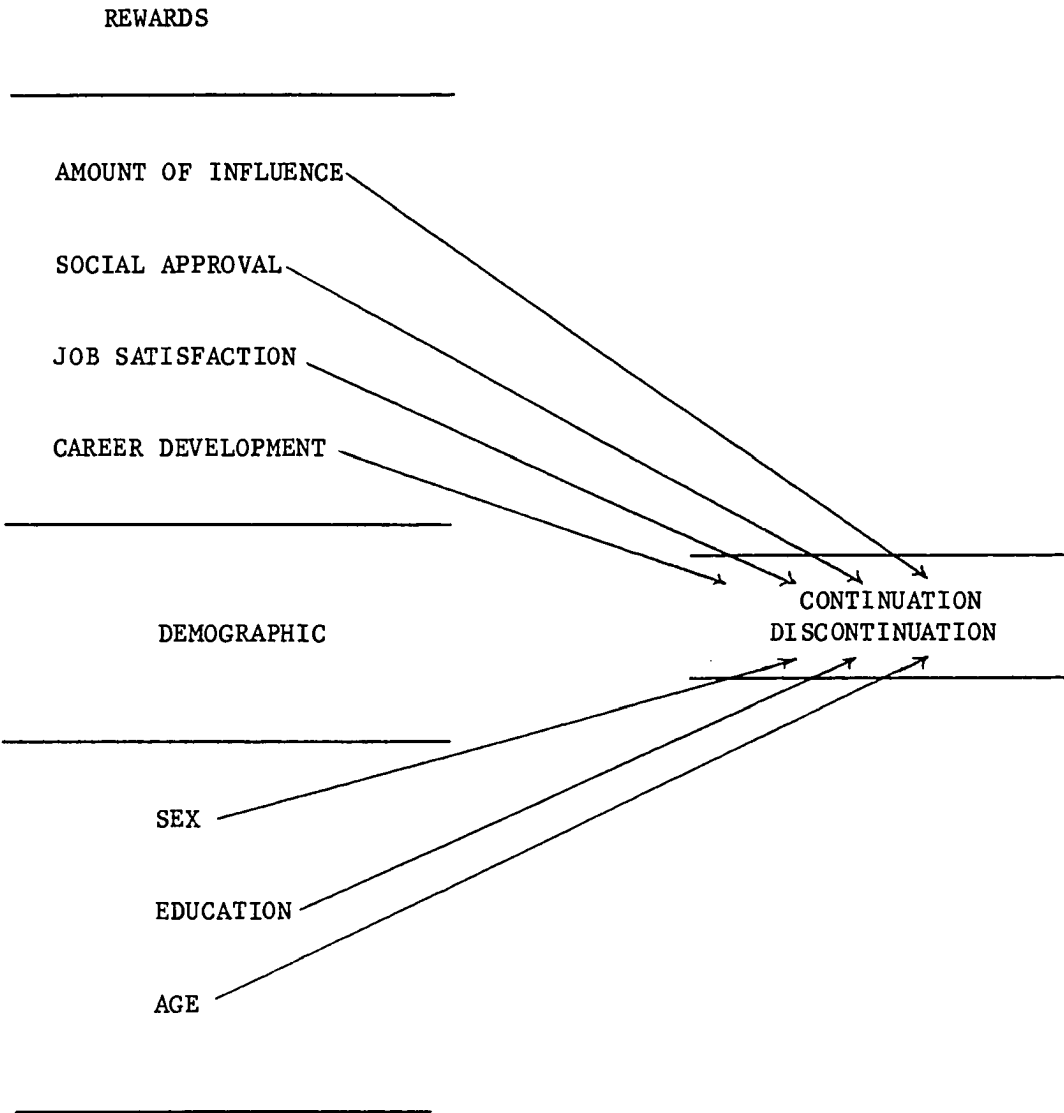


Figure 1. Study design

predicted that continuing volunteers would perceive greater ($p. \geq .05$) amounts of each of the independent variables than would discontinued volunteers. It was reasoned that, if true, increasing the: (1) amount of influence volunteers have in 4-H, (2) social approval received from others, (3) job satisfaction as a volunteer, and (4) career development as a volunteer should increase continuation.

Population and Subjects

Two groups of adult volunteer leaders were used as subjects in this study. The first group consisted of 150 continuing volunteer leaders connected with the Iowa 4-H program between October 1980 and October 1983. The second group included 150 volunteer leaders who were connected with the 4-H program between October 1980 and October 1983 but have since dropped from participating. The total sample included a random sample of 300 adult 4-H volunteer leaders. This sample size was chosen in anticipation of getting at least a 60 percent response rate from the participants.

The sample selection was based on the following procedures:

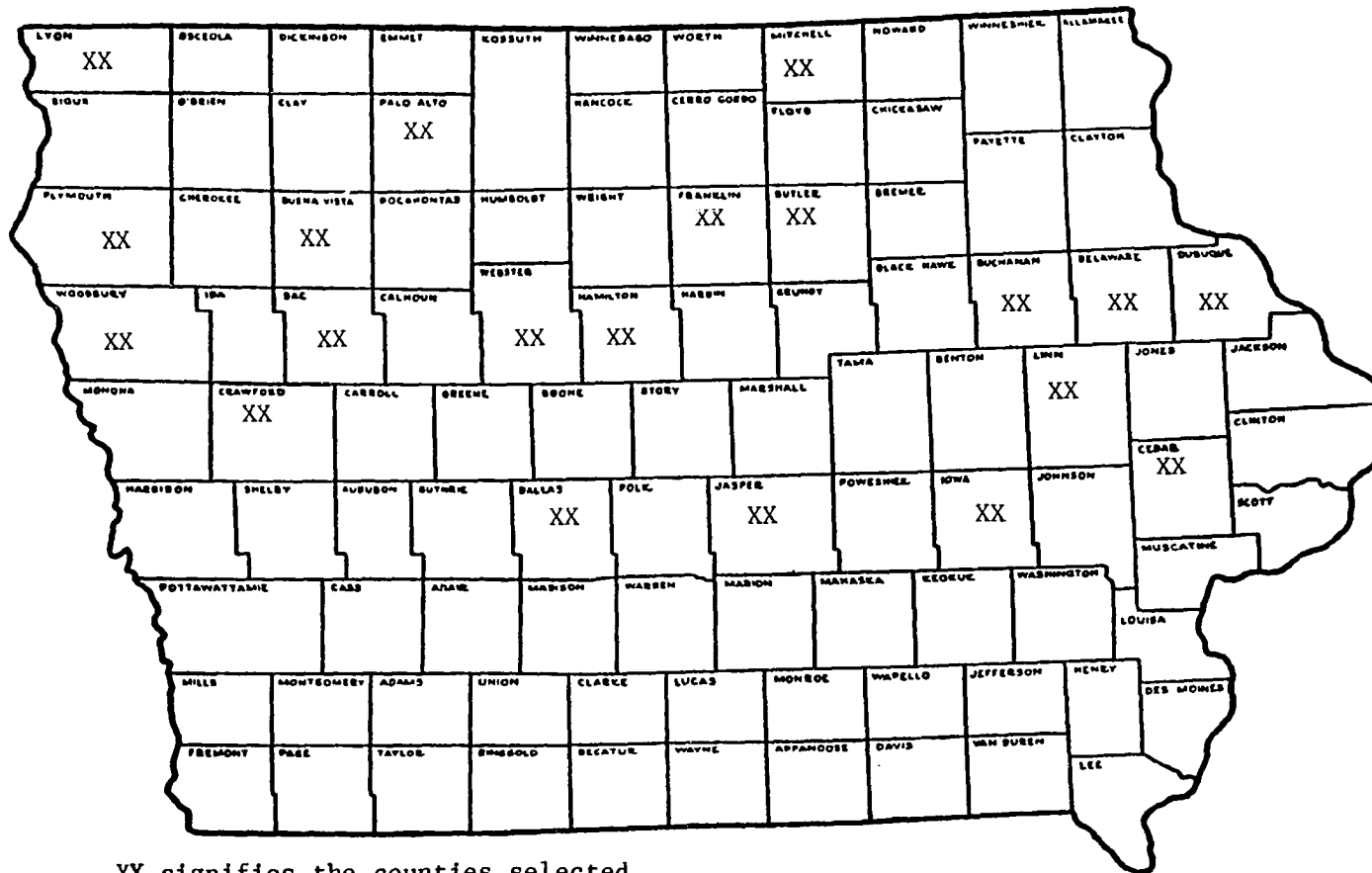
- a. Counties were identified who are served by professional Extension 4-H and Youth Leaders on a one or two county base. These counties were listed alphabetically and numbered.
- b. With a random table of numbers a list of twenty random numbers were generated. These numbers identified the counties to be included in the study. The counties selected are shown on the map in Figure 2.

- c. The professional Extension 4-H and Youth leaders in the selected counties were contacted by letter and asked to provide a list of names and addresses of current and former adult volunteers (see Appendix C). Upon receipt of these lists, each group was numbered consecutively starting with number one. Using a random table of numbers, 200 volunteers were selected for each of the current and former volunteer groups.
- d. From the 400 volunteers, a random table was used to identify 150 volunteers for the continuing group and 150 volunteers for the discontinuing group.

Instrumentation

The major purpose of a research instrument is to provide the best possible information from which decisions about a research problem can be made. That is, the function of the research instrument is to provide a basis for the measurement of the research variables. In order for this to occur, Dillman (1978) indicated that the writing of test items must be focused on precise definitions of the research problem. Once established, precise definitions set the framework for construction of the test instrument. The research problem, the hypotheses, and research variables would be the basis for the instrument development.

A survey method was selected for this research because it provided a way of systematic data collection. The data desired were descriptive in nature. The questionnaire survey method was versatile, measured items



XX signifies the counties selected.

Figure 1. The twenty counties selected for the study

that could not be observed, was cheaper, and was faster than some other possible methods. The advantages outweighed the disadvantages, assuming that accurate information was obtained through understandable and well-written questions.

There were two instruments designed to measure the impact reward variables have on a volunteer's decision to continue or discontinue to provide services. The reward variables included amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development. Information was gathered on the relationships between the reward variables and the sex, level of education, and age of continuing and discontinuing volunteers.

The continuing volunteer instrument was written in the present tense because it was administered to current volunteers (see Appendix A). This instrument was color coded gold to differentiate it from the past volunteers' instrument and assigned an even number so follow-up reminders could be sent. The second instrument was written in the past tense because it was designed to be used with discontinued volunteers (see Appendix A). It was color coded green to discriminate it from the present volunteers instrument and assigned odd numbers so follow-up reminders could be sent.

The instrument was a five part questionnaire. Section one asked information about volunteer's amount of influence in 4-H. Section two asked volunteers about the social approval they received from others because of their volunteer work. Section three asked volunteers how they rated their job satisfaction in being a 4-H volunteer. Section

four asked volunteers to indicate the degree to which they perceived their services as a 4-H volunteer enhanced their professional development. Section five asked the participant to provide background information about themselves. Three pieces of descriptive data, gender, amount of education, and age were obtained. In addition, the participants were asked the following questions:

1. Are you now a 4-H leader?
2. How many years have you been a volunteer leader?
3. Have you had children in 4-H in previous years?
4. How many children do you currently have in 4-H?
5. Were you ever a 4-H member?
 - a. If so, how many years were you in 4-H?
6. Who first asked you to serve as a 4-H leader?
7. Rank in order your reasons for being an adult 4-H volunteer?
8. Please give any constructive comments you might have that you think would help the 4-H leaders in your county.

The measurement scale used in the first four sections was a five point Likert-type scale. The essence of the Likert technique is to increase the variation in the possible scores, for example, coding from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" instead of merely "agree or disagree." For the purposes of scoring, ratings were assigned to points of the measurement scale as shown in Figure 3. The measurement scale contains the ratings for individual test questions. In the four sections, an individual's score was the average (mean) score for all questions answered for that section. The average score was used

Section One

<u>Amount of Influence</u>	<u>Ratings</u>
Very Much	Five
Much	Four
Some	Three
Little	Two
None	One

Section Two

<u>Social Approval</u>	<u>Ratings</u>
Very Important	Five
Somewhat Important	Four
Important	Three
Unimportant	Two
Very Unimportant	One

Section Three

<u>Job Satisfaction</u>	<u>Ratings</u>
Very Satisfied	Five
Somewhat Satisfied	Four
Satisfied	Three
Dissatisfied	Two
Very Dissatisfied	One

Section Four

<u>Career Development</u>	<u>Ratings</u>
Strongly Agree	Five
Agree	Four
Undecided	Three
Disagree	Two
Strongly Disagree	One

Figure 3. Measurement scale

because it allowed the individual to remain on the same scale (which was 1 to 5).

Validity

Because psychological measurement is indirect, it is never possible to be completely certain that a question measures the precise characteristics for which it was designed. The extent to which individual items measure what they are intended to measure determines the degree of validity of the instrument (Helmstradter, 1964). Validity is of central concern in the writing of test items. One method was used to establish validity in this study. The investigator was concerned with the extent to which the instrument appeared to measure the test variables. The instrument was inspected for face validity at its completion by knowledgeable individuals. These persons included a statistician, an expert in the construction of surveys; two sociology professors familiar with the social exchange theory; two assistant state 4-H leaders; and two past 4-H adult volunteers who had work with other volunteer groups. These individuals were given copies of the instrument and definitions of concepts and were asked to complete the instrument and make suggestions. Based upon comments made by these knowledgeable individuals, several changes were made in the instruments. First, more instructions were added to explain each section. Second, minor changes were made in the definitions to make them more understandable. Third, an open-ended question was added to the instrument asking the volunteers to give comments that they thought would help the 4-H leaders in their county.

Procedures of Data Collection

Data were collected during March, April, and May, 1985, using the United States Postal System. All research instruments were approved by the Iowa State University Human Subjects Committee on January 31, 1985 prior to the process of data collection (see Appendix B). Mailed questionnaires were sent to the random sample of 300 adult volunteer leaders on March 21, 1985. This group included 150 continuing volunteers and 150 discontinued volunteers. An explanatory letter from this investigator, co-signed by the major professor accompanied the questionnaires (see Appendix D). A reminder letter was sent April 17, 1985 to encourage the nonrespondents to complete the questionnaires and return them (see Appendix E). The number of questionnaires sent, and the return rates are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Populations, samples and return rates for study

Group	Population	Sample	Number Returned	Percent Of Sample
Continuing	200	150	105	70
Discontinuing	200	150	101	67.3

After the questionnaires were returned, the responses were coded numerically and the data were entered at Key Entry and Unit Record (Computation Center) at Iowa State University. Any errors found in coding were corrected by the investigator and re-entered through the Wylbur Terminal.

Operationalization of Concepts

The measurement of the test variables was accomplished through questions contained in the questionnaires mailed to the volunteers. The variables were amount of influence in 4-H, social approval, job satisfaction, career development, sex, education, and age.

Amount of influence in 4-H

Amount of influence in 4-H was defined as the impact the volunteer has on a given activity or in his/her 4-H club. To measure this variable each volunteer was asked to indicate the amount of influence he/she had as a 4-H volunteer.

Social approval

Social approval was defined as the degree to which you as a volunteer gain acceptance, friendship, and recognition from family, friends, and community. To measure this variable the volunteer was asked to indicate the importance of the social approval he/she received from their 4-H work.

Satisfaction as a 4-H volunteer

Job satisfaction was defined as the degree to which your performance matches your own expected performance as a 4-H volunteer. This variable was measured by asking the volunteers to rate the satisfaction they received from their work as a 4-H volunteer.

Career development

Career development was defined as the skills a volunteer gains while volunteering that can enhance his/her potential for a professional job. This variable was measured by asking the volunteers how they perceived their services as a 4-H volunteer helped their professional development.

Sex

The sex of the respondent was determined by asking the following question:

What is your sex?

Education

The amount of education was operationally defined as the highest grade in school completed by the respondent. Educational background was measured by asking the following question: What is the amount of education completed? The following are the alternatives provided for the respondent:

High School	M.S.
AA. Degree	Ph.D.
B.S.	Other (Specify)

Age

The age of the respondent was determined by asking the respondent the following question. What is your chronological age? The following alternatives were used to collapse the chronological age into categories.

18-29	young
30-49	middle age
50-70 or older	old

Data Analysis

Analysis of the data was completed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1983) and the Iowa State University Computation Center. There were two steps in the data analysis, (1) preliminary, and (2) hypotheses testing. The preliminary analysis included frequency counts, percentages, and reliability. Two statistical procedures were necessary for meeting the objectives of this study and for testing the empirical hypotheses stated: discriminant analysis and t-test. Each of these procedures is summarized below.

Reliability

Reliability is often defined as the relative absence of measurement error in a measuring instrument (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973, p. 443). Nunnally (1967) has argued that a coefficient of .50 is adequate for exploratory research. Internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha) were computed for amount of influence in 4-H, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development. A total reliability score was also obtained. Reliability coefficients are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, career development, and total

Rewards	Number of Items	Alpha
Amount of Influence in 4-H	4	.7945
Social Approval	6	.8306
Job Satisfaction	21	.8215
Career Development	5	.8575
Total	36	.9002

Method of analysis--Hypotheses one through three

Hypotheses one through three were tested using discriminant analysis. The hypotheses are as follows:

1. There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H.
2. Job satisfaction as a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than will social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development.
3. There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H.

Several assumptions must be met in order to successfully use the discriminant analysis procedure. First, data cases must be members of two or more mutually exclusive groups. Second, the data must be in interval or ratio form. Third, the covariance matrices of the two

groups must be equal. The first assumption was met when the study design was established. The two mutually exclusive groups were continuing members and discontinued members. The second assumption was also met. The instrument measurement scale is interval. The third assumption would be tested using the formula for homogeneity within covariance matrix.

Method of analysis--Hypotheses four through seven

Hypotheses four through seven involving amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction and career development were analyzed using the students t-test for the difference between two means. The hypotheses are as follows:

4. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) amount of influence as 4-H leaders than will volunteers who discontinued.
5. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) social approval among their peers than will volunteers who discontinued.
6. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) volunteer job satisfaction than will volunteers who discontinued.
7. Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive that their career development is greater ($p \geq .05$) than will volunteers who discontinued.

Three assumptions governed the use of the t-test for analyzing the differences between means, and was considered before computing the t-

ratio. First, the population (s) from which the samples were drawn was assumed to be normal (Ary and Jacobs, 1976; Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1983). Second, the subjects for each sample were randomly and independently selected. This assumption was important not only because it affected normality, but also, the utilization of the correct t-test. Third, data were interval or ratio in composition (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1983).

In the next chapter, data will be analyzed and findings pertaining to each hypotheses will be reported.

CHAPTER IV. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS**Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings for the following research questions:

- (1) Are there rewards which help predict who will continue as a 4-H volunteer?
- (2) Is there a relationship between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H?
- (3) Are there any differences in perception toward rewards by continuing and discontinuing volunteers?

Data collected were subjected to discriminant analysis and student t-test. A number of statistics such as canonical correlation, Wilk's lambda, and discriminant function are pertinent in employing discriminant analysis to research questions one and two. The student t-test will be used to answer research question three. Hypotheses in this study will be accepted or rejected at the 0.05 level of significance. In the next chapter the results will be more fully discussed and conclusions drawn.

Research Question One

The results presented in this section addressed the first research question. Hypothesis one and two pertain to research question one.

Hypothesis one

There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H.

Canonical correlation was used to examine the relationship between

rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H, but did not take into account how the rewards were correlated with each other. Therefore, Appendix F, Table 12 reports the Pearson Correlation of the four rewards with each other and with the continuation and discontinuation of volunteers in 4-H. From the correlations reported in Appendix F, Table 12, social approval was the only variable that had a significant (p.05) relationship with the continuation of volunteers in 4-H. The significant correlation as reported in Table 12 indicates that there is some interaction between the four several reward variables. Table 3 contains the canonical correlations between reward variables and the continuation of volunteers in 4-H.

Table 3. Canonical correlations between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H

Rewards	Canonical Discriminant Functions
Job Satisfaction	0.1566
Social Approval	0.7590
Amount of Influence	-0.4421
Career Development	0.3233
Overall Canonical Function	0.1650

^aCanonical correlation involves two dependent variables (continuation and discontinuation) that are correlated with a group of independent variables (rewards) put together in a linear combination. This shows the contributions of the individual reward variables on continuation and discontinuation of volunteers in 4-H.

From Table 3, social approval was most correlated with the dependent variable "continuation," which contains a canonical

correlation coefficient of 0.7590, while job satisfaction provided the weakest relationship of 0.1566. When the stepwise procedure for discriminant analysis was used, amount of influence and social approval were the only two rewards that entered into the final discriminant function providing an overall canonical correlation of 0.1650. This indicates that there is a low, nonsignificant, relationship, (at the $p. \geq 05$ level) between the rewards and the continuation of volunteers in 4-H. This first hypothesis cannot be supported.

In addition to using canonical correlations, the Wilk's lambda procedure was also applied to the first hypothesis to see if the rewards are good discriminant variables. The lower the Wilk's lambda coefficient, the stronger the discriminant power of the variables and vice versa, the higher the Wilk's lambda, the weaker the variable is in discriminating between the two dependent variables, continuation and discontinuation.

Table 4. Wilk's lambda for rewards

Rewards	Wilk's Lambda	F	Significance
Job Satisfaction	.9989	.2000	0.6552
Social Approval	.9841	2.9330	0.0885
Amount of Influence	.9946	.9951	0.3198
Career Development	.9982	.3342	0.5639
Overall Wilk's Lambda	.9728		

In Table 4, social approval had the smallest Wilk's lambda .9841. This indicates that even though social approval was not significant at

the .05 level, it had the strongest discriminant power of the four rewards. Job satisfaction (.9989) followed by career development had the highest Wilk's lambda indicating that it was not a good variable for discriminanting between volunteers who continue or discontinue in 4-H. When the stepwise procedure was used, amount of influence and social approval were the only two rewards that entered into the final discriminant function providing an overall Wilk's lambda .0973 with a significance value of .0824. This reaffirms that the first hypothesis cannot be supported. Therefore, none of the four rewards are useful in predicting continuation and discontinuation.

Hypothesis two

Job satisfaction as a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than will social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development.

The first step in testing this hypothesis was to check the homogeneity between covariance matrices, which yielded an F-value 1.2372 at a probability level 0.2670. On the basis of the analysis, there was no significant difference between the covariances for the two groups. However, the low F value should be interpreted with caution because it is not known if the low value of F is a result of low discriminant power of the reward variables. If the rewards are significant as discriminant variables, as indicated by the canonical correlation and the Wilk's lambda, then the univariate F-statistic can be used to see which differences are significant. The univariate F-ratio was used to determine if job satisfaction contributed more to continuation than

social approval, amount of influence, and career development. The means, F-ratios, and the levels of significance for the reward variables are presented in Table 5. Where the difference between the means for the two groups is small, the F ratio will also be very small and nonsignificant. The greater the difference between the two groups, the bigger the F-ratio. The larger the value of the univariate F, the greater the tendency to accept the stated hypothesis.

Table 5. Univariate F-ratio with 1 and 182 degrees of freedom

Rewards	<u>Means</u>		F	Significance (P)
	Continuing	Discontinuing		
Job Satisfaction	3.50	3.53	.2000	0.6552
Social Approval	3.19	3.40	2.9330	0.0885
Amount of Influence	3.69	3.58	.9951	0.3198
Career Development	3.04	3.11	.3342	0.5639

Job satisfaction

In Table 5, the job satisfaction mean for continuing volunteers was 3.50, compared to the mean of 3.53 for discontinuing volunteers. The calculated F for this variable was .2000 with a significant level 0.6552. There was no significant difference between the two group means regarding job satisfaction for volunteers.

Social approval

Among the continuing volunteers, the mean of social approval was 3.19, compared to 3.40 for discontinuing volunteers. Social approval had

the highest F 2.9330 at 0.0885 significant level. From the reward variables, social approval had the greatest difference between group means. However, the difference is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Amount of influence

Table 5 reveals that the mean of amount of influence for continuing volunteers was 3.69, compared to 3.58 for the discontinuing volunteers with an F .9951 and significant level 0.3198. There was not a significant difference between the two group means for the amount of influence variable.

Career development

In regard to career development, the mean for continuing volunteers was 3.04, compared to the mean 3.11 for discontinued volunteers. Career development had an F of .3342 and a significant level of 0.5639. There was not a significant difference between the two group means pertaining to career development.

Based upon the reported findings, none of the four reward variables were found to contribute significantly to the volunteer's decision to continue or discontinue in 4-H. Therefore, the hypothesis of job satisfaction as a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development was not supported. Social approval might be more predictive of continuation/discontinuation than any of the other rewards because the results reported in Table 5 illustrates that social approval has the

largest calculated F 2.933 and the lowest significant level, 0.0885.

Research Question Two

In this section, the results are related to the second research question and discriminant analysis was utilized to test hypothesis three.

Hypothesis three

There is a significant relationship ($p \geq .05$) between selected demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H. The demographic variables examined included sex, education, and age of the continuing and discontinuing 4-H volunteers. Appendix G, Table 13, reports the results of the Pearson Correlation analysis for each of the three demographic variables with each other and with the continuation and discontinuation of volunteers in 4-H. From the correlations reported in Appendix G, Table 13, age was the only variable that had a high correlation with the continuation of volunteers in 4-H. As reported in Table 13 there was no significant correlation between the demographic variables. The frequencies and percentages of the demographic variables are reported in Table 6.

Sex

According to the results presented in Table 6, 74.3 percent of those responding in the continuing group were females, while 73.3 percent of those providing answers in the discontinued group were females. In regards to males, 25.7 percent responded in the continuing group, while 26.7 percent responded in the discontinued group. There

Table 6. Demographic characteristics of continuing volunteers (N=105) and discontinuing volunteers (N=101) samples

Characteristic	Continuing Group		Discontinuing Group	
	N	%	N	%
<u>Sex</u>				
Male	27	25.7	27	26.7
Female	78	74.3	74	73.3
Total	105	100.0	101	100.0
<u>Education</u>				
High School	40	38.1	46	45.6
AA. Degree	27	25.7	28	27.7
B.S.	25	23.8	14	13.9
M.S.	9	8.6	3	2.9
Ph.D	4	3.8	10	9.9
Total	105	100.0	101	100.0
<u>Age</u>				
Young (18-29)	9	8.6	7	6.9
Middle(30-49)	61	58.1	56	55.5
Old(50-70 or older)	35	33.3	38	37.6
Total	105	100.0	101	100.0

was little variability in the number of females and males responding in the two groups.

Education

When considering the level of education, 38.1 percent of the continuing volunteers were high school graduates, compared to 45.6 percent of the discontinuing volunteers. More discontinued volunteers received only high school diplomas than continuing volunteers. Overall, a slightly greater percentage of the continuing volunteers had more advanced education than the discontinued group.

Age

In regard to age, most of the volunteers fell into the middle age group (30-49), with 58.1 percent in the continuing group and 55.5 percent in the discontinued group. There is not much difference between continuing and discontinuing volunteers concerning the ages of the respondents.

The correlations between the demographic variables and the continuation of volunteers in 4-H are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Canonical correlations between demographic variables and continuation of volunteers in 4-H

Demographic Variables	Canonical Discriminant Functions	Significance (P)
Sex	-0.0054	
Education	-0.0031	
Age	1.0000	
Overall Canonical Function	0.0955	.1842

Based on the data above, age was most correlated with continuation of volunteers in 4-H containing a canonical correlation coefficient of 1.000, while sex had a negative correlation coefficient of -0.0054 and education had a negative correlation coefficient of -0.0031. Using stepwise discriminant analysis, only age entered into the final discriminant function providing an overall canonical correlation of 0.0955. This indicates that there is a low, nonsignificant relationship between the demographic variables and the continuation of volunteers in 4-H. This hypothesis was not supported.

Research Question Three

Presented in this final section are the results pertaining to the third research question. The student t-test was utilized to test hypotheses four through seven.

Hypothesis four

Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) amount of influence as 4-H leaders than will volunteers who discontinued.

The data presented in Table 8 provide information for hypothesis four.

The results of the t-test with 199 degrees of freedom require a t-value of 1.645 or higher to be significant at .05 level. The t-value for the amount of influence factor as reported in Table 8 was 0.80. The researcher failed to support the hypothesis that volunteers who continue as 4-H volunteers will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq$

Table 8. t-Test for perceived amount of influence in 4-H for continuing and discontinued 4-H volunteer leaders

Group	N ^a	Mean	Std. Dev.	t value	Prob. T
Continuing	104	3.74	0.75	0.80	0.424
Discontinuing	97	3.65	0.86		
Total	201				

^aN=The N's are not the same as total sample because of missing data.

.05) amount of influence as a 4-H leader than those volunteers who discontinued.

Hypothesis five

Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) social approval among their peers than will volunteers who discontinued. Table 9 contains a summary of the results for the above hypothesis.

Table 9. t-Test for perceived social approval for continuing and discontinued 4-H volunteer leaders

Group	N ^a	Mean	Std. Dev.	t value	Prob. T
Continuing	100	3.17	0.81	-2.16	0.032
Discontinued	93	3.42	0.85		
Total	193				

^aN=The N's are not the same as total sample because of missing data.

A t-value of -2.16 was reported. Since the discontinued group reported significantly higher social approval scores than did the continuing volunteers, the hypothesis cannot be supported.

Hypothesis six

Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive significantly greater ($p \geq .05$) volunteer job satisfaction than will volunteers who discontinued. Table 10 presents evidence to address the above hypothesis.

Table 10. t-Test for perceived job satisfaction as a volunteer for continuing and discontinued 4-H volunteer leaders

Group	N ^a	Mean	Std. Dev.	t value	T
Continuing	105	3.51	0.47	-1.26	0.211
Discontinuing	99	3.60	0.54		
Total	204				

^aN=The N's are not the same as total sample because of missing data.

A t-value of -1.26 was reported. Since the discontinued group reported higher job satisfaction scores than did the continuing volunteers, the hypothesis cannot be supported.

Hypothesis seven

Volunteers who continue in 4-H will perceive that their career development is greater ($p \geq .05$) than will volunteers who discontinued. Table 11 provides data to address the above hypothesis.

Table 11. t-Test for perceived career development for continuing and discontinued 4-H volunteer leaders

Group	N ^a	Mean	Std. Dev.	t value	Prob. T
Continuing	98	3.04	0.86	-1.07	0.288
Discontinuing	96	3.18	0.95		
Total	194				

^aN=The N's are not the same as total sample because of missing data.

A t-value of -1.07 was reported. Since the discontinued group reported higher career development scores than did the continuing volunteers, the hypothesis cannot be supported.

Based on the analysis of the data collected, none of the seven hypotheses were supported. The discussion of the results will be presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The organizational focus of this dissertation has been the 4-H youth program of the Cooperative Extension Service. The 4-H and youth program has been defined as a program directed toward helping youth between the ages of 9-19 to develop leadership talents and abilities, to strengthen personal qualities, and to instill citizenship ideals. Of paramount importance to the 4-H program is the need to have adult volunteers continue in the program as 4-H leaders. The annual turnover rate among 4-H leaders approaches one-third each year (Prawl, Medlin, and Gross, 1984). For the Cooperative Extension Service youth program, this means that in order to maintain the current level of volunteer leadership, an entire cadre of volunteer leaders must be identified, recruited, and trained continuously.

Numerous researchers have conducted studies which identified many reasons for 4-H leader volunteerism (Demark, 1971; Parrott, 1977; Pozza, 1966). Most of these studies have focused on altruistic reasons as determinants of individual voluntary action. Little attention has been paid to rewards as possible determinants of adult volunteer participation in the 4-H program. To reduce volunteer turnover, enhance retention and involvement in 4-H, and to aid in the identification and recruitment of additional 4-H volunteer leaders, a more thorough understanding of the factors associated with individual volunteer participation is needed. The purpose of this study was to examine rewards that influence the continuation or discontinuation of adult 4-H volunteer leaders with the Iowa 4-H program. The specific objectives

were:

1. To determine which rewards help predict who will continue as a 4-H volunteer.
2. To examine if there is a relationship between selected demographic variables and the continuation of volunteers in 4-H.
3. To determine are there any differences in perception toward rewards by continuing and discontinuing volunteers.

In dealing with the above objectives, social exchange theory was used as an initial working theoretical framework against which the various interactive forces would be examined. The main tenets of this theory asserts that interaction is based on cost and benefits in which participants attempt to maximize the rewards received at as little a cost as possible.

In this study, data were obtained from the respondents through the use of mailed questionnaires. Discriminant analysis and the students t-test were used to analyze the data.

A volunteer's decision to continue or discontinue participating in 4-H was assumed to be influenced by many reward factors. The rewards included the amount of influence in 4-H, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development. The first hypothesis tested was that there is a significant relationship between rewards and continuation of volunteers in 4-H. The relationship between rewards and continuation of volunteers was not significant ($p \leq 0.05$). Of the

factors expected to be important in determining whether or not adult 4-H volunteer leaders continue in the program, social approval was most correlated with continuation. The canonical correlation coefficient for social approval was 0.7590, while job satisfaction provided the weakest relationship of 0.1566. Thus, it can be concluded that the four rewards did not play as important a role in determining whether volunteers continued or not, as originally proposed. Of those rewards selected for this research, social approval was more important.

Several possible reasons could account for the rejection of this hypothesis. First, the majority of the volunteers had as a youth been in 4-H. Thus, they have the expectation that their children would be in 4-H. Volunteers in 4-H may perceive volunteering important because of the benefits it provides for their children instead of the personal rewards they gain. Volunteers view 4-H as an organization that helps develop the self-concept of their children and also help build a sense of community. Second, volunteers may be more concerned with the 4-H past experience of success or failure in meeting its goals. This point has been elaborated on by Litterer (1965) who argued that being able to accomplish or achieve something that a person wants is one of the major elements that attract people to continue in groups. Third, it is argued that because volunteers were in 4-H and consider 4-H to be a good organization for their children, they would report socially acceptable opinions for why they volunteer. Volunteering for personal rewards may not be acceptable motives at the societal level, and to say the least, could even cause cognitive dissonance for the volunteer. Festinger's

(1959) theory of cognitive dissonance posits that once people have engaged in an activity, they are likely to report positive feelings about it, presumably to justify taking part. Of the four rewards, social approval received the most positive reaction from the continuing volunteers. Fourth, a final reason for rewards not being positively related to volunteers continuing in 4-H is because 4-H is only one of the many organizations that volunteers participate in, and therefore, they may rely on other organizations to provide personal rewards.

The second hypothesis stated that job satisfaction of a volunteer will be a better indicator of continuation than social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development on continuing in the volunteer program. The results indicate that job satisfaction was similar ($p \leq 0.05$) to the other reward factors as a predictor of the volunteer's continuation. The F ratios and levels of significance were 2.93 and 0.09, 0.99 and 0.32, 0.20 and 0.66, and 0.33 and 0.56 for social approval, amount of influence, job satisfaction, and career development, respectively. Therefore, the hypothesis that job satisfaction of a volunteer will be more predictive of continuation than social approval, amount of influence in 4-H, and career development was not supported.

A possible reason why job satisfaction was not an adequate predictor of continuation may be explained by how job satisfaction was measured. The questions used to measure job satisfaction mostly emphasized the personal, individualistic aspects of work (relationship of the volunteer to his/her task) rather than the interactional aspects

(relationship of the volunteer to others in the work environment). The absence of the interactional aspects in the overall structure of job satisfaction in this study would need confirmation in additional studies with other volunteer populations.

The third hypothesis deals with the relationship between selected demographic factors of sex, education, and age and continuation. The results indicate that unlike age, education and sex were not significantly ($p \geq 0.05$) related to continuation.

This result may be explained in part by considering that education and sex may not be related to volunteers continuing in 4-H because the Extension Service programs are open to the general public regardless of educational attainment or sex. Second, education and sex might not be significantly related to volunteers continuation because the Extension Service actively recruits participants for programs from various backgrounds. Also, Extension recruits on the basis of the perceived needs of the youth in 4-H rather than on the sex and educational level of the volunteers. One reason why age may be related to volunteers continuing in 4-H might be related to the older volunteers need to participate in the program for other social reasons. Also, it may be suggested that there is a relationship between the age of volunteers and their participation in 4-H, because these volunteers who are in their '40s and '50s would have children old enough to be involved in 4-H.

The last four hypotheses examined the perceptions of the continuing and discontinuing volunteers regarding the amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development. It was hypothesized

that continuing 4-H volunteers would have higher perception of each reward than would those who discontinued. The results indicate that the value attached to amount of influence was similar ($p \geq 0.05$) between continuing and discontinuing volunteers. As regards the fifth hypothesis both continuing and discontinuing volunteers placed equal ($p \geq 0.05$) emphasis on social approval as a criterion in deciding to continue in the 4-H program. The continuing and discontinuing volunteers shared similar ($p \geq 0.05$) views regarding the importance of job satisfaction in influencing their decision to remain in 4-H. Continuing and discontinuing volunteers did not differ ($p \geq 0.05$) in their assessment of the role of career development as a factor in their continued participation in the 4-H program.

The arguments for the observation that rewards in general did not adequately account for the continued participation of adult 4-H volunteer leaders may be extended to account for all rewards examined in this study.

Conclusions

The results provide evidence which suggest that the four rewards alone do not adequately influence the volunteer's decision to continue as adult 4-H leaders. The results, therefore, do not support the basic assumption of social exchange theories, which hypothesizes that people enter into relationships because of the rewards which can be accrued from it. Thus, exchange theories may be inappropriate for studying the motives for volunteers continuing in 4-H. An explanation for the inappropriateness of the theory may be due, in part, to the theory's

assumption that individuals will be motivated to engage in activities that provide desired outcomes even if the outcomes can be obtained through other organizations as well. Also, exchange theories may not be applicable to studying volunteerism in 4-H due to the kind of organization it is. For example, in 4-H the volunteers may be more concerned with the rewards their children receive rather than the personal rewards they hope to gain.

One possible reason why a discernable relationship was not associated with rewards gained may be partially explained by the theory of anticipated benefits (Tough, 1979). The core of this theory states that anticipated benefits to be derived from participating are "present in the person's conscious mind" and constitute a "significant portion of the person's total motivation for participating in organizations. The theory identifies five situations at which benefits might be anticipated. They include 1) engaging in a learning activity to, 2) retaining the knowledge or skill to, 3) applying the knowledge to, 4) gaining a material reward, as in promotion, or 5) gaining a symbolic reward, as in certificates.

Of these, retaining the knowledge or skill and applying the knowledge gained by 4-H adult volunteers in other volunteer roles may be benefits which were not clearly associated with the rewards in this study. Also, this may be related to the fact, that for volunteers, the process of volunteering itself may be more important than the rewards gained. Thus, it is possible that what is anticipated to be a benefit in participating in such voluntary organizations may not be

quantifiable in terms of tangible rewards as clearly demonstrated in this study.

Because of the lack of any systematic body of research dealing with adult volunteers in 4-H and in particular the way rewards influence their continuation, this study is considered to be exploratory in nature. One of the primary functions of exploratory research involves the generation of researchable questions which, consequently, stimulate further research in the particular area. Based upon these findings, this is an important area for further research. Further studies should be conducted to analyze other rewards in addition to those investigated in this study as possible motives for participating as it relates to other agencies, both public and private. It will also be of interest to find out if these findings are peculiar to the 4-H program in Iowa or are a general characteristic of other volunteer organizations.

The group of rewards used in this study was not meant to be exhaustive of all reward factors influencing volunteers continuation. Additional research should examine a different combination of reward variables for better prediction of continuation of 4-H volunteers. It may be important to research those factors which motivate people to participate in voluntary programs before they actually begin their volunteer role. It is likely that the reasons individuals volunteer change after they enter the organizations. Longitudinal studies might reveal the directionality of any shifts which may take place due to the various other organizationally centered factors which may be as important as rewards in influencing participation in voluntary programs.

Other areas which can also be pursued may address the questions as to whether younger volunteers are influenced by self-actualizing motives more often than altruistic motives or whether females are more likely than males to volunteer for personal rewards?

There is the need for an in-depth examination of the concept "job satisfaction" by researchers in their investigation of volunteer satisfaction. A deeper examination of the concept will shed light on the actual meaning of work for the individual. Also, examining job satisfaction in the context of volunteering can clarify the definitions of "work" and "volunteer work" as well as the relationship between the two. Similar studies utilizing the perceptions of volunteers could provide useful information and serve as a means of establishing better lines of communication between the volunteers and the professional Extension staff. An important application of this and future studies will be to find a means by which volunteers can be motivated to remain in voluntary programs, by determining which factors influence the decision to continue.

A major strong point of this research was that it utilized the perceptions of continuing and discontinued volunteers. Using the reactions of the discontinued volunteers is essential in discovering whether their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with 4-H contributes to a dimension of support (or lack of support) for 4-H programs. Also, there could be other reasons why they are not volunteering such as other organization involvement.

The study was designed to study the impact amount of influence in

4-H, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development had on volunteers' decision to continue or discontinue in 4-H. The results indicate that none of the rewards was a major contributing factor to the volunteer's decision to continue or discontinue in the 4-H program. However, social approval had relatively a greater influence on the volunteer's decision to remain in 4-H. Thus, the four rewards alone do not adequately influence the decision of volunteers to participate as adult volunteer leaders.

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I am grateful to Dr. Fred Lorenz for his time spent giving my statistical consultation.

In closing, I am especially thankful to my parents and to other members of my family for their support and encouragement.

APPENDIX A: CONTINUING VOLUNTEERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

4-H Adult Volunteers' Questionnaire

We would like information about your 4-H work. This survey has five parts. In sections one through four, a general definition of the concept is given. The fifth section deals with background information about yourself. You are asked to respond to the individual items by using the response categories below.

 Section 1-Amount of Influence in 4-H

Definition: Amount of influence-reflects the impact you have on a given 4-H activity or in your 4-H club.

Circle one number to indicate the amount of influence you had as a 4-H volunteer for each of the items below using the following scale.

- Very Much(VM).....5
- Much(M).....4
- Some(S).....3
- Little(L).....2
- None(N).....1

Amount of Influence

VM M S L N

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I was able to make changes regarding my 4-H activities..... | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. My 4-H activities were largely determined by myself..... | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I made my own decisions in the performance of my 4-H role..... | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. I made most 4-H work decisions without first consulting the professional staff..... | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Section 2-Social Approval

Definition: Social Approval-is the degree to which you as a volunteer gain acceptance, friendship, and recognition from family, friends, and community.

Circle one number to indicate the importance of the social approval you received from your work as a 4-H volunteer for each of the items below using the following scale.

- Very Important(VI).....5
- Somewhat Important(SI).....4
- Important(I).....3
- Unimportant(UI).....2
- Very Unimportant(VU).....1

	Importance				
	VI	SI	I	UI	VU
5. Praise from county extension 4-H staff.....	5	4	3	2	1
6. Letter of appreciation from 4-H'ers or parents..	5	4	3	2	1
7. Picture or name in the newspaper.....	5	4	3	2	1
8. Receiving an award from your club, county, and or state.....	5	4	3	2	1
9. Chance to be associated with an important organization.....	5	4	3	2	1
10. Chance to receive appreciation from family members, 4-H'ers, and community.....	5	4	3	2	1

 Section 3-Satisfaction as a 4-H volunteer

Definition: Job Satisfaction as a 4-H volunteer-reflects the degree to which your performance matches your own expected performance as a 4-H volunteer.

Circle one number to indicate how you rate the satisfaction you received from your work as a 4-H volunteer for each of the items below using the following scale.

Very Satisfied (VS).....5
 Somewhat Satisfied (SS).....4
 Satisfied (S).....3
 Dissatisfied (D).....2
 Very Dissatisfied (VD).....1

	Satisfaction				
	VS	SS	S	D	VD
The role of a volunteer in 4-H					
11. was challenging.....	5	4	3	2	1
12. was interesting.....	5	4	3	2	1
13. made use of my skills and knowledge.....	5	4	3	2	1
14. allowed for independence.....	5	4	3	2	1
15. required responsibility.....	5	4	3	2	1
16. 4-H members made progress.....	5	4	3	2	1
17. hours were convenient.....	5	4	3	2	1
18. locations were convenient.....	5	4	3	2	1

	VS	SS	S	D	VD
My 4-H supervisor(4-H Professional Staff)					
19. provided encouragement.....	5	4	3	2	1
20. was willing to listen and consider my opinion...	5	4	3	2	1
21. was happy that I volunteered.....	5	4	3	2	1
22. learned new things from me.....	5	4	3	2	1
23. showed me how to improve my work.....	5	4	3	2	1
24. considered me as a colleague.....	5	4	3	2	1

How much in agreement/disagreement were you about the following statements related to your role as a 4-H volunteer?

- Strongly Agree(SA).....5
- Agree(A).....4
- Undecided(U).....3
- Disagree(D).....2
- Strongly Disagree(SD).....1

	Agreement				
	SA	A	U	D	SD
25. had insufficient knowledge and experience.....	5	4	3	2	1
26. was unclear about what to do.....	5	4	3	2	1
27. experienced lack of support from the county extension office.....	5	4	3	2	1
28. differed with professional staff regarding goals and ways to meet the goals.....	5	4	3	2	1

	SA	A	U	D	S
29. demanded more time than available	5	4	3	2	1
30. required more funds for travel, materials, etc.					
than I could really afford.....	5	4	3	2	1
31. required more preparation and learning					
time than I had available.....	5	4	3	2	1

Section 4-Career Development

Definition: Career development-reflects skills you gain while volunteering that can enhance your potential for a professional job.

Circle one number to indicate the degree to which you perceive your services as a 4-H volunteer have helped your professional development for each of the items below using the following scale.

- Very Much(VM).....5
- Much(M).....4
- Some(S).....3
- Little(L).....2
- None(N).....1

		Degree of Help				
		VM	M	S	L	N
32.	To take part in an activity which is similar to paid work.....	5	4	3	2	1
33.	To test the possibility of a career in 4-H.	5	4	3	2	1
34.	To form contacts that might help my own or my family business or work.....	5	4	3	2	1
35.	To learn new skills.....	5	4	3	2	1
36.	To increase chances for future paid employment.....	5	4	3	2	1

 Section 5-Background Information

These questions will provide information about the background characteristics of persons answering this questionnaire. This information will help us interpret and understand your opinions and views about volunteering in 4-H.

First, we would like to ask you, about your:

1. Gender: (Circle one) Male Female
2. Amount of education completed: High School _____ AA. Degree _____
 B.S. _____ M.S. _____ Ph.D _____ Other (specify) _____
3. Age (in years) _____
4. Are you now a 4-H leader? (Circle one) Yes No
5. How many years were you a volunteer leader? _____
6. Have you had children in 4-H in previous years? (Circle one) Yes No
7. How many children do you currently have in 4-H? _____
8. Were you ever a 4-H member? (Circle one) Yes No
 a. If so, how many years were you in 4-H _____
9. Who first asked you to serve as a 4-H leader? (Check only one)
 ___ 1) My own children ___ 2) Other 4-H leaders
 ___ 3) Other 4-H members ___ 4) Parents of 4-H members
 ___ 5) Extension Agents
 ___ 6) Other (please list) _____

10. Rank the following six items in order of importance to you on a scale of 1-6 (1 = most important and 6 = least important) for being an adult 4-H volunteer.

- ___ 1) Because my own children were 4-H members
- ___ 2) Because I think it is a good youth organization
- ___ 3) Because I think it is good for the community
- ___ 4) Because I like working with boys and girls
- ___ 5) Because of the personal rewards I received, such as amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development.
- ___ 6) Other (please list) _____

11. Please give any constructive comments you might have that you think would help the 4-H leaders in your county.

THANK YOU FOR GIVING YOUR TIME. THE EVALUATION WOULD BE MEANINGLESS WITHOUT FEEDBACK AND IDEAS FROM PEOPLE LIKE YOU WHO HAVE ACTUALLY VOLUNTEERED IN 4-H.

APPENDIX B: HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL FORM

INFORMATION ON THE USE OF HUMAN SUBJECTS IN RESEARCH
IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

(Please follow the accompanying instructions for completing this form.)

96

1. Title of project (please type): Continuation or Discontinuation of Four-H Volunteer Leaders in the Four-H Program in Iowa.

2. I agree to provide the proper surveillance of this project to insure that the rights and welfare of the human subjects are properly protected. Additions to or changes in procedures affecting the subjects after the project has been approved will be submitted to the committee for review.

Brenda Faye Thorbs
Typed Name of Principal Investigator

2-28-85 Brenda F. Thorbs
Date Signature of Principal Investigator

OIES, E. O. Building
Campus Address

294-1120
Campus Telephone

3. Signatures of others (if any) Date Relationship to Principal Investigator
Donald H. Henry 1/24/85 Major Professor

4. ATTACH an additional page(s) (A) describing your proposed research and (B) the subjects to be used, (C) indicating any risks or discomforts to the subjects, and (D) covering any topics checked below. CHECK all boxes applicable.

- Medical clearance necessary before subjects can participate
- Samples (blood, tissue, etc.) from subjects
- Administration of substances (foods, drugs, etc.) to subjects
- Physical exercise or conditioning for subjects
- Deception of subjects
- Subjects under 14 years of age and(or) Subjects 14-17 years of age
- Subjects in institutions
- Research must be approved by another institution or agency

5. ATTACH an example of the material to be used to obtain informed consent and CHECK which type will be used.

- Signed informed consent will be obtained.
- Modified informed consent will be obtained.

6. Anticipated date on which subjects will be first contacted:

Month	Day	Year
<u>02</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>1985</u>

Anticipated date for last contact with subjects:

Month	Day	Year
<u>03</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>1985</u>

7. If Applicable: Anticipated date on which audio or visual tapes will be erased and(or) identifiers will be removed from completed survey instruments:

Month Day Year

8. Signature of Head or Chairperson Date Department or Administrative Unit
Arny Ball 1/28/85 Prof. Studies

9. Decision of the University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research:

- Project Approved
- Project not approved
- No action required

George G. Karas
Name of Committee Chairperson

1/31/85
Date

George G. Karas
Signature of Committee Chairperson

APPENDIX C: LETTER SENT TO EXTENSION 4-H AND YOUTH LEADER

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Telephone 515-294-4143

February 7, 1985

Dear Extension 4-H and Youth Leader:

This letter is to request your assistance in a study that will examine why adult 4-H leaders continue or discontinue to volunteer. The insights gained from this study will provide useful information for extension staff in designing volunteer training programs. Therefore, the success of this study depends on your cooperation.

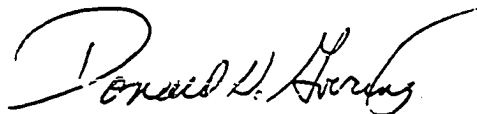
We are asking you to provide us with a list of names and addresses of current and former 4-H adult volunteer leaders in your county as indicated below between October 1980 and October 1983. Upon receiving the list of volunteers from you and your co-workers from across the state, we will randomly select 300 volunteers and send questionnaires to them. The questionnaire will allow present and former volunteers to address issues related to their experiences as volunteers. If you have any questions, please contact me at (515) 294-1120 or Dr. Donald Goering at (515) 294-3283.

Your assistance and cooperation is appreciated.

Sincerely,



Brenda F. Thorbs
Ph.D. Candidate
Adult and Extension Education



Dr. Donald Goering
Assistant Professor
Adult and Extension Education
College of Education

cc: Area Extension Directors

Buchanan
Buena Vista
Butler
Cedar
Crawford
Dallas
Delaware
Dubuque
Franklin
Hamilton

Iowa
Jasper
Linn
Lyon
Mitchell
Palo Alto
Plymouth
Sac
Webster
Woodbury

APPENDIX D: LETTER SENT TO ADULT 4-H VOLUNTEER LEADERS

Iowa State University *of Science and Technology* Ames, Iowa 50011



Office of
International Educational Services
E. O. Building
Telex: ISU INTL AMES 9105201157
Telephone 515 294-1120

March 18, 1985

Dear Volunteer:

As a volunteer working with the 4-H program out in the counties of Iowa, your role makes you an extremely important person to the Cooperative Extension Service. Because you are/were a 4-H leader, we feel you have first hand knowledge that can be of value to us.

The purpose of this letter is to request your assistance in a study that will examine why adult 4-H volunteers continue or discontinue as volunteers. The insights gained will provide useful information for extension staff in designing volunteer training programs.

Please take a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the self-addressed stamped envelope by April 5, 1985. Instructions are given at the beginning of each section to assist you in completing the questionnaire. You are assured that your responses will be completely confidential. The identification number on the questionnaire will be used only for recordkeeping purposes. This number enables us to check your name on the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned.

Thank you for your cooperation. I hope to receive your completed questionnaire by April 5, 1985.

Sincerely,

Brenda F. Thorbs

Brenda F. Thorbs
Ph.D Candidate
Adult and Extension Education

Donald Goering

Dr. Donald Goering
Assistant Professor
Adult and Extension Education
College of Education

APPENDIX E: FOLLOW-UP LETTER SENT TO ADULT 4-H VOLUNTEER LEADERS

Iowa State University *of Science and Technology* Ames, Iowa 50011



Office of
International Educational Services
E. O. Building
Telex: ISU INTL AMES 9105201157
Telephone 515 294-1120

April 16, 1985

Dear Volunteer:

Three weeks ago you received a questionnaire from me regarding your 4-H volunteer work. I have not received your completed questionnaire. If you have already mailed it, please, ignore this notice. The success of this study depends on your cooperation. Thank you for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Brenda F. Thorbs
Brenda F. Thorbs
Ph.D Candidate
Adult and Extension Education

Donald H. Goering
Dr. Donald Goering
Assistant Professor
Adult and Extension Education
College of Education

APPENDIX F: PEARSON CORRELATION OF REWARD VARIABLES

Table 12. Pearson Correlation coefficients for reward variables

	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅
X ₁ Continuing Group	1.00	-.0567	.1546	.0880	.0767
		N=105 ^a	N=105	N=105	N=105
		S=.212 ^b	S=.016	S=.105	S=.144
X ₂ Amount of Influence		1.00	.2487	.3642	.2612
			N=105	N=105	N=105
			S=.000	S=.000	S=.000
X ₃ Social Approval			1.00	.4120	.5324
				N=105	N=105
				S=.000	S=.000
X ₄ Job Satisfaction				1.00	.5636
					N=105
					S=.000
X ₅ Career Development					1.00

^aN = number of valid cases.

^bS = level of significance.

APPENDIX G: PEARSON CORRELATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Table 13. Pearson Correlation coefficients for demographic variables

	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄
X ₁ Continuing Group	1.00	-.0198	-.1007	.923
		N=105 ^a	N=105	N=105
		S=.389 ^b	S=.088	S=.098
X ₂ Sex		1.00	.0770	-.0077
			N=105	N=105
			S=.151	S=.457
X ₃ Education			1.00	-.0540
				N=105
				S=.239
X ₄ Age				1.00

^aN = number of valid cases.

^bS = level of significance.

**APPENDIX H: BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR CONTINUING AND
DISCONTINUING VOLUNTEERS**

Table 14. Background information of volunteers

	Continuing	Discontinuing
1. Are you now a 4-H leader?	105	101
2. How many years were you a volunteer leader? (mean)	7.5	6.1
3. Have you had children in 4-H in previous years?	69.9% yes	63.5% yes
4. How many children do you currently have in 4-H? (mean)	1.1	.637
5. Were you ever a 4-H member?	68.0% yes	52.0% yes
6. If so, how many years were you a member?	6 years	6 years

Table 15. Who first asked you to volunteer as a 4-H leader?

Contact	Continuing		Discontinuing	
	N	%	N	%
My own children	8	7.6	13	12.9
Other 4-H leaders	48	45.7	52	51.5
4-H members	6	5.7	7	6.9
Parents of 4-H members	14	13.3	12	11.9
Extension agents	11	10.5	11	10.9
Other	11	10.5	3	3.0
Missing data	7	6.7	3	3.0
Total		100.0		100.0

Table 16. Reasons for becoming a volunteer (Continuing Group)

Reasons	Ranking	Percentage					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Because my own children were in 4-H		37.1	7.6	11.4	16.2	5.7	9.5
2. Because I think it is a good youth organization		25.7	35.2	23.8	3.8	2.9	8.6
3. Because I think it is good for the community		10.5	18.1	21.0	28.6	11.4	1.9
4. Because I like working with boys and girls		21.0	17.1	30.5	18.1	4.8	0
5. Because of the personal rewards I received, such as amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development		2.9	6.7	1.0	16.2	39.0	20.0
6. Other		7.9	3.0	10.9	4.0	11.9	31.7

Ranking

- 1 = most important
- 2 = very important
- 3 = important
- 4 = partially important
- 5 = marginally important
- 6 = least important

Table 17. Reasons for becoming a volunteer (Discontinuing Group)

Reasons	Ranking	Percentage					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Because my own children were in 4-H		30.7	11.9	9.9	9.9	14.9	15.8
2. Because I think it is a good youth organization		33.7	27.7	16.8	9.9	5.9	3.0
3. Because I think it is good for the community		9.9	23.8	17.8	35.6	8.9	1.0
4. Because I like working with boys and girls		12.9	24.8	29.7	16.8	9.9	3.0
5. Because of the personal rewards I received, such as amount of influence, social approval, job satisfaction, and career development		7.9	10.9	11.9	13.9	34.7	15.8
6. Other		4.8	4.8	2.9	2.9	13.3	21.0

Ranking

- 1 = most important
- 2 = very important
- 3 = important
- 4 = partially important
- 5 = marginally important
- 6 = least important

**APPENDIX I: COMMENTS MADE BY CONTINUING AND
DISCONTINUING VOLUNTEERS**

Table 18. Comments made by continuing volunteers on how to help the 4-H leaders in their county^a

1. The person who truly believes in the 4-H philosophy can bring out the best in any leader.
2. Would like to have more parent involvement in program choosing.
3. Better attendance at training sessions for volunteers.
4. Volunteers should be paid.
5. Would like to have training done by college specialists.
6. Feel we are losing our older members because they just don't have time for all the writing that is involved with fair projects. School and jobs take their time. There is a need to get back to the "basics."
7. Needs to be more cooperation between leaders and extension office.
8. More uniformity should be used in judging.
9. To involve everyone in each meeting and not to pick out certain ones.
10. To be consistent in decisions and goals for all clubs in a county.
11. There is a need for more free time to work with the children.
12. Need to increase the youth self motivation and self-discipline. Need to increase the 4-H member awareness of what they have to contribute.
13. Make the public more aware of the good things 4-H does.
14. Don't change the rules every year.
15. Make forms easier for the juniors to fill out.
16. Cut down on the paper work for extension staff and get them back out into the homes.

^aComments summarized were mentioned at least two times by volunteers.

Table 18. (continued)

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17. Give extension staff more time to work with and train leaders more through personal contact.
 18. Concentrate on building strong leaders then you will have strong 4-H participants.
 19. Keep close contact with individual clubs.
 20. Limit county activities that require a lot of transportation of members.
 21. Put more importance on good manners and clear appearances-personality development.
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Table 19. Comments made by discontinued volunteers on how to help the 4-H leaders in their county^a

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1. Parent-leader relationships are more important than staff-leader relationships.
 2. Watching children in 4-H grow and achieve goals would have to be the best satisfaction for being a leader.
 3. Would like to see extension directors tell people in the beginning the amount of time needed to volunteer.
 4. To treat each club equally and the office should stick to the rules of the county and not allow exceptions. By altering the rules, this does not help teach responsibility to 4-H members.
 5. Less bookwork.
 6. Try to get more parents involved and place emphasis on personal development.
 7. Invite parents of 4-H participants to attend meetings so they can learn what is expected of their children.
 8. More support and communication through county office. Very little personal contact with local clubs.
 9. Encourage leaders to teach skills that are relevant to everyday work in the home or on the farm.
 10. The older leaders should listen to new leader's ideas more often.
 11. The 4-H staff could give more personal encouragement on an individual basis.
 12. Dislike leaders meetings being on church nights all the time.
 13. Feel that the information on 4-H is very unclear-no guidebooks. So for that reason I quit.
 14. I had to work for a living, therefore had to quit. There just weren't enough hours to work and do volunteer work besides--my family suffered.

^aComments summarized were mentioned at least two times by volunteers.

Table 19. (continued)

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15. Would like to see the club meetings more interesting.
 16. The 4-H became too competitive to work with.
 17. There are many school activities which conflict with scheduled meetings.
 18. I quit because there was a conflict with other 4-H leaders.
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