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THE IMPACT OF LEADER BEHAVIOR
ON VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION
WITH WORK

THE IMPACT OF LEADER BEHAVIOR
ON VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION
WITH WORK

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

by

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iii

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

v

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

LIST OF TABLES

xii

LIST OF TABLES
(continued)

LIST OF FIGURES

xiv

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Nothing, in my opinion, is more deserving of our attention than the intellectual and moral associations of America. The political and industrial associations of that country strike us forcibly; but the others elude our observations, or, if we discover them, we understand them imperfectly, because we have hardly ever seen anything of that kind. ...In democratic countries, the science of association is the mother of science; the progress of all the rest depends upon the progress it has made."

de Tocqueville (1964: 185)

Justification

The words of de Tocqueville, although nearly 150 years old, provide insight into the need for understanding voluntary associations. A scientifically based comprehension of voluntary associations is important for three reasons. First, voluntary groups play a major role in the American social and economic systems. Second, there is currently little useful empirically based organizational knowledge about those associations. Finally, information about leadership, collected from voluntary groups, could lead to more accurate theories about leadership in all organizations.

Importance of Voluntary
Organizations

This nation's voluntary organizations enjoy the support of roughly 37 million Americans who volunteer to work in some capacity to further the goals and objectives of those organizations (Selby, 1978: 92). Eighty-four percent of the adult population donates either money, time, or goods to voluntary associations (Gallup, 1979). Voluntary groups account for more than 80 billion dollars of our annual economy (Filer Commission, 1979). One study concluded that there are "more than 20 million Americans as members of major fraternal orders, almost 20 million workers in trade unions; over 1500 national trade associations, and more than 4000 different chambers of commerce across the United States (Wilensky, 1961: 215). In fact, there may be as many as seven million voluntary groups in the United States (Nielson, 1980). Voluntary, non-profit organizations are becoming increasingly important in contemporary American life. "Indeed, volunteering as we now understand it is such an integral part of American life that we can safely conclude that everyone, at some time or another in his or her life is a volunteer." (Volunteering, 1979-1980: 4).

In addition to there being a plethora of voluntary organizations, many voluntary associations are becoming quite large. For example, the gross annual receipts of the United Way agencies would place them within the top 200 of

the Fortune 500 companies; and one voluntary group (the YMCA) would be ranked as the eighth largest hotel chain in the nation (Bakal, 1979).

Voluntary associations make up a major portion of American society and contribute a significant amount to the economy. No other sector which contributes as much and includes so many organizations has been examined to a lesser degree.

Voluntary Organization Knowledge

The 1970's marked a renaissance of interest in voluntarism in America. In 1973, Congress passed the Voluntary Services Act, ACTION was created, and national volunteer service programs were launched for the elderly, retired business executives, and students. In 1974, the Social Security Act was amended to encourage state governments to use voluntary associations and volunteers to deliver social services. By 1977, many state governments had established offices for voluntary action. In March 1978, the Carter administration announced an Urban Policy, calling for the active involvement of voluntary associations in the revitalization of American cities and Ronald Reagan has emphasized the role of voluntary associations in replacing government programs which were cut back under the administration's budget cutting program. During this period, literature and training programs about voluntarism flourished. However,

little empirical research has been done concerning manage-
ment of voluntary associations. As Smith and Freedman
(1972: 233) point out:

> ...there has been considerable investigation of
> voluntary associations, but the overall results
> are unsatisfying. Much of the research has been
> crude. Generalizations have been made on the
> basis of very limited samples and inadequate
> measuring instruments. Researchers have often
> failed to control variables, and there has been
> almost no attempt to develop theoretical proposi-
> tions which can be operationalized and tested.

Practitioners of management in voluntary associations
tend to generalize; i.e., what is effective in profit
oriented organizations will be effective in voluntary non-
profit organizations. Some individuals are beginning to
question the generality of profit-oriented managerial prac-
tices for non-profit organizations. Scheier (1978: 5)
points out that the ineffectiveness of many voluntary asso-
ciations may be the legacy of a trend in modern voluntary
organization leadership toward the adaptation of concepts
and methods from the paid work world without considering
the "special genius" of the voluntary world. Recent concep-
tual and empirical studies (Gatewood and Lahiff, 1977;
Newman and Wallender, 1978; Mason, 1979) have shown
that there may indeed be significant management related
differences between profit and voluntary organizations. As
one begins to examine the differences, it becomes clear
that empirical research focused on the specific aspects of
management of voluntary associations is necessary.

Empirical research concerning management of voluntary organizations is beginning to emerge. Recently, studies have examined organizational effectiveness (Webb, 1974), planning (McIntosh, 1968; Bixler, 1970; Ruoss, 1972), strategic planning and organizational characteristics (Crittenden, 1982), and organizational structure and norms (Pearce, 1978).

Many areas related to the management of voluntary associations have not yet been examined. One area which is important to the effective and efficient utilization of the manpower in any organization is leadership. Leadership knowledge in general, and knowledge of leadership of volunteers can be expanded by examining the process in voluntary groups.

Leadership in Voluntary
   Organizations

The area of leadership in voluntary organizations has been the subject of limited empirical research to date. Those studies that do address leadership tend to do so by treating leadership as a universal concept (O'Connell, 1976) or by focusing on leadership styles that were successful in a single organization. Much of this literature indicates that the appropriate leadership style (in terms of volunteer satisfaction) for voluntary organizations is relations oriented (Scheier, 1978; Stenzel and Feeney, 1968). Relations-oriented leader behaviors emphasize concern for

volunteer morale, being friendly and approachable, and providing an interesting work environment.

The idea that relations-oriented leadership is the most effective appears to be based on the belief that a relations oriented approach will lead to higher levels of volunteer satisfaction and performance. Volunteer administrators are hesitant to exercise a great deal of control over volunteers or heavily emphasize the task out of fear of losing volunteers. Without the perceived power of money as a reward, the manager of a group of volunteers assumes that the volunteers will not stay in the organization except for social reasons (LaCour, 1977). This reasoning is based on the assumption that individuals volunteer out of a need for group association, interpersonal relationships, and the sharing of common experiences (see Bartlett, 1959, Minnis, 1951; Moore, 1961).

Recent research (Bonjean, Moore, and Macken, 1977), however, indicates that there are several reasons for membership and continued participation in voluntary organizations. These reasons can be grouped into two broad categories that relate to satisfaction with volunteer work. These factors are content and context (Gidron, 1983). Content factors are those components related to the actual work; context factors are elements related to the work situation. Volunteer work is perceived as an exchange between the volunteer and his/her work situation (Kemper, 1980;

Sharp, 1978), whereby time and effort are exchanged for satisfactions and psychic rewards to the individual (Qureshi, Davies, and Challis, 1979). These satisfactions and psychic rewards come from areas such as recognition, relations with others, full use of skills and abilities, supervision, worthwhile work, and personal growth through helping others (see Hadley and Webb, 1971; Deegan and Nutt, 1975; Hillman, 1966; Schwartz, 1966; Gandy, 1976).

A leader is in a position to impact both content and context factors relating to satisfaction. Through his/her behaviors the leader can influence the recognition, accomplishment, supervision styles, interpersonal relations, social interaction, and task structure, thereby influencing reward for task accomplishment. Leader behavior focusing on relations oriented behavior may not result in universally high levels of satisfaction as assumed by many voluntary action scholars. Several contingency based theories (House, 1971; Fiedler, 1967; Vroom and Yetton, 1973) developed from research in the for-profit sector indicate that specific leader behaviors are related to satisfaction and performance in different situations. No single leadership style is appropriate for all situations. If results from the profit sector are generalizable to the voluntary sector, specific situations would require leader behaviors other than relations-oriented in order to have high levels of volunteer satisfaction. Relations-oriented

behavior may only satisfy a portion of the needs related to voluntary participation.

Research centered on leadership in voluntary organiza-tions should be undertaken to determine if the contingency theories of leadership developed based on employees, rather than volunteers, are applicable to voluntary associations. Such research would be significant for two reasons. First, it would provide empirically based evidence on the effects of various leader behaviors on both content and context fac-tors relating to volunteer satisfaction in voluntary organi-zations. This is important because while people join an organization due to a belief in its purposes, they remain as workers since the experience satisfies work-related needs that are not met otherwise (Jenner, 1981: 29). Thus, no matter how committed volunteers are initially, factors in the work or related to the work they do must result in satisfaction of their needs or they will leave the organiza-tion.

Second, research centered on leading volunteers would provide an empirical test, in a unique organizational setting, of a current theory of leadership based on research in the for-profit sector. Volunteer work is different from paid work. Volunteer work is by definition an act of free will; individuals engage in and discontinue it at will. In paid work, by contrast, the pay element represents for most people the necessity to work (Gidron, 1983). Logically, it

appears that a different relationship with the workplace
exists in voluntary organizations. People must be satisfied
through non-tangible benefits if they are to continue to
contribute. The paid employee may tolerate a bad work
situation if there is sufficient remuneration or if there
are no "better" jobs elsewhere. On the other hand, volun-
teers may find a bad work situation running directly counter
to the only motivations which brought them to the organiza-
tion in the first place (Gamm and Kassab, 1983).

By removing the spectre of "forced compliance," the
underlying constructs of leadership can be better
understood. The generality of an existing leadership theory
can be clarified by explicitly analyzing the theory in a
voluntary setting. The knowledge gained can help in the
interpretation of leadership findings in profit oriented
organizations.

Summary of the Significance of Research in the Voluntary Sector

The voluntary sector is a desert for empirically based
management research. The growing importance and size of the
third (voluntary non-profit) sector demands research atten-
tion. Concern with organizational attributes has become
evident in the literature on voluntary organizations
(Ilsley and Neimi, 1981), however, a "paucity of data on
voluntary organizations" still exists (Kramer, 1981: 99).
Voluntary associations are searching for prescriptive mana-

gement practices specifically developed for voluntary
organizations. This research would be an initial step in
providing information on leader behaviors and the satisfac-
tion of volunteers.

Working Definitions

Several terms that were used throughout the course of
the study need to be defined. These terms include: 1)
voluntary organization, 2) volunteer, 3) leadership, 4)
leader.

Voluntary Organizations

Fox (1952) defines voluntary associations as private,
nonprofit organizations not engaged directly in any activi-
ties that are functional prerequisites for the on-going
social system; i.e., not directly producing goods or ser-
vices. Several other broad definitions of voluntary organi-
zations exist (see Smith and Freedman, 1972). For the
purposes of this investigation a specific operational defi-
nition was adopted for use. Crittenden (1982: 5) states:

> A voluntary organization may be defined as an
> organized group of people with membership open to
> those sharing common goals or interests in which
> people become members by their own decision. The
> organization is a nonprofit, non-government , private
> group in which volunteers may serve as directors,
> administrators/staff, or as regular members.

Volunteers

A volunteer is an individual who is a member of a voluntary organization who does not receive compensation for services to the organization. The following working definition of a volunteer was selected for use in this study (Crittenden, 1982):

> A volunteer is defined as any person who performs or gives his/her services of their own free will without expectation of financial gain. A volunteer can receive reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses and mileage.

Leadership

In his review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974) found eleven separate and distinct definitions of leadership. It was not feasible to examine all eleven definitions in this study, however, all eleven definitions were built on the foundation of one individual, through some method, influencing the behavior of other individuals. One of the definitions Stogdill examined seems to most clearly state that proposition and was, therefore, used as the working definition of leadership in this investigation. The definition was based upon one provided by Feidler (1967).

> Leadership is particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his/her group members. This may involve such acts as structuring the work relations, praising or criticizing group members, and showing consideration for their welfare.

Leader

Leaders are those individuals who are responsible for and direct the activities of individuals and groups in organizations. The working definition of a leader in voluntary organizations is based on the definition developed by Pearce (1980: 86).

> Leaders are those individuals holding formal elected or appointed offices in voluntary organizations. These individuals also have direct supervisory responsibilities in the voluntary organization.

The definition does not include informal leaders due to the difficulty in determining who those individuals were and in which situations they were leaders of volunteers.

Summary

This study was an attempt to add to the current body of knowledge related to voluntary organizations and leadership. Specifically, the investigation was an endeavor to build an understanding of leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction in voluntary organizations. This was accomplished by reviewing the literature on leadership research and voluntary organization structure (Chapter II). Specific hypotheses based on the literature review were then developed and enumerated in Chapter III. Univariate and multivariate analysis techniques were used to analyze the results of the two phases of data collection. Chapter IV reported the tests of the hypotheses related to orientation and size, and the

relationship with structural characteristics. Chapter V was
devoted to the analysis of the leader behavior hypotheses.
Specific factors relating to volunteer satisfaction were
determined and reported through the use of analysis of
variance and discriminant analysis. Interpretation of the
results of the data analysis procedures for Chapters IV and
V were discussed in Chapter VI. The final chapter (Chapter
VII) summarized the research project. Specific conclusions
were enumerated, limitations of the study were examined, and
directions for future research were provided.

A broad range of data was collected in order to better
understand voluntary associations and specific issues
related to effective utilization of volunteer manpower. An
effort was made to provide information which could be used
to refine and expand understanding of previously defined
leadership and structural relationships in both the
for-profit and voluntary sectors.

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CHAPTER II

EXAMINATION OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Chapter II reviews literature that is relevant to the study. The chapter is broken into two major sections: 1) A review of the development of various theories of leadership and; 2) a review of available literature dealing with the organizational structure and leadership styles used in voluntary organizations. This review of the literature will serve as the basis for the development of the leadership hypotheses and hypotheses related to function, size, and organization structure enumerated in Chapter III.

Leadership Theories

There are three basic categories of leadership theories: trait, behavioral, and situational. Trait theories attempt to define a set of traits or individual characteristics that distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. Behavioral theories focus on what the leader does, not who the leader is. Situational theories examine the complex relationship between the leader, subordinates and the situation. A situational theory serves as the basis for this research. Each of the major categories of leadership is reviewed in this chapter.

18

Trait Theories

The development of the personnel testing component of scientific management supported to a significant extent the study of trait theories of leadership (Stogdill, 1974: 4). Most early researchers used the newly developed testing techniques in an effort to identify and categorize the traits which were common in "great men" of the day. Researchers began an exhaustive search to identify biographical, personality, emotional, physical, intellectual, and other personal characteristics of successful leaders (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980: 279). In a review of the research since 1948, Stogdill (1974) indicated that such studies had dealt with the following leader trait categories: (1) physical characteristics; (2) social background; (3) intelligence; (4) personality; (5) task related characteristics; and (6) social characteristics.

Even with studies supplying information in so many categories of personal traits, results have not indicated a clear profile of the personal characteristics of effective leaders. Although some traits appear to differentiate effective and ineffective leaders there still exist many contradictory research findings (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, 1979; Hollander and Julian, 1969).

There are several reasons why the trait approach to the study of leadership has not proven effective. Each year new traits are added to the list of those thought significant, resulting in confusion as to which traits are important.

Only one study attempted to rank the importance of various traits (Ghiselli, 1971). In addition, the trait approach to leadership does not examine what the leader does to influence other individuals (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, 1981). Most contemporary researchers would agree that there is much more involved in leadership than just the traits of the leader.

The growing list of traits indicates that specific characteristics are important only in certain situations. For example, personality characteristics may help identify an effective leader in one study while intellect will identify an effective leader in another. As Stogdill (1948) concluded, "The total weight of evidence presented in this group of studies suggests that if there are general traits which characterize leaders, the patterns of such traits are likely to vary with the leadership requirements of different situations."

Behavioral Theories

During the 1950's, the dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership led behavioral scientists to focus their attention on actual leader behaviors. The pioneering work which focused on what leaders do occurred in research done by Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939). Their studies compared the effects of democratic, autocratic, laissez-faire leadership. Findings of the study reflected favorably upon the democratic style, in terms of satisfaction. These stud-

ies foreshadowed many of the findings of the behavioral
leadership researchers.

Two major groups of researchers were responsible for
pursuing the behavioral perspective on leadership in the
late 1940's and 1950's (Evans, 1979). One group at the
University of Michigan identified dimensions of leader be-
haviors that differentiated leaders of high performing from
low performing groups (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950:
33-34). The University of Michigan researchers categorized
leader behaviors as either employee-centered or and job-cen-
tered. Likert (1961: 14) concluded that the best super-
visors were employee centered:

> Supervisors with the best record of performance focus
> their primary attention on the human aspects of their
> subordinates problems and on endeavoring to build
> effective work groups with high performance goals.

This conclusion was based on leadership effectiveness being
measured in terms of both productivity measures and employee
satisfaction. Evidence does not support employee centered
leadership behavior as the best approach, if production only
is considered. Several studies (Morse and Reimer 1956;
Likert, 1976; Vroom, 1976) have indicated that job centered
leadership results in high productivity with lower levels of
employee satisfaction and higher rates of turnover and
grievances.

The Michigan studies did not demonstrate that one type
of leadership style was always superior nor were they able

to specify in advance which style would be most effective
(Gray and Starke, 1980). The Michigan studies do not
consider situational variations or changes in the leader's
behavior during changes in the situation faced (Hill, 1973)
and, therefore, cannot predict the best leadership behav-
iors.

Researchers at The Ohio State University tried to
generate an exhaustive pool of items describing how a leader
behaved (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). From the original pool
of over 1700 items the group identified two dimensions of
leader behaviors of particular importance..., consideration
and initiating structure. As defined in Fleishman and
Peters (1962), consideration reflects the extent to which a
leader is likely to have job relationships characterized by
mutual trust, respect for subordinates ideas, and con-
sideration of their feelings. Initiating structure reflects
the extent to which a leader is likely to define and struc-
ture his or her own role as well as the role of subordinates
toward goal attainment.

The Ohio State studies were based on the assumption
that the most effective leadership style was high on both
initiating structure and consideration (Fleishman, 1973).
In numerous studies in such organizations as a petroleum
manufacturer, aircraft manufacturer, military group and
business and business machine manufacturer no single
leadership style emerged as always being most effective
(House, Filley, Kerr, 1971; Korman, 1976). Once again, high

subordinate performance could not be specifically tied to one form of leader behavior for all situations.

The behavioral theories developed and tested by the Michigan and Ohio State researchers lead to the development of situational theories of leadership. The research findings suggested that a universally accepted "best" style was inappropriate for the complexities of modern organizations (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980). Therefore, researchers began to examine the various situational variables that were believed to have an impact on the leadership process.

Situational Theories

As the study of leadership developed and the inadequacy of simplistic approaches to the subject became apparent, a number of researchers attempted to develop theoretical models which avoided both the seductive simplicity of the "one best way" approach and the non-answer... "it all depends" (Evans, 1980). As early as 1958 Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958: 98) concluded, "effective leadership depends on the leader, his followers, and the situation, and the interrelationships between them." One of the first systematic research efforts that attempted to identify a consistent set of contingency variables and their effect on leadership was that of Fiedler (1967).

Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership. Fiedler's
Contingency Model of Leadership includes four factors: (1)
leadership-style assessment; (2) task structure; (3) leader-
member relations; and (4) the leader's position power.
Leadership-style assessment identifies the leadership style
with which the leader is most comfortable; the other three
factors describe the situational favorableness for the
leader. Fiedler (1967) argues that the three situational
variables combine in unequal strength to create situational
favorableness; accordingly, leader-member relations is twice
as important as task structure which is twice as important
as position power. The combination of variables creates
eight octants of decreasing situational favorableness, with
a highly favorable situation being characterized by good
leader-member relations, a structured task, and high leader
position power. A highly unfavorable situation, on the
other hand, is characterized by poor leader-member rela-
tions, low task structure, and low position power for the
leader.

Summarizing the work in sixty-three organizations com-
posed of 454 groups, Fiedler (1972) suggested specific
leadership styles which were appropriate for a given
situational environment. Task-oriented styles were found to
be effective in highly favorable and unfavorable situations,
while employee oriented styles are better in moderately
favorable situations. The findings suggest that both task
and employee oriented leadership styles can be effective in

certain situations. Fiedler (1967) suggests that the orga-
nization can change the effectiveness of the group's perfor-
mance by changing the favorableness of the situation or by
changing the leader's preferred style (although he does not
believe the latter is possible). Recent work indicates that
when leaders can recognize the situations in which they are
most successful, they can begin to modify their own situa-
tions (Fielder, 1976).

The results of a number of studies on Fiedler's con-
tingency model have been reported. These studies (Graen,
Orris, and Alvares, 1971; McMahon, 1972; Larson and Rowland,
1974; Vecchio, 1977), conducted in a variety of research
settings in order to determine the validity of the model,
have identified an increasing number of serious shortcomings
in the theory. Ashour (1973) has argued that the model is
not a theoretical statement but a set of data-based genera-
lizations. Ashour concludes that the model does not have
explanatory power; it may be able to predict productivity
but it cannot explain why it occurs.

A second serious shortcoming involves the the
leadership-style assessment instrument, the least preferred
co-worker (LPC) scale. There is some dispute as to what the
LPC score measures. Moreover, it appears that, at best, the
LPC score has minimal stability (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977;
Stinson and Tracy, 1974). There is also some dispute con-
cerning the appropriateness of the situational favorableness
dimensions employed in the model. Campbell (1968) argues

that each dimension of situational favorableness can be a
function of the leader's behavior. For example, leader-
member relations can easily be influenced by the leader
behavior and the behavior can be influenced by existing
leader-member relations.

Despite major criticisms, Fiedler's contingency model
has proven to be a major addition to the study of leadership
in organizations (Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly, 1979;
Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980). Fiedler is largely responsible
for causing us to look seriously at situational variables
(Evans, 1980). Also as Fiedler (1974) suggests, the model
is and will remain a rich source of new ideas, propositions,
and hypotheses about leadership style and effectiveness.

Vroom and Yetton Normative Model. Another diagnostic
model of leadership behavior has been developed and elab-
orated by Vroom and his associates (Vroom and Yetton, 1973;
Jago and Vroom, 1975; Vroom and Yetton, 1978). The Vroom
and Yetton model emphasizes two criteria for effectiveness:
(1) quality of the decision and (2) decision acceptance.
Decision quality refers to the objective aspects of a deci-
sion that influence subordinates' performance aside from any
direct impact on motivation. Decision acceptance is the
degree of subordinate commitment to the decision. There are
many situations in which a given course of action, even if
technically correct, can fail, because it is resisted by
those who have to execute it (Maier, 1963).

The Vroom/Yetton model designates five decision making styles that are appropriate for decisions involving none or all of the leaders' subordinates. These styles are similar to those identified by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and Heller (1971). Vroom and Yetton suggest that the leader apply one of the five styles (either individual or group oriented) after performing a diagnosis of the situation and problem. By using careful diagnosis, the leader is able to minimize the chances of reducing decision quality and acceptance. The diagnosis of the situation is based on seven diagnostic questions. The answers to these questions provide the leader with information on quality requirements, information availability, problem structure, acceptance requirements, subordinate response to autocratic decisions, subordinate motivations, and subordinate characteristics.

The research conducted on the model can be divided into two types: (1) verification, and (2) descriptive (Ivancevich, Donnelly, and Gibson, 1979). Verification research has tended to show substantial support for the model (Vroom and Jago, 1978; Margerison and Glube, 1978). According to the studies, managers who exhibit conformity with the Vroom/Yetton model prescriptions have more productive operations and more satisfied subordinates than do managers exhibiting less conformity with the model. Descriptive research indicates that most managers permit a greater overall level of participative decision making than seems to be required (Vroom and Jago, 1978). Vroom (1978)

also indicates that the acceptance criterion is most often violated. Leaders seem to obtain acceptance when not needed and vice versa.

A strength of the Vroom and Yetton approach is in the treatment of issues that influence leadership effectiveness; quality requirements, information availability, and acceptance by subordinates (Gray and Starke, 1980). However, there may be methodological weaknesses that reduce the utility of the model (Field, 1978). For example, House, Filley, and Kerr (1976) pointed out that the decision tree format for the model may be too cumbersome for practicing managers to utilize.

Little empirical evidence has been generated that either supports or refutes the prescriptions of the theory. Both positive and negative evidence is tentative at this point. The model needs to be tested further before conclusions can be reached.

Situational Leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) developed a situational model of leadership based on the foundations of the Ohio State leadership studies. Hersey and Blanchard suggest that no single style of leader behavior is appropriate for all situations. The appropriate style of leader behavior depends on follower maturity, as measured by job maturity and psychological maturity (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). Job maturity includes past job experience, job knowledge, and understanding of the job

requirements. Psychological maturity, on the other hand, involves the willingness or motivation to work.

The situational model suggests that as maturity increases the leader should shift the emphasis from task-oriented behaviors to relationship-oriented behaviors. No other situational variables are included in the model.

The situational theory makes some contributions to the study of leadership. The theory suggests the need for behavioral flexibilty as situations change and recognizes the importance of the follower in determining the appropriate leader behavior.

There are several shortcomings of Hersey and Blanchard's situational model. A major controversy exists concerning how follower maturity is determined and just what is measured by follower maturity (Graeff, 1983). In addition, the theory uses only one factor, follower maturity, to determine the situation. The theory may ignore other important situational factors. Finally, the theory has been subjected to only limited empirical validation (see Hambelton and Gumpert, 1982).

Path-Goal Theory. The Path-Goal theory of leadership has its genesis in the path-goal hypotheses advanced by Georgopolous, Mahoney, and Jones (1957). Georgopolous et. al. asserted that worker productivity was a function of worker needs, expectations, and situations. He stated the path goal hypothesis as follows:

> Productivity level is seen as representing pur-
> posive behavior which is determined through the
> interaction of both facilitating and inhibiting
> forces, forces in the individual and in the
> environment. More specifically it is seen as a
> function of the path-goal perception, level of
> need, and level of freedom.

The path-goal hypothesis as presented by Georgopolus made no

statements concerning leader behavior and made no effort to

prescribe leadership styles for a given situation.

Evans (1970), using the path-goal hypothesis as a basis,

suggested that leaders were in a position to influence pro-

ductivity of followers in several ways. Leaders could

influence path goal perceptions by providing alternative

paths which would be shorter in terms of effort needed by

subordinates to reach goals. Leaders could also act to

reduce inhibiting forces or barriers within a given path, or

increase facilitating forces. Further, the leader could

alter the individuals' expectations, or psychological proba-

bilities, that reaching a certain organizational goal would

result in the satisfaction of personal needs.

Another major influence on the development of the path-

goal theory of leadership was research supporting the expec-

tancy theory of motivation (House, 1971: 322). The central

concept of expectancy theory is that the motivational force

of an individual to engage in a specific behavior is a func-

tion of (1) his/her expectations that the behavior will

result in a specific outcome and (2) the sum of the values,

that is, personal utilities or satisfactions that he/she

derives from the outcome. Thus, according to expectancy motivation theory, an individual chooses the behavior he/she engages in on the basis of (1) the personal utilities he/she perceives to be associated with the outcomes of the behavior under consideration; and (2) his/her subjective estimate of the probability that his behavior will indeed result in the outcomes. The original expectancy theory as proposed by Vroom (1964) is shown by the following mathematical relationships:

$$F = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (E_{ij} \cdot V_j)$$

where F = force to perform an act
       E_{ij} = the expectancy that act i will
            be followed by outcome j
       V_j = the valence of outcome j
       n = the number of outcomes

Cummings and Galbraith (1967) extended Vroom's formulation by pointing out that some of the valences associated with a specific behavior are intrinsic to the behavior itself and some are the extrinsic consequences of the behavior. To the extent that a behavior is intrinsically valent it is also intrinsically motivational because the behavior is highly instrumental to the outcome of satisfaction. An individual will engage in intrinsically satisfying behavior because his/her expectancy that satisfaction (outcome) will follow is near unity since the reward is self-administered. There would be no chance that a leader or a third party

would ineffectively administer the reward (as might occur in extrinsic reward situations). Motivational force in intrinsically valent situations would then be expressed as:

$$F = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (Vj)$$

since Eij in the previous formula will be = 1

Thus, in a situation which is intrinsic in nature, motivational force would be expressed as the valence of specific behaviors or outcomes. Intrinsic sources of valence have been identified and include the degree of satisfaction or pleasure the individual derives from the accomplishment of the work goal regardless of extrinsic rewards (Reinhart and Wahba, 1975).

The basic tenets of expectancy theory together with the path-goal hypothesis laid the foundation for postulates of the path-goal theory of leadership as proposed by House (1971). Evans (1968), prior to House's work, proposed an expectancy-based concept having specific relevance for leadership. This concept, referred to as path instrumentality, is the cognition of the degree to which following a particular path (behavior) will lead to a particular outcome; the concept is akin, but not identical to, the concept of expectancy introduced by Vroom (House, 1971). Path-goal instrumentality is the extent to which the path (as defined by the leader) is seen as helping or hindering the individual in attaining goals. Expectancy is defined as the

perceived belief that effort will lead to performance or
other second level outcomes.

House developed Evans' concept of path instrumentality
further and proposed the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership with
its predictions of leadership behavior contingent on
situational variables. House's (1971) Path-Goal Theory of
Leadership can be expressed by this formula:

$$M = IV_b + P_1 \left[IV_a + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (P_{2i} \cdot EV_i) \right]$$

$$i = 1, \ldots \ldots, n$$

where:

M = motivation to work
IV_b = intrinsic valence associated with goal
   directed behavior
IV_a = intrinsic valence associated with work
   goal accomplishment
EV_i = extrinsic valence associated with work
   goal accomplishment
P_1 = path instrumentality of behavior for work
   goal attainment
P_{2i} = path instrumentalities of work goal for
   extrinsic valences

According to House (1971: 323) the leader can have an impact
on most of the independent (situational) variables.

> ...The leader determines what extrinsic rewards
> should be associated with work goal accomplishment
> EV_i. ....he has influence over the extent to which
> work goal accomplishment will be recognized and
> whether it will be rewarded with pay raises,
> promotion, assignment of more interesting tasks, etc.
> ...he influences the magnitude of the sum of personal
> outcomes available. Second, the leader through his
> interaction with subordinates can increase the
> subordinate's path instrumentality concerning rewards
> forthcoming as result of work-goal accomplishment,

P_2. Third, through his own behavior he can provide support for the subordinate's efforts and thereby influence the probability that this effort will result in work-goal achievement, that is P_1. Fourth, the leader influences the intrinsic valences associated with goal accomplishment, IV_a, by the way he delegates and assigns tasks to subordinates. Finally, the leader can increase intrinsic valence associated with goal-directed behavior, IV_b, by reducing frustrating barriers, being supportive in times of stress, ...and being considerate of subordinate's needs.

I.   Leader behavior.   Behavior of the leader can influence motivation in two ways. First, leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that subordinates see such behavior either as an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfactions. Second, leader behavior will be motivational to the extent that leader behavior makes satisfaction of subordinates needs contingent on effective performance and leader behavior complements the environment of subordinates by providing the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards necessary for effective performance.   Simply stated, the motivational functions of a leader include increasing the number and kinds of personal payoffs to subordinates for work goal attainment and facilitating paths to the payoffs by clarification, reduction of constraints in the path, and by increasing the opportunity for personal satisfaction while on a given path (House, 1971).

There are four broad categories of leader behaviors which influence follower performance, acceptance of the leader, and satisfaction.   These behaviors are (House and Mitchell, 1974):

(1) supportive – giving support and consideration to the needs of the subordinates, displaying concern for their well being and welfare, and creating a friendly and pleasant environment.

(2) instrumental – the planning, organizing, controlling, and coordinating of subordinate activities by the leader. The leader's emphasis is on letting subordinates know what is expected of them.

(3) participative – sharing of information and an emphasis on consultation with subordinates and the use of their ideas and suggestions.

(4) achievement-oriented – setting challenging goals, expecting subordinates to perform at the highest level, and continually seeking improvement in performance.

Most current research focuses only on supportive and instrumental behaviors due to the lack of validated measures of achievement and participative leader behaviors (Fulk and Wendler, 1982). In addition, supportive and instrumental behaviors have been viewed traditionally as universal constructs. Campbell (1977) suggests that studies should utilize instruments which measure sub-categories of each type of leader behavior. For example, Schriescheim (1979) developed an instrument which included three distinct behaviors within the instrumental behavior construct (role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment).

II. _Situational variables._ According to House (1971), appropriate leader behavior, behavior which is motivational and satisfying to the subordinate, will be affected by two situational variables. Those variables are (a) personal

characteristics of the subordinates and (b) the environmental factors.

(a). <u>Personal characteristics</u>. Little research has been done in the area of personal characteristics as related to the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. Runyon (1973) and Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed (1974) have shown that the subordinates scores on locus of control moderates the relationship between participative leadership style and subordinates satisfaction. Locus of control can vary from high internal to high external control. Internals (people who believe they control their environment and who believe what happens to them occurs because of their behavior) were found to be more satisfied with a participative leader, and externals (people who believe what happens to them is not under their control) were more satisfied with a directive leader.

Another personal characteristic, authoritarianism, also has been studied as it relates to the Path-Goal theory. Authoritarianism is an attitude that is characterized by beliefs that there should be status and power differences among people in organizations and that the use of power is proper and important to effective organizational functioning (Adorno, et al., 1950). Research on this construct (Dessler, 1973) suggests that people who score high on measures of authoritarianism are more inclined to conform to rules and tend to emerge as leaders in situations requiring an autocratic and demanding style. These same individuals

tend to be more satisfied with instrumental leader behavior since they view this behavior as just and appropriate.

Yet another important characteristic is the subordinate's perception of his or her own ability. The greater the perceived ability to accomplish a task, the less the subordinate will accept directive or instrumental behavior because such behavior will be viewed as unnecessary supervision (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980: 297).

A subordinate's dominant needs or need level also may affect the impact of leader behavior on satisfaction. For example, individuals with high safety and security needs may accept an instrumental leader style, but employees with high affiliation and esteem needs may react more positively to a supportive leader (Griffin, 1980; House and Mitchell, 1974; Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980).

Subordinate characteristics seem to be critical in some leadership situations and of less importance in others. Certain studies (Tannenbaum and Allport, 1956; Vroom, 1959; Mitchell, 1973) indicate that subordinate characteristics moderate the effect of leadership style when the tasks of the subordinates are highly routine and/or non-ego involving. The moderating effect is not consistently supported in all research, however. House (1974) reasoned that the task may have overriding effects on the relationship between leader participation and subordinate responses, and that individual predispositions and personality characteristics of the subordinates may have an effect only for

some tasks. For example, Dessler (1973) found that for
subordinates at lower organizational levels doing routine,
repetitive, unambiguous tasks, directive leadership was pre-
ferred by closed minded, dogmatic, authoritarian subor-
dinates and nondirective leadership was preferred by
nonauthoritarian open minded subordinates. However, direc-
tive leadership was preferred by subordinates at higher
levels doing nonroutine, ambiguous tasks regardless of per-
sonality characteristics.

Personality variables and other subordinate charac-
teristics are important, since they seem to operate as
moderators only in certain situations. Therefore, they can
never be totally ignored, nor used as the sole basis for
reaching a conclusion.

(b). Organizational factors. Many organizational
factors influence the level of satisfaction with leader
behavior. If the organization is one which has a clearly
defined system of procedures and work rules as well as a
clearly defined reward system over which the supervisor can-
not exercise control, instrumental behavior may not provide
high levels of satisfaction even when other variables would
indicate such a relationship. A study (Stinson and Johnson,
1975) examining satisfaction levels in Civil Service and
military personnel supported this hypothesis. In both or-
ganizations the extrinsic reward system and work procedures
were clearly defined and were administered by the formal
organization. The leader had to concentrate on con-

sideration-oriented behavior in an effort to increase
intrinsic reward availability and satisfaction from inter-
personal relations for the subordinate. Instrumental behav-
ior was redundant in that it attempted to clarify a path to
the reward which was already evident to the subordinate.

Miles and Petty (1977) provided additional support for
the findings of Stinson and Johnson. They found that social
service professionals in large organizations whose jobs were
formalized, routinized, standardized and specialized derived
no satisfaction from leader initiating structure behavior.
Subordinates viewed such behavior as redundant. However,
similar professionals from small, less formalized organiza-
tions indicated a significant, positive preference for
leader structuring behavior. The formal authority system
and the size of the organization appear to be moderating
variables in the path-goal relationship.

Most path-goal research has centered on the
subordinate's task as a moderator between satisfaction and
leader behavior. Path-Goal Theory suggests that in
situations where the task is unstructured, an effective
supervisor will initiate structure in the work environment
to help the subordinates avoid pitfalls to successful task
accomplishment and to clarify the extent to which perform-
ance will be rewarded. Subordinates, through leader direc-
tion of their work and clarification of what is expected of
them, will be satisfied by the intrinsic demands of the
unstructured task and be highly motivated by extrinsic

rewards associated with their employment. This relationship has received support from research done by Dessler (1973), Greene (1973), House and Dessler (1974); and Szilagyi and Sims (1974).

In situations where tasks are highly structured, subordinates are likely to view directive behavior as an unnecessary imposition of direction and control. Directive behavior would be viewed as redundant in very structured tasks. Highly structured tasks require the leader to be considerate and supportive in order for subordinates to reduce the frustration resulting from performing simple tasks having little intrinsic satisfaction. Results of research done by Dessler (1973); House and Dessler (1974) and Stinson and Johnson (1975) support this proposition.

Task variety is another factor which has been found to moderate the relationship between satisfaction and leader behavior (Schriesheim and DeNisi, 1979; Johns, 1978). Instrumental leadership helps subordinates whose tasks involve a large number of operations to successfully complete those tasks. Task completion results in the subordinates deriving greater job satisfaction which in turn, contributes to greater satisfaction with supervision (Schriesheim and DeNisi, 1979). Conversely, subordinates working on less varied tasks view instrumental leader behaviors as redundant, resulting in subordinates having less satisfaction with supervision.

Feedback is another moderator of the relationship bet-

ween instrumental leader behavior and subordinate satisfac-
tion with supervision (Schriesheim and DeNisi, 1979; Johns,
1978). Instrumental behavior provides subordinates with
information needed to successfully complete their tasks on
jobs that provide little or no task-related feedback.
Successful completion allows subordinates to gain greater
levels of satisfaction with supervision.

Support has been found for the moderating effect of the
task dimension, dealing with others (Schriesheim and DeNisi,
1979). When a subordinates' job does not involve dealing
with others, interaction with the leader serves as a means
of satisfying any interaction needs. Under this condition,
leader behaviors that are not punitive would enhance subor-
dinate satisfaction with supervision.

Katz (1980) hypothesized that leader consideration is
simply not relevent or as meaningful a dimension as ini-
tiating structure for individuals who have jobs with con-
siderable intrinsic satisfaction. If there are no, or few,
extrinsic rewards available, then leader behavior should
focus on clarifying paths so that subordinates may self-
administer intrinsic rewards associated with task
accomplishment and develop a sense of closure on goals.

Not all research has supported the Path-Goal Theory of
Leadership. In particular, the hypothesis concerning
instrumental behavior has received limited support.
Original research by House supported the hypothesis, but
subsequent studies have found varying degrees of support,

from none to strong (see Stinson and Johnson, 1975;
Schriesheim and von Glinow, 1977). One suggestion that has
been used to explain the varied findings concerning instru-
mental leader behavior centers around the instruments used
to measure leader behavior. Results indicate that the
instruments vary a great deal in how they measure instrumen-
tal or directive behavior (Schriesheim and von Glinow,
1977). Three instruments used in all path-goal leadership
studies are the Supervisory Behavior Description
Questionnaire (SBDQ), the Leader Behavior Description
Questionnaire (LBDQ), and the Leader Behavior Description
Questionnaire--Form XII (LBDQ-XII).

The LBDQ and, especially, the SBDQ contain punitive,
autocratic, and production-oriented items which are extra-
neous to the measurement of the theory's leaderhip
constructs (Schriesheim and Stodgill, 1975). The LBDQ-XII
contains none of these items, and therefore, until recently
constituted the most accurate operationalization of the
theory's leadership constructs. The SBDQ scales and their
derivatives should not be used in testing the Path-Goal
Theory of leadership. Even the LBDQ-XII is at best a rough
approximation of instrumental and supportive leader behavior
(Schriesheim and Stogdill, 1975).

Schriesheim (1979) recently developed and validated
another as yet unamed set of leader behavior scales. These
scales measure the constructs of the Path-Goal theory much
better than measures used in previous research (House,

1980).   Future   research   on   the   Path-Goal   Theory   of
Leadership should use scales which accurately measure the
leader behaviors of interest.

Downey, Sheridan, and Slocum (1975) believe the varia-
bility of research findings conerning the Path Goal Theory
is due to deficiencies in the theory, itself. Several stud-
ies have focused only on task variables while ignoring indi-
vidual characteristics and other environmental variables.
Researchers who ignore the personal characteristics of
subordinates   make   the   implicit   assumption   that   task
variables   outweigh   individual   characteristics   in   all
situations.   This is neither stated nor implied by the
theory. Tests of the theory tend to focus on only one or
two intervening variables and their relationship to subor-
dinate satisfaction. Researchers then arrive at conclusions
about the theory on the basis of support or lack of support
for only a minor part of the theory. For example, previous
studies which attempted to replicate findings concerning the
moderating impact of task variables did not control for
individual and other organizational variables. The varia-
bility of these findings may be due to major differences in
individual characteristics and the organizations used in the
various samples. Results of such studies cannot prove or
disprove the theory in total.

The research findings indicate that the Path-Goal Theory
is a viable approach to the study of leadership (Szilagyi
and Sims, 1974) even though it has weaknesses.   The

complexity of the theory and the use of instruments which do not accurately measure its constructs seem to be the major causes for the variability of the findings. Table 1 provides a summary of the research related to the Path-Goal theory and support or lack of support provided by the investigation. All but one study used universal measures of leader behavior which did not accurately measure leader behaviors (i.e., investigators used either the SBDQ, LBDQ, or LBDQ-Form XII). The variability of the results may be linked to the variety of instruments used to measure leader behavior. In fact, Schriesheim and Von Glinow (1977) have demonstrated that by using different instruments opposite results can be obtained from the same samples. Only the study by Jermier and Burkes (see Table 1) used Schriescheim's new leader behavior instrument. The weaknesses of the theory, therefore, cannot be fully understood until more research employing appropriate measures of leader behavior is conducted.

The results of existing studies tend to support the Path-Goal theory when the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction is examined, however the findings are mixed when the performance-leader behavior relationship is examined. The theory seems to be valid for understanding the satisfaction levels of individuals but suspect for understanding the performance level. Path-Goal theory may be a valuable leadership theory when the leader behavior/ satisfaction relationship is important. Such may be the

case when dealing with voluntary associations. Several
authors (Gidron, 1983; Pearce, 1981) indicate that satisfac-
tion is a critical factor when dealing with volunteers.
Therefore, the Path-Goal theory may provide a useful frame-
work for the study of leadership in voluntary associations.

Research Concerning Voluntary Organizations

The final section of the literature review deals with
research related to voluntary organizations and leader beha-
viors within those organizations. The structure of the
organizations was of particular interest, since structure is
a major factor in determining the environmental charac-
teristics faced by the leader and volunteer. In addition,
literature related to leadership was examined to determine
which leader behaviors were deemed to be most appropriate
for dealing with volunteers and to determine if leaders of
volunteers are encouraged to examine situational factors
before choosing a particular leadership style.

Organizational Structure

There has been little research done on the structure of
voluntary organizations. One study (Gordon and Babchuck,
1959) of particular importance, however, did identify
distinct types of voluntary organizations. According to
Gordon and Babchuck, voluntary organizations can be iden-
tified along an expressive/instrumental continuum.
Expressive organizations provide the framework for immediate

and continued gratification to the individual. The activities of the group primarily are confined to the organization and are directed at providing personal satisfaction and fellowship. An instrumental organization, on the other hand, orients itself to activities which take place outside the organization. Instrumental organizations seek to maintain a condition or bring about change which transcends the immediate membership. Instrumental organizations do not exist primarily to furnish activities for members as an end in itself; rather they serve as social influence organizations designed to create some normative condition or change goal which exists outside of the organization.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT PATH-GOAL
RESEARCH

Date and Author	Supported	
	Instrumental Hypothesis	Consideration Hypothesis
1971		
House	Yes	Yes
House, Filley and Kerr	Yes	Yes
1973		
Runyon	Yes	N.T.*
Dessler	Yes	N.T.
1974		
House and Dessler	Yes	Yes
Greene	Yes	Yes
Mitchell, Symer, and Weed	Yes	N.T.
Szilagyi and Sims	Yes	No
1975		
Sims and Szilagyi	Yes	N.T.
Stinson and Johnson	No	No
Sheridan, et al.	No	No
1976		
Downey, et al.	No	Yes
Schriesheim Murphy	Yes	Yes
Schriesheim Schriesheim	No	No
1977		
Miles and Petty	No	Yes
Valenzi Dessler	No	No
1978		
Johns	Yes	Yes
1979		
Greene	No	No
Jermier and Burkes	Partial	Yes
Schriesheim DeNisi	Yes	Yes
1980		
Griffin	Partial	Partial
1982		
Fulk and Wendler	Partial	Partial

*Not Tested

Several works are based on observations and individual experiences drawn from voluntary organizations which exhibited instrumental tendencies. Walker (1975) suggests that decision-making power in voluntary organizations is confined to a few individuals and that voluntary organizations tend to be highly bureaucratized with a resulting specialization and extreme division of labor. Stenzel and Feeney (1968) and Smith and Reddy (1971) observe that voluntary organizations tend to be subject to oligarchical control, with a core of members being involved more actively in leadership and participation than most other members. Major decisions and broad policies are determined by this leadership group, and their implementation is the responsibility of officers and directors of the organization. More structure begins to appear as the organizations become more centralized and bureaucratized. According to Smith and Reddy (1971), in a large voluntary organization;

> If you are trying to do something, lines of
> leadership have to be clear.....large voluntary
> organizations need to be formally structured
> just as do business and government if they are
> to be effective.

Some voluntary organizations may subject the volunteer to two or even three hierarchical chains ... a volunteer hierarchy, a staff hierarchy, and at times a hierarchy within the organization (hospital, nursing home, school) in which they perform their services (Walker, 1975).

Large voluntary organizations tend to be highly organ-

ized, bureaucratic, and have low levels of involvement from rank and file members (Warner and Hilander, 1964; Sills, 1957). This would be of specific interest in testing the Path-Goal Theory of leadership, since organizational factors such as formalization and task structure serve to moderate the relation between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction. Most statements concerning the structure of voluntary research are theoretical in nature. Empirical research is needed to better understand the structure of both instrumental and expressive voluntary organizations.

Leadership Research in Voluntary Organizations

There is very little research to be found on the subject of leadership in voluntary organizations. An extensive review of the literature revealed no major tests of any leadership theory in the voluntary sector. Several studies supplied information related to leaders or leadership in voluntary organizations.

In one study (Gatewood and Lahiff, 1977), leaders from voluntary and nonprofit organizations rated relationships with co-workers as more important to effective management than did leaders from profit sector organizations. In fact, leaders in voluntary organizations rated such relationships at a significantly higher level than did leaders of nonprofits. Gatewood and Lahiff suggest this is due to the voluntary leader being so dependent on volunteer manpower. According to them, this indicates that the leaders believe

that they must be more relations-oriented since they believe there are few tools available to influence worker behavior other than personal relations they established with volunteers. In a theoretical work, Lacour (1977) suggests that the managers in many volunteer programs are hesitant to exercise a great deal of control in their programs for fear of losing volunteers. Without the perceived power of money as a reward, the leader assumes volunteers will not stay in the organization except for social reasons. McGregor (1970) emphasized the need for workers feeling a sense of autonomy, since it is likely to result in greater productivity and increased job satisfaction. Leaders in voluntary organizations take this advice from the profit sector to mean that leaders should not exercise control over subordinate's activities, that the organization should be flat, and that co-worker contact should be emphasized in order to increase volunteer autonomy (LaCour, 1977). LaCour's contentions are in direct conflict with the statements of Walker (1975) and Smith and Reddy (1971) concerning the predominance of a bureaucratic structure in voluntary associations. This disagreement points out the inconsistency of information available on voluntary organization structure.

Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson, (1973) indicated that leaders representing the nonprofit sector were more dominant, flexible, and more concerned with status and personal relations. Leaders from profit organizations placed a greater value on factors such as economic wealth, security, and obe-

dience. If, as indicated by Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson, leaders from voluntary organizations are more relations oriented, it may be difficult to get them to use task oriented behaviors even if the situation may dictate such behaviors. One effective volunteer program, in fact, used the concept of co-leaders chosen on the basis of behavioral characteristics suggested by Fiedler (Lacour, 1977). One leader was chosen on the basis of his/her LPC score because of his/her people-oriented approach, the other for his/her task-oriented approach. The co-leader approach was used to achieve an optimum level of group functioning.

Overall, the implications from the theoretical and limited empirical research which exists, indicate that organizations and leaders who concentrate on relations, autonomy, participation, group activities, and shared control, have the most satisfied volunteers. Organizations and leadership styles which emphasize control, routinization, and instrumental leader behaviors are not as satisfying to volunteers since the organization and leaders have few extrinsic rewards to offer volunteers.

One study (Gidron, 1983) designed to examine factors that impact volunteers' levels of satisfaction in kibutzes provided limited, although statistically insignificant, support for a relationship between leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction. Instrumental leader behavior was positively related to volunteer satisfaction, while relations-oriented behavior was negatively correlated to satis-

faction.

The review of the organization structure and leadership literature related to voluntary associations revealed a good deal of conjecture on the part of many authors. Most simply stated their feelings or observations; few supplied any empirical evidence for their conclusions. There was little, if any, application of leadership theories from the profit sector. Only one study (Gidron, 1983) even remotely addressed the concept that leadership style influences volunteer satisfaction.

Summary

Leadership theories developed and tested in the for-profit sector were reviewed in this chapter. Specific attention was paid to the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership since the theory will be tested in a new setting; the voluntary nonprofit sector.

Literature concerning organizational structure and leadership styles used in voluntary nonprofit organizations was examined. This was done in an effort to understand the basis on which leaders of voluntary associations choose their leadership styles and the environmental charac-teristics facing them. The review also provided information which indicated that the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership may be an excellent framework for studying leadership behaviors and volunteer satisfaction in voluntary organizations, due to the high degree of support found for the leader

behavior/satisifaction with work relationship in for-profit investigations. In addition, the literature discussed in this chapter provided the foundation for the development of the hypotheses presented in Chapter III.

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54

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This research had multiple objectives related to deter-
mining the structural characteristics and the leadership
processes in voluntary organizations. Therefore, data
collection was divided into two major phases. The first
phase was devoted to gaining an empirically based descrip-
tion of organizational characteristics and effective leader
behaviors (as perceived by top administrators) in voluntary
organizations.

Information necessary to test the Path-Goal Theory of
Leadership in voluntary organizations was gathered during
the second phase of the survey. An additional objective of
Phase II was to provide information that would lead toward
the development of a contingency approach to leadership in
voluntary organizations.

Data Collection Method

Most of the research undertaken in leadership style is
based on gathering information from individuals and organi-
zations through survey techniques. Survey research is the
gathering of information from respondents for the purpose of
understanding and/or predicting some aspect of a

62

population's behavior (Tull and Hawkins, 1980). A survey method represented a logical data collection approach for this study, since the objectives of the research were related to understanding leader behavior, organizational characteristics, and their relationship to volunteer's satisfaction.

Three primary methods of survey research are personal interviews, telephone interviews, and mail questionnaires (Lehman, 1980). A number of criteria are relevant for judging which type of survey technique to use in any particular situation. According to Tull and Hawkins (1980: 117), these criteria are (1) complexity, (2) required amount of data, (3) desired accuracy, (4) sample control, (5) speed, (6) acceptable level of nonresponse, and (7) cost. The prohibitive cost of travel and the time required for personal interviews for a survey of the magnitude required rendered the technique unacceptable. The limitation on scope and scale complexity made telephone interviews inappropriate for this study. Instrument pretests, personalized cover letters, and follow-up letters were used to overcome the limitations associated with mail questionnaires. A standardized mail questionnaire was used during the first phase of data collection. Data collection during the second phase was accomplished through the use of self reported questionnaires completed on location by volunteers in organizations surveyed. The respondents returned the completed questionnaires to the researcher, who was on site,

or by mail. The two return techniques were required since several organizations studied held closed meetings or held formal meetings only once per year.

Hypotheses to be Tested

Several hypotheses were developed based on the review of existing literature concerning structural characteristics of voluntary organizations. These hypotheses dealt with the relationship of organizational orientation to structural properties and size to structure.

Orientation

Several individuals (Crittenden, 1982: 164; Walker, 1975; Jacoby and Babchuck, 1963) suggest that organizations which are high in instrumental orientation are likely to exhibit the structural characteristics of for-profit organizations. Specific hypotheses developed to test this contention were:

1) H_0: There is no relationship between structure and voluntary organization instrumental orientation. Instrumental orientation is not related to formalization, structure, and standardization.

    a). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to hierarchical control.

    b). Instrumental orientation is not related to job codification.

    c). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to level of formalization.

    d). Instrumental orientation is not related to levels of volunteer influence and participation.

e). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to the use of temporary problem solving groups or organizational structures.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between the structure of voluntary organizations and instrumental orientation.

a). Instrumental organizations have higher levels of hierarchical control.

b). Instrumental organizations have high levels of job codification.

c). Instrumental organizations have higher levels of formalization.

d). Instrumental organizations have lower levels of volunteer participation and influence.

e). Instrumental organizations use more permanent organizational structures.

Size

Smith and Reddy (1971), Stenzel and Feeney (1968), and Walker (1975) suggest that size is a critical factor which determines the structural characteristics of a voluntary organization. Based on their observations, the following hypotheses were developed:

2) H_o: There is no relationship between organization size and degree of formalization, structure, standardization, influence, and interaction.

a). Voluntary organization size is not related to hierarchical control.

b). Size of voluntary organizations is unrelated to levels of job codification.

c). Voluntary organizations size is unrelated to level of formalization.

      d). Voluntary organization size is not
         related to the level of volunteer
         participation and influence.

      e). Voluntary organizations size is not related
         to levels of volunteer interaction.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between
   size and voluntary organization structure.
   Larger organizations will be more formalized,
   structured, and have lower levels of volunteer
   interaction, influence, and participation.

      a). Larger organizations will have more
         hierarchical control.

      b). Larger organizations will have high levels of
         job codification.

      c). Larger organizations will have more
         formalization.

      d). Larger organizations will have lower levels
         of volunteer participation and influence.

      e). Larger organizations will have lower levels
         of volunteer interaction.

Leadership

The leadership hypotheses tested were based on a review
of the research related to the Path-Goal Theory and the
literature available on leadership in voluntary organiza-
tions. Katz (1980) suggests that individuals involved in
intrinsically motivating tasks will be more satisfied with
instrumental leader behavior than supportive leader beha-
vior. If one examines the definition of an instrumental
voluntary organization, it is possible to hypothesize that
many volunteers in the organization may be in an intrin-
sically satisfying situation. By definition, instrumental

organizations exist not to furnish activities for members,
primarily, but to serve as social influence organizations
designed to create some normative condition or change goal.
As such, volunteers theoretically will become involved in
order to bring about change or accomplish some change goal.
Any steps which are being made toward these goals should
result in satisfaction to the volunteer. Considerate leader
behaviors would not lead directly to accomplishment of the
goals. Therefore, considerate leader behaviors would have
little impact on the satisfaction of an intrinsically moti-
vated volunteer in an instrumental organization. Hypothesis
3 was developed to test that contention.

    3) H_0: There is no relationship between instrumental
           leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction
           with work when the volunteer is intrinsically
           motivated to perform volunteer tasks.

      H_a: There is a positive relationship between
           instrumental leader behavior and volunteer
           satisfaction with work when the volunteer is
           intrinsically motivated to perform volunteer
           tasks.

    Leaders of extrinsically motivated volunteers or
leaders in an expressive voluntary organization hypotheti-
cally would face a completely different situation.
Extrinsic motivation should be related to higher levels of
satisfaction with supportive behaviors moderated by the
impact of personal and environmental factors (House, 1971).
Expressive organizations exist for the primary purpose of
personal satisfaction and fellowship. One would hypothesize

that in expressive voluntary organizations, considerate leader behaviors generally would lead to higher levels of volunteer satisfaction. Satisfaction would occur due to the members' higher social and affiliation needs being satisfied immediately through the social interaction and concern of considerate leader behavior styles. Instrumental behavior would be viewed as an unnecessary imposition of control, since there may be no external goals that the members of expressive organizations are striving toward and very few internal goals of interest. General propositions of the Path Goal Theory and the literature review on expressive organizations served as the basis for Hypothesis 4.

4) H_o: Considerate or supportive leader behaviors are not related to levels of volunteer satisfaction in extrinsically motivated volunteers. Environmental and personal characteristics are unrelated to satisfaction with considerate leader behavior.

H_a: Extrinsically motivated volunteers will report higher levels of satisfaction with work when their leader emphasizes supportive behaviors. Environmental and personal characteristics moderate the relationship according to the Path-Goal theory.

Several authors (Pearce 1978, Walker 1975, Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson 1974) suggest that leaders of volunteers emphasize the use of supportive or considerate leader behaviors to the exclusion of all other behaviors. Leaders feel that volunteers will not accept direction and must be motivated through the use of social interaction. The final hypothesis related to leadership in voluntary associations

was developed from the general observations of voluntary
action scholars.

5) H_o: There is no particular style of leadership
emphasized by leaders of volunteers.

H_a: Supportive leader behaviors are engaged in
more frequently than instrumental leader
behaviors by leaders of volunteers.

Additional Research Questions

Information concerning the orientation of the voluntary
organization (instrumental or expressive), size of the or-
ganization in terms of membership and annual budget, the
structure of the organization as expressed by work rules and
procedures, the degree of centralization/decentralization of
decision-making, and the degree of professional involvement
in terms of staff and education levels was gathered during
Phase I. Additional information was obtained on the top
administrator's perception of the most commonly practiced
leader behaviors in his or her respective voluntary organi-
zation and the characteristics of the administrator.

Information gathered during Phase II concerned the
volunteer's satisfaction level, leader behaviors of the
volunteer's superior, task or role structure facing the
volunteer, task related organizational characteristics, and
the personal characteristics of the volunteer.

Independent variables included in this study were based
on the variables included in the Path-Goal Theory model
(refer to Chapter II, pages 34-45). Leader behavior was

categorized as instrumental (broken into role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment) or supportive for the purposes of this study. Task or role of the volunteer was examined on the basis of variety, autonomy, task identity, dealing with others, friendship opportunities, feedback, conflict, and ambiguity. The personal characteristics of the volunteers examined included growth need level, authoritarianism, locus of control, perceived ability relative to the task, and various demographic characteristics.

Research Instruments

The instruments used were based primarily on those previously developed and used in for-profit organizations. The instruments were modified where necessary to make the terminology appropriate for research in voluntary associations. This section outlines the instruments. A disscussion of the items utilized to calculate respective construct values for each instrument is provided in the results section (Chapters IV and V).

Phase I Instrument

The questionnaire used in Phase I is found in Appendix A. The instrument was designed to gather information on the orientation, structural characteristics, effective leader behaviors, and general characteristics of the organization.

Instrumental/Expressive orientation. Section 1.1 of the questionnaire was intended to provide the data needed in

order to classify the organization along an expressive/ instrumental continuum. The six questions in Section 1.1 are based on the questions from an instrument developed by Jacoby and Babchuck (1963). The instrument measures the degree to which a voluntary organization is expressive or instrumental in orientation. Jacoby and Babchuck (1963) indicated that the instrument provides a valid measure of the instrumental/expressive factor, when a volunteer or staff member predicts why others join the volunteer organization as well as when used as a self-report.

Instrumental/expressive orientation was measured on the basis of control, ends or means to ends, and short or long term activities of the organization. Table 2 contains the items used to measure each dimension.

Structural characteristics. Section 1.2 of the questionnaire was designed to gather data on the structure of the organization. Twenty two questions were asked in order to obtain information about the leader's perception of the organizational emphasis on group decision making, participation by volunteers, social interaction, hierarchical control, and formalization. Items making up the hypothesized organizational constructs are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 2

ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTION

Hypothesized Construct (Variable)	Item #	Item
Instrumental (Long Term Gratification)	2	Volunteer's chief satisfaction from participating in the activities of this organization comes not as much when they do these things as later when they see worthwhile and desirable results accomplished.
(Change of Individuals)	4	Some of the activities of this group are directed toward modifying, controlling, or changing in some way, the actions of persons outside of the organization.
(Means to an End)	6	The reason why volunteers participate in the activities of this group is that the group seeks to bring about goals which they consider to be desirable. Volunteers participate in this organization because it attempts to accomplish purposes for which they stand.
Expressive (Immediate Gratification)	1	Taking part in the activities of the organization is fun itself. Volunteers get a big kick out of doing these things.
(Non-Change Oriented)	3	The group is organized primarily to promote activities for members and others interested in these activities. The group in not concerned with changing or controlling activities of others.
(End in Itself)	5	The activities of the group in which volunteers take part are valuable in and for themselves. Volunteers do these things just for the sake of doing them. They do not expect to achieve any other purpose.

TABLE 3

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
HYPOTHESIZED FACTORS AND ASSOCIATED VARIABLES

Hypothesized Construct (Variable)	Item #	Item
Formalization	12	For many decisions the rules and regulations are developed as we go along. (reverse scored)
	18	The same rules and regulations are always followed in making most types of decisions.
	25	There are rules and regulations for handling any kind of problem which may arise in making most decisions.
Hierarchy	10	If someone feels she/he has the right approach to carrying out their job he/she can usually go ahead without checking with their superior. (reverse scored)
	13	It is always necessary to go through channels.
	14	Volunteers in this organization always get orders from their superiors on important matters.
	21	Volunteers have to check with their superiors before doing almost anything on important matters.
Adhocracy	11	People from different areas are often put together in a special group in order to solve important problems.
	17	For special problems we usually set up a temporary task force until we meet our objectives.
	22	We have special groups for handling problems between different departments on important matters.
	28	In handling important matters between departments we usually use a liason group to work things out.

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Hypothesized Construct (Variable)	Item #	Item
Participation and Influence	7	Volunteers are encouraged to make suggestions when decisions are made.
	8	Volunteers in this organization are not likely to express their feelings openly on important matters. (reverse scored)
	9	Volunteers in this organization are encouraged to speak their minds on important matters, even if it means disagreeing with their superiors.
	19	Superiors in this organization usually make the decisions themselves. (reverse scored)
	20	In this organization most people do not share any influences with their superiors in making decisions. (reverse scored)
	23	In this organization most volunteers do not have any voice in decision making. (reverse scored)
	24	Superiors often seek advice from their subordinates before making decisions.
	27	Subordinates do not play an active role in decision making. (reverse scored)
Social Interaction in Decision Making.	15	Talking with other people about the problems someone might have in making decisions is an important part of the process of decision making.
	16	Getting along with other people is an important part of the decision making process.
	26	Different individuals play important parts in making decisions.

Section 1.3 contained five questions designed to measure job codification in the organization. Job codification is a measure of the use of rules to define what the occupants of a position are to do. Therefore, the questions were used to measure work standardization. Items were based on questions used by Hage and Aiken (1967) to measure job codification.

Leader behaviors perr   'ed by administrators. Section 2.0 of the questionnair'   developed to measure the leader behaviors that the to   administrator perceived to be the most frequently used in the organization. Eight questions measured considerate or supportive leader behaviors; six additional items measured instrumental leader behaviors. These questions were based on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (Stogdill, 1965) and an instrument developed by Chung and Megginson (1981) as a self-style report. This modified version of the LBDQ-XII was utilized rather than Schreisheim's instrument (Phase II instrument) due to the shorter length and the fact that leadership results from this phase were not going to be used for testing of the Path-Goal Theory. Administrators were asked to indicate how often the leaders in their organiza-tion should engage in specified leader behaviors to be effective. This section provided a rough measure of the degree to which leaders in voluntary organizations were encouraged to engage in supportive and/or instrumental leader behaviors. This portion of the instrument was not

intended to measure the behaviors of specific leaders in the organization. Rather, it was intended to provide an estimate of the leader behaviors emphasized by those individuals directing leaders in voluntary associations.

General characteristics. Section 3.1 of the questionnaire contained nine questions intended to gather general data on the voluntary organization (e.g. classification, size, affiliation, number of paid professional staff members, etc). This data provided information that was compared with previous results from a similar sample frame (Crittenden, 1982) and aided in categorizing the organization in terms of size, structure, and membership involvement.

Section 3.2 of the questionnaire was designed to gather demographic data on the top administrator. These data gathered was used to further develop and categorize the information obtained from earlier sections as well as for comparison with previous research results.

Phase I Pre-Test

The instrument was mailed for pretesting to sixteen randomly selected voluntary organizations. A personalized cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire, the questionnaire, and a postage paid envelope were included for each organization. The cover letter was printed on the letterhead of the Governor's Office on Volunteerism and was personalized for each administrator on the list. The per-

sonalization was undertaken in a effort to increase the total response rate. The initial mailing resulted in the return of two questionnaires as undeliverable and four useable responses. A follow-up mailing to all non-respondents was undertaken approximately three weeks later. The follow up resulted in two additional useable responses and two more unuseable responses (a total of 6 of 16 useable).

The useable response rate of approximately 43 percent, as well as the general comments and interest levels of the administrators, indicated that the questionnaire was in the appropriate format and of reasonable length. No major changes in the instrument and procedure were deemed necessary due to the favorable results of the pretest.

The six responding organizations were contacted and asked randomly selected questions in an effort to test the reliability of the measures used. The results indicated that responses tended to remain stable over time. The overall pretest resulted in minor changes in the wording of the questionnaire and no changes in the administration procedure.

Phase II Instrument

The research instrument for Phase II data collection can be found in Appendix B. This instrument was designed to gather data on the personal characteristics, task or role structure, group relations, role conflict and ambiguity, and leader behaviors in selected voluntary organizations.

Leader behavior. Section 1.1 contained fifty-one questions based on an instrument developed by Schriesheim (1979) to measure instrumental and supportive leader behaviors. This validated set of leader behavior scales measures the constructs of the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership much better than measures used in previous tests (House, 1980). The instrument measured supportive behavior as a universal construct while measuring instrumental behavior in three areas: role clarification; specification of procedures; and assignment of work.

Volunteer satisfaction. Section 1.2 contained questions designed to measure a volunteer's level of satisfaction in several areas: Satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with co-workers were measured by use of the respective scales from the Job Descriptive Index developed and validated by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1975). Nine additional questions were developed by the researcher to further measure intrinsic satisfaction. These items were based on several existing instruments, however, significant wording changes were necessary to render the items appropriate for volunteer tasks.

Environmental characteristics. Section 2.1 contained questions that provided information concerning the task dimension volunteers face in their work or role. The task dimensions were measured by the use of the Job Characteristics Inventory developed by Sims, Szilagyi, and

Keller (1975). The instrument measured six dimensions of job characteristics: variety, autonomy, task identity, dealing with others, friendship opportunities, and feedback.

The questions in Section 2.2 measured role conflict and ambiguity using an instrument developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirztman (1973). The questions supplied information concerning the amount of perceived conflict and ambiguity the subordinate feels in his/her task or role.

Section 2.3 contained questions concerning the work group of the subordinate. These questions provided information concerning cohesiveness and interpersonal relations within the group (Feidler, 1967).

Personal characteristics. The final section of the instrument collected information on the personal characteristics of the volunteers. The questions in Section 3.1 measured the individual volunteer's level of authoritarianism. The questions utilized were taken from the California F-Scale developed by Adorno, Freskel=Brunswick, Levinson, and Sanford (1950). Section 3.2 measures the individual's Locus of Control. The questions used were based on the Locus of Control instrument developed by Rotter (1966). Information relating to the individual's motivation level was obtained from the questions found in Section 3.3. The questions were based on the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 1977) and the Motivation

Feedback Opinionnaire (Jones and Pfeiffer, 1973). The questions in Section 3.4 measured the subordinate's perception of his/her task-related abilities in comparison to the superior's task-related abilities. Demographic data were obtained from the items in the final section of the instrument.

Phase II Pre-Test

The pretest of the questionnaire used in Phase two was of particular importance due to the length of the instrument. The first method of attempting to reduce fatigue bias was to randomize the order of the major sections of the instrument. The demographic section was included at the end of all formats. Three different formats were developed for the instrument and the format was assigned randomly to the respondent.

The pretest of the instrument was conducted at a regular meeting of a single voluntary organization. Nine members of the group participated in the administration. The researcher gave the participants an oral sketch of the purpose of the research as well as verbal instructions. The questionnaires were then distributed. The leader of the group left the room during administration and returned upon completion to conduct regularly scheduled business. The researcher remained in the room during the administration period in order to answer any questions. No subjects asked for any clarification of the instructions during the

pretest; completion time ranged from 18 to 32 minutes. General comments concerning the questionnaire and administration procedure were encouraged after the completion of all questionnaires. All questionnaires from the pretest were useable. Favorable results of the pretest suggested minor revisions in the questionnaire and procedure used in administration of the instrument.

Sampling Process and Sample
Selection Procedure

The population for Phase I consisted of all top administrators of active voluntary organizations in the state of Arkansas during the calender year 1982. The sampling frame for the survey was a list of voluntary organizations in Arkansas as collected by the Governor's Office on Volunteerism (GOV). The list contained the addresses of over 1,300 voluntary organizations in the State. The sampling unit was the voluntary organization as represented by its address on the GOV mailing list. The list, arranged on the basis of congressional district, contained the mailing address of the top administrator and the organization's name. The list did not contain telephone numbers or indication of organizational type, effectively precluding the use of telephone contact prior to the mailing of the questionnaire or the use of a stratified sampling procedure.

The sample selection method used in Phase I was systematic sampling. Systematic sampling involves selecting a

random starting point between one and k (the number repre-
senting the sample proportion) and then sampling every k-th
unit in the frame (Lehman, 1979). The technique is
appropriate for drawing samples from long lists of names or
addresses (Kinnear and Taylor, 1978).

A previous study dealing with voluntary organizations in
Arkansas which used a similar sampling procedure was based
on a sample size of 600 and resulted in a final response
rate of slightly over 50 percent (Crittenden, 1982). With
results from the previous research in mind, a sample of 450
addresses was selected from the sampling frame. This
sample size was chosen based upon three factors: (1) the
response scale, (2) the confidence interval, and (3) the
accuracy level desired. A formula [sample size =
$(\text{range}/2)^2/(\text{accuracy level}/\text{confidence level})^2$] that con-
sidered the above factors (see Elliot, 1980: 11), indicated
a sample sufficient to generate 107 useable responses was
needed. The confidence interval chosen for use in the for-
mula was .01 and the accuracy level was plus or minus one-
half point on the five point item response scales used in
the instruments.

The results of the questionnaire pre-test together with
Crittenden's (1982) experiences indicated that from fifteen
to twenty-five percent of the organizations on the mailing
list had outdated addresses. Reaching eighty percent of the
450 organizations would result in 360 potential respondents.
A thirty percent response rate would result in 108 useable

responses, meeting the required responses for the level of
confidence chosen for the instrument scale. In addition,
the number of responses would be large enough for the use of
factor analysis of groups of variables of 25 or less (Hair,
et al, 1979) as was required for that section of the
questionnaire dealing with organizational structure.
Therefore, a sample of 450 addresses was deemed to be suf-
ficient.

The population for Phase II consisted of leaders and
volunteers in organizations that responded to the survey in
Phase I. The sampling frame was a self-generated listing of
all addresses of voluntary organizations whose administra-
tors responded. The sampling unit in Phase II was each
responding organization from Phase I.

The sample selection procedure for Phase II was a stra-
tified multi-stage sample. Initially, organizations were
categorized along the instrumental/expressive continuum.
The organizations then were categorized by size. Ten organ-
izations were chosen for in-depth study of the Path-Goal
Theory of leadership. These organizations were selected on
the basis of central location or proximity to other organi-
zations in the sample, organizational orientation (either
instrumental or instrumental/expressive), sufficient size to
generate a significant number of respondents, and the
availability of a large portion of the volunteer membership
for questionnaire administration. The organizations that
were subjected to in-depth study were not selected randomly.

Non-random sampling and in-depth study is the procedure used in most Path-Goal leadership studies (see Schriescheim, 1978; House and Baetz, 1979, Schriescheim and Von Glinow, 1977).

Data Analysis Procedure

Analysis of the results of this study are reported in Chapters IV and V. Chapter IV reports the results of the Phase I data collection process. Chapter V contains an analysis of the results of Phase II and the tests of the hypotheses related to the Path-Goal Theory of leadership.

General Analysis Procedures

The initial step in the analysis of both chapters generated descriptive results. Frequency counts and univariate statistics obtained for each of the variables in the questionnaires provided a descriptive overview of organizational characteristics, individual characteristics, volunteer satisfaction levels, and leader behaviors found in voluntary associations.

Factor analysis was performed on the selected segments of the instruments used in Phase I (Organizational Orientation; Organizational Structure) and Phase II (Intrinsic Satisfaction; Locus of Control; Growth Need level; etc.). The basic purpose of using factor analysis was to condense information from a large number of variables into a more manageable set of dimensions. Factor analysis accomplishes this while minimizing the loss of information

(Kim and Mueller, 1978). Several choices were made when deciding which factor analysis procedures were appropriate for this research. First, a decision was made to use principle component analysis. Principle component analysis should be used when an objective is to summarize most of the original information in a minimum number of factors that will then be used for prediction purposes (Jackson, 1983: 111). Such was the case in the present study.

The second issue revolved around determination of which rotation technique would be used in the analysis. The two methods of rotation available were oblique and orthogonal. An orthogonal rotation procedure should always be selected when an objective is to utilize the factor results in some kind of subsequent statistical analysis (Hair et al, 1981: 229) as in this instance. Therefore, the orthogonal rotation procedure was chosen for use in this investigation.

The third decision concerned the determination of the number of factors to be retained. Although several methods may be used to retain factors (e.g. latent root criterion, a priori criterion, percentage of variance criterion, or the scree test), the scree test was chosen for this study. The scree test determines the number of factors to retain by examining the graph of eigenvalues. The point of inflection to an approximately straight line is considered the maximum number of factors to extract (Kim and Mueller, 1978: 44). Various authors (see Tucker, Cooper and Linn, 1969) suggest that the scree test is superior to other methods when only

major factors are of interest as in this instance.

Another concern in the use of factor analysis was the determination of which factor loadings should be considered significant. This study used a conservative figure of $\pm$ .5 or greater in determining if a factor loaded. The figure was chosen, since the factor would explain 25 percent or more of the variance in the variable, thereby reducing the probability of a random loading. Complex variables, variables with loadings within .15 of each other, (Pennell, 1968; Horn and Knapp, 1974) were de-emphasized in the interpretation of the factors.

The final consideration was the development of a factor-based scale for subsequent analysis. A factor-based scale was built by summing all variables with substantial loadings and ignoring the remaining variables with minor loadings (Kim and Mueller, 1978: 70). These factor-based scales were appropriate as input for various statistical analysis techniques used in later research. Scales were developed by summing the variables that had a factor loading of .5 or greater on the factor. No weighting was used since most loadings were between .5 and .85. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each scale as a check on the internal reliability of the factor-based scales developed by the procedure and used in the study. Coefficient alpha is the most commonly accepted formula for assessing the reliability of a measurement scale with multi-point items (Peter, 1979: 9).

Analysis Procedure Specific
to Phase II

Several analysis techniques were utilized during the second phase of data analysis. Hypothesis five was tested through the use of a paired comparison t-test (Barr, et al; 1982) for dependent samples. The method is appropriate for distinguishing between characteristics drawn from two dependent samples (Chao, 1980). The approach provided information indicating which leader behavior, instrumental or supportive, was emphasized by leaders of volunteers.

The initial analysis of the data collected to test hypotheses four and five was accomplished through the use of an unbalanced analysis of variance model (General Linear Models, (GLM), Barr, et al.; 1982) due to the unequal cell sizes. The procedure is basically a multiple regression model using categorical independent measures (Kerlinger, 1973). The unbalanced analysis of variance (ANOVA) model allowed the multiple leader behaviors and intrinsic motivation strength to be analyzed simultaneously. This provided information on the main effects and interaction effects of each type of behavior and motivation strength necessary to test hypothesis 3.

The unbalanced model utilized a 3X3X3X3X3 sub-partition. Scores form each leader behavior and intrinsic motivation strength were split at the median. Scores above the median were categorized as high; scores below were low; and scores equal to the median were placed in the medium category.

Kerlinger (1973) indicates that partitioning a continuous variable may create difficulties; however, he suggests that such an approach is acceptable if the research involves exploration in a new field or problem and when the measurement of a variable is at best rough as is the case here.

Discriminant analysis was chosen for interpretation of the relationships between situational variables, leader behaviors, and volunteer satisfaction with work. The method was appropriate since a decision was made to categorize the dependent variable, satisfaction with work (satisfied, moderately satisfied, or very satisfied), and the independent variables were metric. The decision to categorize a "continuous" variable (satisfaction) was made due to several factors. First, none of the measures utilized in this study had been validated in voluntary organizations. Therefore, it is questionable to assume that the instruments are totally accurate. Categorization eliminates some of the accuracy problems. Second, the nature of this research is exploratory. As Kerlinger (1973) points out, categorizing a continuous variable in exploratory research is acceptable, particularly if the instruments utilized are not validated. Finally, and most importantly, a major purpose of this research was to determine which factors were significantly related to volunteer satisfaction with work and develop from that information a profile of volunteers who were very satisfied with volunteer work. That profile could, in turn, be utilized by voluntary associations to restructure

volunteer tasks and develop leaders who exhibit satisfying behaviors. Discriminant analysis allows the development of such a profile.

The technique involved deriving the linear combination of independent variables that discriminated best between a priori defined groups. The a priori groups for this study were volunteers who had high satisfaction scores versus those who had low satisfaction scores based on a polar extremes split. Volunteers who scored in the first quartile were considered satisfied, those in the upper quartile were categorized as very satisified. Volunteers in between were considered moderately satisfied. This polar extremes approach was used because differences not as prominant as in an at the mean categorization will be revealed (Green and Tull; 1975).

The independent variables chosen for analysis consisted of personal characteristics (locus of control, authoritarianism, growth need level, and perceived ability), task characteristics (role ambiguity, role conflict, and the six JCI dimensions), and leader behaviors (support, role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment). These variables were chosen since they represented the major variables in the Path-Goal theory of leadership.

The derivation of a discriminant function was based on the assumptions of multivariate normality of the distributions and unknown, but equal, dispersion and covariance structures for the groups. One must also assume equal costs

of misclassification, equal *a priori* group probabilities,
and known dispersion and covariation structures when classi-
fication accuracies are developed (Hair, et al, 1980). The
data used in this study does not meet all of these require-
ments. However, there is evidence that discriminant analy-
sis is not sensitive to violations of these assumptions
(Harris, 1975).

Discriminant analysis is useful when one or more of the
following objectives are important (Green and Tull, 1975):

(1) Determining if statistically significant
differences exist between the average
score profiles of the two *a priori* defined
groups

(2) Establishing procedures for classifying
statistical units into groups on the basis
of their scores on several variables

(3) Determining which of the independent variables
account most for the differences in the average
score profiles of the two or more groups

The first and third objectives were particularly rele-
vant to this study since major objectives were to determine
the impact of leader behaviors in combination with organiza-
tional and personal characteristics on volunteer satisfac-
tion levels and the importance of each variable on volunteer
satisfaction. Discriminant analysis was chosen as the pri-
mary data analysis technique for three reasons: (1) the
dependent variable was categorized, (2) the test is robust,
and (3) the output provides the information necessary to
develop a profile of the volunteers constituting satisfied,

moderately satisfied, and very satisfied groups. In addition, it provides information which can be utilized to interpret relationships posited in the Path-Goal Theory.

The first step in the process of developing the final discriminant model was to use stepwise discriminant analysis (Barr, et al; 1982) to evaluate the relative importance of each of the seventeen independent variables in determining volunteer satisfaction with work. The stepwise approach began by choosing the single best discriminating variable. The initial variable was then paired with all other variables one at a time and a second variable was entered. The second variable was the one which was best able, in conjunction with the first, to improve the discriminating power of the function. The process was followed until no other significant variables could be found or all independent variables were entered (see Barr, et al; 1982). The stepwise method was useful since there were a large number of independent variables to be included in the function derivation process (Hair, et al; 1979). Variables not useful in discriminating between the groups were eliminated and a reduced set of independent variables was identified.

The partial F-ratio significance level was employed to judge the significance of the discrimination provided by adding additional independent variables to the model. The specified significance level for entry was p=.10 That level was chosen to provide the model that supplied the best discrimination that could be reliably estimated given the

sample size (Constanza and Afifi, 1979).

The independent variables which met the significance level requirements were entered into a discriminant model using the DISCRIM procedure from SAS (Barr, et al; 1982). The predictive accuracy of the function was tested by deriving the function based on the total sample, and then using the function to classify the individuals in the sample. The process utilized results in an upward bias in the predictive accuracy of the function (Frank, Massey, and Morrison; 1965). However, when the sample size is around one-hundred, the above method is appropriate (Hair, et al; 1979).

Standardized discriminant coefficients developed from the validated function provided information on the degree to which each independent variable contributed to the discriminating power of the function. The absolute value indicated the amount contributed to the model and the sign indicated the direction of the contribution. This provided the information necessary to understand the relationships between leader behavior, situational variables, and satisfaction with volunteer work. In addition, a profile of satisfied versus very satisfied volunteers could be developed by examining the mean scores of the independent variables for each group.

Summary

Chapter III has provided an overview of the data collection procedures used in Phase I and Phase II of the research. Questionnaires used to collect the data were described in detail. Justifications for the types of analysis used were enumerated and various decisions specific to the analytical tools were discussed. A rationale for each decision related to the use of factor analysis and discriminant analysis was provided.

Hypotheses of interest in the study were enumerated. The hypotheses were based upon a review of existing literature on organizational structure, leadership in voluntary organizations, and the Path-Goal Theory of leadership presented in Chapter II. Hypotheses which were examined included the relationship between orientation and structural characteristics, size and structure, the dependence on relations oriented leader behavior, and the impact of intrinsic motivation, personal characteristics, and environment on volunteer satisfaction.

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94

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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO
ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTION

Chapter IV contains a descriptive analysis of the
characteristics of the associations whose representatives
responded to the Phase I questionnaire. A major portion of
this chapter is devoted to examining the relationships which
existed between structural characteristics in the organiza-
tions and the instrumental or expressive orientation present
in each.

The first section of the chapter presents descriptive
statistics related to general characteristics of the respon-
dents and the organizations they represented. These fin-
dings are compared with results from a study involving
similar organizations (Crittenden, 1982). The comparison of
demographic data was helpful in determining if this study
was drawn from a population with similar characteristics.

The second part of the chapter addresses the development
of factors and factor-based scales designed to measure
structural characteristics and instrumental/expressive
orientation in the organizations. Six factors representing
organizational structure were developed; three factors were
used to determine the instrumental/expressive orientation.

98

Finally, factor-based scores were calculated for each organization on each structural factor. The Pearson product moment correlation was calculated for each structural component relative to both orientation and size. The basic hypotheses tested were:

1) H_o: There is no relationship between structure and voluntary organization instrumental orientation. Instrumental orientation is not related to formalization, structure, and standardization.

    a). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to hierarchical control.

    b). Instrumental orientation is not related to job codification.

    c). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to level of formalization.

    d). Instrumental orientation is not related to levels of volunteer influence and participation.

    e). Instrumental orientation is unrelated to the use of temporary problem solving groups or organizational structures.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between the structure of voluntary organizations and instrumental orientation.

    a) Instrumental organizations have higher levels of hierarchical control.

    b) Instrumental organizations have high levels of job codification.

    c) Instrumental organizations are more formalized.

    d) Instrumental organizations have lower levels of volunteer participation and influence.

    e) Instrumental organizations use more permanent organizational structures.

2) H_0: There is no relationship between organization
size and degree of formalization, structure,
standardization, influence, and interaction.

   a). Voluntary organization size is not
   related to hierarchical control.

   b). Size of voluntary organizations is
   unrelated to levels of job codification.

   c). Voluntary organizations size is unrelated
   to level of formalization.

   d). Voluntary organization size is not
   related to the level of volunteer
   participation and influence.

   e). Voluntary organizations size is not related
   to levels of volunteer interaction.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between
size and voluntary organization structure.
Larger organizations will be more formalized,
structured, and have lower levels of volunteer
interaction, influence, and participation.

   a) Larger organizations will have more hierarchi-
   cal control.

   b) Larger organizations will have high levels of
   job codification.

   c) Larger organizations will have more for-
   malization.

   d) Larger organizations will have lower levels
   of volunteer participation and influence.

   e) Larger organizations will have lower levels
   of volunteer interaction.

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were
utilized to determine statistically significant rela-
tionships for each pair of constructs.

Data Collection and Respondent
Characteristics

The instrument (see appendix A) used in Phase I was mailed to each of the 450 organizations selected for the sample. Sixty-four instruments failed to reach the appropriate individual representing the organization, thereby reducing the sample size to 384 organizations. This was attributed to mailing list weaknesses (see Chapter III). The initial mailing resulted in ninety-six useable replies. A second mailing to all non-respondents followed approximately three weeks later. Sixty-three useable responses were generated by the second mailing. One hundred fifty-nine useable responses resulted from the two mailings, yielding a useable response rate (based on 384 organizations) of slightly over 41 percent. Although slightly lower than the response rate from a study of the same population (Crittenden, 1982), the rate was considered acceptable for the purposes of this analysis.

Nineteen unusable responses also were received. Unusable responses consisted of incomplete or inconsistent questionnaires from individuals who either did not believe the questionnaire was appropriate for their organization or who indicated that the group no longer existed.

Characteristics of the Responding Administrators

A majority of the responding administrators were female (58%) and over sixty-eight percent received no salary for their work in the organization. Just over nine percent of the respondents were less than thirty years of age and approximately twelve percent were sixty-five years of age or older. Fifty-three percent of the administrators were college educated. In summary, the persons who responded were between thirty and sixty-five years of age, more well-educated, volunteered their services to the organization, and were more likely to be female than male.

Titles of the respondents indicated that the question-naire was filled out in most instances by a leader in the organization. Over forty-two percent of the respondents were either the president or the director. Other indivi-duals who returned the instrument included past director or president, vice-president, treasurer, membership chairper-son, etc. The responses from other officers and past presi-dents also were valuable, particularly if the current administrator did not have the time or information necessary to adequately respond. Therefore, all responses from a representative of the organization were included in the ana-lysis. Table 4 presents the demographic information of the individuals who responded.

TABLE 4

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Salary	Frequency[*]	Percent
No salary	103	68.21
Less than 1,000	1	.66
1,000 – 7,000	6	3.97
8,000 – 14,999	12	7.95
15,00 – 21,999	9	5.96
22,000 or greater	20	13.25

Gender		
Male	62	42.76
Female	83	57.24

Age		
Less than 30	13	9.03
30 – 39	35	24.30
40 – 49	28	19.44
50 – 59	31	21.53
60 – 69	26	18.06
70 or over	11	7.64

[*] frequencies do not total to the number of persons in the sample due to missing values.

TABLE 4 (continued)

Title	Frequency[*]	Percent
President	22	25.63
Director	38	42.33
Chairman	8	8.66
Past President	22	25.63
Vice President	8	8.66
Other Officer	18	17.66
Advisor, Sponsor, Leader	5	5.69
Member	5	5.69
Other	10	9.88

Education		
Did not graduate from high school	4	2.63
High School graduate	18	11.84
Attended some college	35	23.03
Technical school, junior college graduate	13	8.55
College graduate	32	21.05
Attended graduate school	18	11.84
Masters degree	25	16.45
Doctoral degree	7	4.61

[*] frequencies do not total to the number in the sample due to missing values.

An overall evaluation of the demographic profile of the administrators indicated that the characteristics of the respondents in this sample were similar to the characteristics of the individuals in the Crittenden (1982) study of the same population.

General Characteristics of the Organizations

The primary purpose of each organization as well as the percentage of the sample that reported the same purpose is shown in Table 5. Most organizations were involved in health, social welfare, and community development. Only eleven respondents reported that the primary purpose of the organization was social interaction.

General characteristics of the organizations in terms of size of the budget, numbers of volunteers, and paid staff are depicted in Table 6. Over fifty-six percent of the organizations had budgets of less than $10,000 and fewer than fifty volunteers. Over two-thirds of the organizations had four or fewer paid staff members. Table 7 presents the number of committees and board meetings in the voluntary associations. Eighty four organizations had nine or more board meetings and most (111) have more than three standing committees. One-third have nine or more standing committees in their organizations.

TABLE 5

ORGANIZATIONAL PURPOSE AND AFFILIATION

Function	Frequency	Percent
Health	23	14.65
Community Arts	7	4.46
Social Welfare	17	10.83
Vocational Guidance	5	3.18
Community Development	21	13.38
Social Interaction	11	7.01
Youth Development	6	3.97
Multiple Functions[a]	26	16.56
Education	11	7.01
Other[b]	30	19.11
Affiliation[c]		
Not affiliated	41	26.62
County/District	51	45.13
State	53	46.90
Regional	20	17.70
National	60	53.10

[a] Includes organizations such as the United Way which have several primary functions.

[b] Includes organizations such as the American Legion, Masons, Garden Clubs, Business and Professional Women, and Delta Kappa Gamma.

[c] Totals do not add to 100 percent since some organizations have multiple affiliations.

TABLE 6

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ORGANIZATION

Budget	Frequency*	Percent
Less than $10,000	80	56.34
$10,000 - $49,999	29	20.42
$50,000 - $99,999	11	7.04
$100,000 - $149,000	6	4.23
$150,000 - $199,000	5	3.52
$200,000 - $249,000	4	2.82
$250,000 or more	8	5.63
Volunteer Staff		
Less than 15	31	19.75
15 - 49	61	38.22
50 - 99	29	18.47
100 - 199	21	13.38
200 - 299	3	1.91
300 or greater	13	8.28
Paid Staff		
None	76	48.72
1 - 4	31	19.36
5 - 9	6	3.87
10 - 14	5	3.23
15 - 19	3	1.94
20 or more	10	6.45

* frequencies do not equal the number of organizations responding due to missing responses.

TABLE 7

COMMITTEE UTILIZATION AND BOARD MEETINGS

Standing Committees	Frequency*	Percent
0 – 3	32	22.48
4 – 8	66	46.88
9 or more	45	33.33
Board Meetings		
0 – 3	32	20.87
4 – 8	33	21.13
9 – 12	84	59.00

*   frequencies do not equal the number of organizations responding due to missing responses.

Factor Analysis of Organizational
    Characteristics

Factor analysis was used to reduce the twenty two items in Section 1.2 of the Phase I questionnaire into a set of underlying factors related to the structural characteristics perceived by the respondents.

The principal components factor analysis procedure of the Statistical Analysis System (Barr, et al; 1983) was used to derive the factors. Data were subjected to an orthogonal rotation procedure (varimax). The results of the rotation were used for the development of factor-based scales.

The factor analysis procedure extracted six significant factors based on the scree plot criteria. Five structural factors had been hypothesized (see Table 2, Chapter III). One of the hypothesized factors (Volunteer Participation and Influence) separated into two distinct factors during factor analysis. Table 5 compares the hypothesized factors with those resulting from the factor analysis. The similarity of variables predicted to load on the factors and the overall number of factors provided support for the construct validity of the instrument. Kerlinger (1973) indicates that factor analysis used in this manner may be one of the strongest tools to use in construct validation. Random construct building through the use of factor analysis is reduced by using the method followed in this study.

The factors were extracted in order of the amount of overall variance explained. The first factor extracted explained the greatest amount of variance, the second a smaller amount, and so forth. The six factors identified explained approximately fifty seven percent of the overall variation of the data. Each factor represented an organizational construct which was utilized for further analysis. Values for each construct were derived by summing the reponses to items included in the reported factors.

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the items making up each factor. This was done to assess the reliability of the six constructs. Alpha measures for the constructs ranged

from .55 to .67. Nunnally (1967: 226) suggests that in the early stages of research, modest reliability in the range of .5 to .6 will suffice. Based on Nunnally's guidelines, the reliability measures of these constructs were acceptable.

TABLE 8

STRUCTURAL FACTORS HYPOTHESIZED
AND EXTRACTED

Hypothesized Factor Name	Extracted Factor Name
Volunteer Influence and Participation	Volunteer Influence
	Volunteer Input
Social Interaction in Decision Making	Interaction in Decision Making
Adhocracy	Adhocracy
Hierarchy	Hierarchical Control
Formalization	Informality of the Oligarchy

Table 9 presents the six organizational constructs extracted by the factor analysis procedure. Included in the table is the name of the factor, the orthogonal loading of each factor on each significant variable, and Cronbach's alpha for each construct. The factors are presented in order of importance from most significant to least signifi-cant.

Volunteer input. The first factor extracted accounted for 19.5 percent of the overall variation; Cronbach's alpha was at the .67 level. The four variables which made up this factor (items 7,9,23,27) relate to the degree that volunteers in the organization were encouraged to make suggestions and speak their minds when decisions are made. There was a positive relationship between the degree to which "suggestions were encouraged" and "volunteers saying what was on their mind" and a negative relationship between both of these variables and the volunteer "not having a voice" or "playing a role" in the decision making process.

This factor did not indicate whether volunteer input influenced the decisions. Volunteer input indicated if the superiors sought input from the volunteers prior to making decisions.

Adhocracy. The second factor extracted explained 12.25 percent of the overall variation of the data. Adhocracy indicated the degree to which an organization used a fluid approach to organization, set up groups when a problem existed and developed few rules until they were necessary. Four variables had significant loadings. The variables (28,25,22,17) indicated the degree to which the organization used temporary structures to handle internal problems and developed methods of solving problems on an ad hoc basis. Cronbach's alpha was .59.

TABLE 9

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Volunteer Input	7	Volunteers are encouraged to make suggestions when decisions are made.	.72834	.69
	9	Volunteers in this organization are encouraged to speak their minds on important matters, even if it means disagreeing with their superiors.	.72689	
	23*	In this organization most volunteers do not have any voice in decision making.	-.64981	
	27*	Volunteers do not play an active role in decision-making	-.61541	

* indicates reverse scored items

●

TABLE 9 (continued)

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Adhocracy	28	In handling important problems between departments we usually use a liason group to work things out.	.66625	.59
	25	There are rules and regulations for handling any kind of problem which might arise in making most decisions.	.61116	
	22	We have special groups for handling problems between different departments on important matters.	.60121	
	17	For special problems we usually set up a temporary task force to meet our objectives.	.53941	

TABLE 9 (continued)

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Interaction in Decision Making	26	Different individuals play important roles in making decisions.	.73452	.59
	11	People from different areas are often put together in a specific group in order to solve important problems.	.70682	
	24	Superiors often seek advice from their subordinates before making decisions.	.65350	

TABLE 9 (continued)

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Hierarchical Control	14	Volunteers in this organization always get orders from their superiors on important matters.	.73926	.57
	21	Volunteers have to check with their superiors before doing almost anything on important matters.	.71208	
	10*	If someone feels they have the right approach to carrying out their job, they can usually go ahead without checking with their superior.	-.63700	

* Item reverse scored for factor-based scale.

TABLE 9 (continued)

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Informality of Oligarchy	12	For many decisions the rules and regulations are developed as we go along.	.70040	.55
	8	Volunteers in this organization are not likely to express their feelings openly on important matters.	.65404	
	18*	The same rules and regulations are always followed in making most decisions.	-.62635	
Volunteer Influence	19	Superiors in this organization usually make the decisions themselves.	.72141	

* Item reverse scored for calculation of factor-based score.

Interaction in decision making. Three variables loaded
significantly on the third factor. This factor was respon-
sible for approximately 8 percent of the total variation in
the data on organizational characteristics. The internal
consistency of the second factor was .59 as measured by
Cronbach's alpha.

This factor indicated that a distinct characteristic of
voluntary groups is the degree to which they attempt to uti-
lize interaction, both vertical and horizontal, in making
decisions. This characteristic indicated an emphasis on
social interaction as a mode of operation. The variables
that loaded (all positive) on this factor related to "people
from different areas being put together to solve problems",
"different individuals playing a role in decision making",
and "superior's seeking advice from volunteers".

Hierarchical control. Three items (14,21,10) loaded on
the fourth factor extracted. Cronbach's alpha was .57 and
the factor accounted for approximately 6 percent of the
overall variation. The first two variables were positively
loaded (14,21), the third (10) loaded negatively.

This factor indicated the degree to which the organiza-
tion used the volunteer's leader to control the behavior
pattern of the volunteer. All three variables related to
volunteers getting orders from, or checking with their
superiors prior to doing anything on an important matter.
Hierarchical control indicated that structure was used to
ensure that the actions of the volunteer were consistent.

Informality of the oligarchy. Three variables loaded on the fifth factor extracted. The factor explained 5.5 percent of the overall variation. Cronbach's alpha was .55.

Informality of the oligarchy indicated the **degree to which rules and regulations were stated and followed or developed based on the decision at hand.** Item eight (volunteers in this organization are not likely to express their feelings openly...) indicated the degree to which the rule makers controlled the volunteer's expression of feelings on important matters. The inclusion of item eight in the factor indicated that a strong core group in the organization made up the rules as they operated and as a result the volunteers tended to suppress their opinions.

Volunteer influence. The final factor extracted directly related to the **degree to which volunteer's influenced the decisions made by the superiors.** The variable that loaded dealt with "superiors making decisions". Cronbach's alpha could not be calculated for this construct. The factor accounted for 5 percent of the overall variation.

Volunteer influence was considered to be a surrogate measure for centralization. Centralization can be viewed as the degree to which subordinates influence decisions and take an active or inactive role in decision making (Hage and Aiken, 1967).

This factor, in conjunction with factor one (volunteer

input) provided and overall view of the degree to which
volunteer input was used and influenced decisions made in
the organization. In addition, it provided a measure of
centralization in the organization.

Summary of Factor Analysis Procedure
on the Structure Instrument

Factor analysis resulted in the extraction of six fac-
tors representing the structural characteristics of the
voluntary associations sampled. These factors were: 1)
volunteer input, 2) interaction in decision making, 3)
volunteer influence, 4) adhocracy, 5) hierarchical control,
and 6) informality of oligarchy. The factors were developed
from the section of the instrument designed to measure five
organizational constructs. One of the hypothesized factors
(volunteer influence and participation) split into two fac-
tors (volunteer influence and volunteer input). The other
factors extracted represented accurately the remaining four
hypothesized factors (Table 8, page 110). The construct
validity of the structural characteristics instrument was
acceptable on that basis.

Factor-based scales were developed for each factor.
These scales were then used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2.
Factor-based scores for all constructs except volunteer
influence were reverse scored after totalling to aid in the
interpretation of the correlation coefficients.

Organizational Function.

The same factor analysis procedure used for the struc-
tural characteristics section was utilized to determine
validity of the instrument designed to measure instrumental
orientation in the voluntary organizations. The uni-
dimensional measure of orientation consisted of three
distinct measures of instrumental/expressive tendencies.
These were: (1) immediate/long-term gratification; (2)
change or control of individuals; and (3) ends or means to
an end (Jacoby and Babchuck, 1963).

Factor analysis extracted three factors based on the
scree plot criteria. The factors extracted closely
resembled the three dimensions used to determine instrumen-
tal or expressive orientation. Item 1 was a factorially
complex and, therefore, not included in any factor.

The first factor extracted (Change orientation) con-
sisted of items three (internal, non-change oriented
activities) and four (external, change oriented activities).
Item four had a loading of .85099; three had a loading of
-.83279. The factor explained 30 percent of the overall
variation in the data.

The items dealt with whether the activities of the or-
ganization were directed toward changing or controlling the
actions of individuals outside the group or are directed
internally for members of the organization. This factor
matches the section of the Jacoby and Babchuck instrument

designed to measure change orientation.

The second factor extracted (Long-term Orientation) consisted of items two and six. Item six (means to an end) loaded with a score of .78564; two (long term gratification) loaded with a score of .75234. Associations high in instrumental orientation should report strong agreement with the statements included in the second factor.

The final factor (Immediate Satisfaction) extracted consisted of item five. Statement five (behavior as an end result) loaded with a score of .89285. Expressive-oriented associations would be expected to exhibit this tendency more than instrumental organizations.

The three factors explained nearly seventy percent of the variation in the responses to the six items. Although the three factors extracted did not match Jacoby and Babchuck's hypothesized factors, the factor analysis indicated that the instrument did measure the instrumental or expressive orientation of the organizations.

Instrumental orientation. A scale based on the factor analysis was developed to determine the instrumental orientation of the organization. The three instrumental items (2,4,6) were reverse scored so that strong agreement with an instrumental purpose resulted in a high score. The expressive items (3,5) used the raw score reported. Thus, a strongly agree response resulted in a low score. All five items were then totaled. Scores of five (high expressive)

to twenty-five (high instrumental) were possible. The instrumental orientation scores were then correlated with the organizational constructs. Cronbach's alpha was .54. Table 10 shows the orientation items extracted and the overall reliability of the instrumental orientation scale. In addition, the score on this factor-based scale was used to determine which organizations would be included in the Phase II sample.

Evaluation of Descriptive Hypotheses

The factor based score for each factor was used in an analysis of the relationships between instrumental and expressive orientations and the derived organizational constructs. The correlation procedure of the Statistical Analysis System was used to calculate Pearson Product Moment Correlations on each pair of factor based scales. The level of significance for a failure to reject the hypothesis was the .05 level.

Instrumental Orientation and
  Structure Relationships

Table 11 shows the correlation coefficients for the relationships between instrumental orientation and structural constructs. The level of significance for each organizational construct developed as well as job codification, size, and age of the administrator, is also provided.

TABLE 10

ORGANIZATIONAL ORIENTATION FACTORS

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Change Orientation	4	Some of the activities of this group are directed toward modifying, controlling, or changing in some way, the actions of persons outside of the organization.	.85099	.54[a]
	3	The group is organized primarily to promote activities for members and others interested. The group is not concerned with changing or controlling activities of others.	-.83279	
	.75			

TABLE 10 (continued)

Name of Factor	Item Number	Statement	Orthogonal Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Long Term Orientation	6	The reason volunteers participate in the activities of this group is that the group seeks to bring about goals which they consider desireable. Volunteers participate in this organization because it attempts to accomplish purpose for which they stand.	.78654	
	2	Volunteer's chief satisfaction form participating in the activities of this organization comes not as much when they do these things as later when they see desireable and worthwhile results.	.75234	
Non-instrumental Activities	5	The activities of the group in which I take part are valuable in and for themselves. I do these things for the sake of doing them. I do not expect to achieve any other purpose. (reverse scored)	.89285	

a Alpha for the total scale consisting of five items.

Volunteer input. The correlation coefficient of .09092
indicated a positive correlation between instrumental orien-
tation and volunteer input. The significance level of .2606
was weak and outside the limits used in this study. There
was no significant correlation between orientation and
volunteer input in the organizations sampled. Hypothesis
1(d) (Instrumental orientation will lead to lower levels of
volunteer influence and participation) was not supported by
the findings when input was used as a measure of par-
ticipation.

Adhocracy. A correlation coefficient of .00974 indi-
cated that instrumental orientation was unrelated to the
degree to which the organization used temporary committees
and groups to solve internal and external threats. The
level of significance was .9132 which was outside acceptable
limits. The correlation was as stated in the null
Hypothesis 1(e). This indicated that no relationship
existed between instrumental orientation and use of tem-
porary structures.

Interaction in decision-making. A correlation of .1316
(significant at the .1004 level) existed between interaction
in decision-making and instrumental orientation. Hypothesis
1(d) was supported; however the level of significance of the
correlation indicates that the hypothesis may warrant
further investigation.

TABLE 11

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL
CONSTRUCTS AND INSTRUMENTAL ORIENTATION

Organizational Construct	Instrumental Orientation	
	Correlation Coefficient	Significance Level
Volunteer Input	.09092	.2606
Interaction in Decision Making	.13160	.1004
Volunteer Influence	−.14667	.0659
Adhocracy	.00974	.9046
Hierarchical Control	−.06180	.4405
Informality of Oligarchy	.02326	.7717
Job Codification	−.05809	.4742
Budget	.15200	.0680
Volunteers	−.04012	.6179
Paid Staff	.10512	.1930
Age of Administrator	−.23922	.0039

Hierarchical control. The correlation of -.06180 indicated that instrumental orientation of the organization was unrelated to the degree of hierarchical control. The level of significance is .4405, well outside the limits set for statistical significance. Hypothesis 1(a) was not rejected.

Informality of oligarchy. The correlation coefficient of .02326 indicated that as instrumental orientation was unrelated to the informality in operations of the leadership group. The correlation coefficient was only significant at the .7717 level, again, clearly outside the limits set for this study. Hypothesis 1(c) stated that instrumental orientation was not related to the degree of formalization. The hypothesis was not rejected on the basis of the results.

Volunteer influence. The correlation coefficient of -.14667 indicated a negative relationship between the movement of the administrator's report of instrumental orientation and the degree of volunteer influence. The correlation coefficient was significant at the .0659 level. This was outside the acceptable limits for this study.

As the organization increased in instrumental orientation the leader reported that the volunteers had lower levels of influence on the decisions that were made in the organization. The direction of the correlation was as hypothesized, although the correlation was not statistically

significant. Instrumental orientation is correlated with
influence; However, from a statistical standpoint,
Hypothesis 1(d) was not significant and therefore was not
rejected. Once again, the magnitude of the correlation
indicated the relationship should be subjected to additional
investigation.

Job codification. A correlation of -.05809 (p=.4762)
existed between job codification and instrumental orien-
tation. The relationship is as predicted by Hypothesis
1(b), which stated that instrumental orientation is unre-
lated to job codification (standardization).

Budget. The correlation of .1520 between the
organization's budget and instrumental orientation was
significant at the .0680 level. This correlation indicated
a positive relationship between the size of the budget and
the degree of instrumental function. However, the correla-
tion was not statistically significant.

Volunteers. There was a negative correlation (-.05042,
p=.6179) between the size of the volunteer staff and the
degree of instrumental orientation.

Paid staff. The correlation coefficient of .10512 was
outside the acceptable limits (p=.1930). This indicated no
relationship between the size of the paid staff and the
degree of instrumental orientation. The strength of the

correlation indicates that further study may be needed before reaching any conclusions on the relationship.

   <u>Age of the administrator</u>. A statistically significant correlation of -.23922 (p=.0039) existed between the instrumental orientation and the administrator's age. Older administrators reported less instrumental orientation in their organization.

Summary of Organizational Orientation
   Relationships

   Only the age of the administrator was significantly related to instrumental orientation. This relationship is similar to the findings of Crittenden (1982). All other relationships were statistically insignificant. However, three correlations were significant at levels which would indicate a need for further investigation. These were volunteer influence, interaction in decision-making, and budget as related to instrumental orientation. The degree of hierarchical control, informality, and job codification were unrelated to instrumental orientation.

   None of the hypotheses stating a relationship between instrumental orientation and structural characteristics were supported using the guidelines chosen. The findings indicated that the instrumental construct was not a good measure to use in predicting the organizational structure present in a voluntary group.

Organizational Size

This study used three measures of organizational size. Those measures included: (1) budget, (2) number of volunteers, and (3) paid staff. Several authors hypothesize that organizational size is related to structure in voluntary associations. The correlation coefficients and significance levels for the size and organizational structure constructs are provided in Table 12.

Volunteer input. Correlation between two of three measures of size and volunteer input were statistically significant. Budget and paid staff correlations and significance levels were $-.20682$ (p=.0126) and $-.21868$ (p=.0066), respectively. This indicated that as the organizational budget and size of paid staff increased the level of volunteer input decreased. Warner and Hilander (1964) found that large voluntary associations had less volunteer input. The results provided statistically significant support for their findings. Hypothesis 2(d) (Size is unrelated to levels of participation) must be rejected.

Adhocracy. None of the measures had any significant correlation with the degree to which the organizations used temporary work groups to solve problems. The budget measure indicated a correlation between size and adhocracy. Larger organizations, in terms of budget, were less likely to use temporary groups $(-.10713, p=.2083)$.

TABLE 12

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL
CONSTRUCTS AND ORGANIZATION SIZE

Organizational Construct	Budget		Volunteers		Paid Staff	
	r[a]	p[b]	r	p	r	p
Volunteer Input	-.20682	.0126	-.11319	.1608	-.21868	.0066
Adhocracy	-.10713	.2028	.02755	.7345	-.03558	.6634
Interaction in Decision-making	.00987	.9062	.08669	.2803	-.00373	.9633
Hierarchical Control	.02426	.7713	.01380	.8634	-.03545	.6710
Informality of Oligarchy	.02918	.7266	-.07008	.3816	-.00183	.9819
Volunteer Influence	-.05601	.5019	.09830	.2192	-.12309	.1258
Job Codification	.15443	.0655	.15344	.0574	.05718	.4847

[a] r=correlation coefficient
[b] p=significance level

131

Interaction in decision making. The only size measure
that approached significance was the number of volunteers.
The correlation between these items was .08669 (significant
at the .2803 level). Hypothesis 2(e) (size is unrelated to
volunteer involvement in decision-making) was supported by
the size/interaction relationship.

Hierarchical control. None of the measures correlated
significantly with the degree of hierarchical control.
Correlations were weak and in a direction opposite than that
hypothesized. Smith and Reddy (1971), Stenzel and Feeney
(1968), and Walker's (1975) observations that large
voluntary organizations typically have a large degree of
hierarchical control was not supported.

Informality of oligarchy. The correlation of -.07008
between the number of volunteers and informality was
significant at the .3816 level, all other correlations did
not approach even that level. Hypothesis 2(c) (size is
unrelated to level of formality) was supported.

Volunteer influence. None of the measures of size were
significantly correlated with the influence construct. The
size measure which had the most significant correlation was
the paid staff size. As the number of paid staff increased
the influence level of lower volunteers decreased (-.12309,
p=.1258). Hypothesis 2(f) was supported. However, the
direction of the correlation and level of significance

suggests further study into the relationship would be appropriate.

Job codification. Two of the three measures of size had correlations with job codification which approached the level of significance chosen for this study. As budget and number of volunteers increased the degree to which standardized work rules exist increased. The correlations and significance levels were $r=.15443$, $p=.0655$ and $r=.15344$, $p=.0574$, respectively. Hypothesis 2(b) (size is not related to level of job codification) was supported. However, the magnitude of these correlations indicated that further research into this hypothesis would be appropriate.

Summary of Size Relationships

One of the alternative hypotheses related to size and organizational constructs was supported statistically. Another received support at levels approaching those chosen for this study.

Alternative hypothesis 2(d) (larger voluntary organizations will have lower levels of volunteer participation) met the level of significance chosen for this study. The significance ($p < .05$) indicated that Warner and Hilander's (1964) findings of a size-participation interaction were supported by this research (when size was defined as size of budget and/or number of volunteers).

Alternative hypothesis 2(b) (larger organizations have higher levels of job codification) was supported in a

limited sense (p <.10). The results indicated that larger
numbers of volunteers was related to more job codification
for volunteers.

No other alternative hypotheses were supported either
statistically or qualitatively. There were no significant
correlations between volunteer influence, adhocracy,
hierarchical control, or informality of oligarchy.

Summary

Chapter IV presented an analysis of the data from Phase
I of the data collection, reported descriptive statistics,
and tested orientation and size hypotheses. The results
from the tests of the descriptive hypotheses indicated that
neither the instrumental, nor the size variable, is a robust
predictor of the manner in which voluntary associations are
structured.

Chapter V will examine the results from the second phase
of the data collection. The chapter will explore the
ability of the Path Goal Theory to predict the volunteer's
level of satisfaction based on the leadership style,
environmental characteristics, and personal characteristics
of the volunteer. Phase I data collected on the structural
characteristics of subject organizations will be used to aid
in interpretation of the Phase II results.

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135

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER BEHAVIOR
AND VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION

The primary purpose of this investigation was to deter-
mine leader behaviors which were related to volunteer satis-
faction given situational considerations. Chapter V
describes the results of the analysis used to determine
leader behaviors and those personal and task variables that
were related to satisfaction in volunteers.

The first section of this chapter presents a descrip-
tion of the organizations chosen for study. The second sec-
tion of the chapter provides summary statistics and
univariate analysis of personal characteristics of the
volunteers. In addition, respondents' perceptions of the
tasks they performed in the organization are reported. The
final section reports results of multivariate analysis
designed to determine significant relationships between
leader behaviors and volunteer satisfaction.

An analysis of variance design was used to test the
following hypotheses from Chapter III:

    3) H_0: There is no relationship between instrumental
           leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction with
           work when the volunteer is intrinsically moti-
           vated to perform volunteer tasks.

136

H_a: There is a positive relationship between instru-
mental leader behavior and volunteer satisfac-
tion with work when the volunteer is
intrinsically motivated to perform volunteer
tasks.

4) H_o: Considerate or supportive leader behaviors are
not related to levels of volunteer satisfaction
in extrinsically motivated volunteers.
Environmental and personal characteristics are
unrelated to satisfaction with considerate
leader behavior.

H_a: Extrinsically motivated volunteers will report
higher levels of satisfaction with work when
their leader emphasizes supportive leader beha-
viors. Environmental and personal charac-
teristics moderate the relationship according
to the Path-Goal theory.

The analysis of variance design indicated if there were any

interaction effects between leader behavior, motivation

level, and satisfaction with work.

Personal and environmental characteristics were

included in discriminant analysis to determine factors

which, in conjunction with leader behavior, were significant

in determining individual satisfaction levels. Discriminant

analysis results indicated which personal and environmental

factors moderated the relationship between leader behaviors

and satisfaction.

Data Collection and Respondent Characteristics

The instrument used in Phase II (see Appendix B) was

distributed to ten organizations in three Arkansas cities.

The questionnaires were administered using one of two

methods, depending on restrictions imposed by the participating organizations. The first method entailed the researcher attending a regular meeting of the volunteers, explaining, passing out, and collecting the completed questionnaires. The second method utilized a packet of information containing the questionnaire, a cover letter explaining the instrument, and instructions for the returning the questionnaire in the stamped, addressed packet. The packet was distributed to volunteers in the organization by the individual in charge of volunteer services for the organization. The director of volunteer services in each organization agreed to provide volunteers in selected programs with a questionnaire packet. The second method of distribution was used for organizations which had no regular meetings, held closed meetings, or had no scheduled meeting during the data collection period.

A total of 305 questionnaires were distributed to the organizations. Table 13 provides a summary of the number of questionnaires provided to each organization, number of responses, response rate, and percentage of the total sample. The administration procedure resulted in a total of 127 useable responses (42 percent response rate). The response rates for two of the larger organizations were significantly lower than for other organizations. Interviews were conducted with selected leaders and volunteers from organizations with response rates of less than 33

percent in order to determine causes for the lower return
rates. Five non-respondents from each organization were
asked why they had not participated in the study. Seven of
ten indicated that they did not want to spend the time to
fill out the questionnaire. Others said they saw no benefit
in responding, or that they were volunteers to work, not
fill out questionnaires. Leaders of the organizations with
lower response rates indicated that volunteers in their
organization did not usually respond favorably to question-
naires. Most of their volunteers would not fill out
questionnaires the organization generated and utilized
internally.

Non-respondents did not significantly differ with
respondents in the same organization on the basis of age,
sex, education, and income. Behavioral factors such as
authoritarianism and locus of control were not compared due
to the difficulty in obtaining responses during the inter-
views. Based on demographic factors alone, non-response
bias did not appear to be a contaminating factor in the
study.

TABLE 13

RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION

Organization Number	Questionnaires Distributed	Returned	Percent Returned	Useable	Useable Response Rate
1	24	16	67	16	67
2	33	18	55	17	52
3	15	12	80	8	53
4	30	13	43	11	37
5	49	25	51	23	47
6	6	3	50	2	33
7	28	7	25	5	18
8	48	35	73	22	46
9	47	19	40	13	28
10	25	15	60	10	40
Totals	305	163	53	127	42

The Organizations
Studied

The 10 organizations chosen for this phase of the study varied widely in function, number of volunteers, staff, budget levels, and degree of voluntarism. Three organizations were dependent primarily on volunteers for delivery of services. The remainder were organizations that depended on volunteers to increase the availability or number of services provided by paid staff members. Table 14 provides a summary of the characteristics of the organizations in terms of size measures, stated function, orientation, and affiliations. Each organization had participated in the first round of data collection. Particular attention was given to selecting a variety of organizations that were predominantly instrumental in orientation. Organizations which exhibited strong expressive tendencies were purposely not selected. Results from Phase One indicated that most expressive groups had no formal leaders, tasks, or structure. Nebulous characteristics rendered expressive organizations inappropriate for this study.

A brief description of each organization is provided so that one may assess the characteristics of the group. The primary task, a membership profile, and the response rates for each association is also supplied.

TABLE 14

ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE*

Organization Number	Function	Organization Score	Budget	Volunteers	Staff	Affiliation
1	Child Welfare	22	50,000-99,000	24	3	State
2	Multiple	16	10,000-49,000	33	0	National
3	Educational Services	22	50,000-99,000	15	4	State
4	Mental Health	22	over 250,000	30	over 20	National
5	Health Services	22	over 250,000	200-299	over 20	None
6	Political Action	23	10,000-49,000	6	1	None
7	Arts Culture	17	over 250,000	100-199	over 20	State
8	Social Welfare	17	over 250,000	over 300	over 20	State
9	Multiple	14	over 250,000	over 300	over 20	National
10	Social Welfare	21	50,000-99,000	25	5	Local

* information collected during Phase I.

142

Organization 1:   This organization had 24 individuals on the active roster at the time of the study.   The paid staff consisted of three individuals.   The association was directed toward child welfare and services.   The group exhibited high instrumental orientation and was considered to be quite active by community leaders.   The director indicated that there had been a small amount of turnover among the volunteers.   Sixteen useable responses were supplied by the volunteers.

Organization 2:   This group consisted of 33 female volunteers.   There was no paid staff.   The functions of the organization were related to child welfare, support for welfare services, and general coordination of programs in the geographic area.   Members were predominantly middle age and from a higher socio-economic level than respondents from the other organizations studied.   The budget was under $50,000 per year.   The group exhibited instrumental/ expressive orientation.   That is, the group was involved in activities which were oriented toward change as well as immediate gratification.   Entry into the organization was on the basis of invitation and individuals must have lived in the community for a period of five years or more.   The members provided 17 useable responses.

Organization 3:   Organization three was involved in educational services.   The 15 volunteers had a vested interest in the services provided by the organization.   The

organization exhibited high levels of instrumental orientation. There were four paid staff members and the annual budget was approximately $90,000. The group was a separate division of a larger association. Eight useable responses were collected from this organization.

Organization 4: Organization four was involved in mental health services. The paid staff consisted of over 100 persons and there were 30 active volunteers. The group exhibited instrumental orientation. Funding for the agency was over $250,000 per year. The organization was stable but the director of volunteer services reported the organization was having difficulty in getting and retaining volunteers. There had been a good deal of volunteer turnover during the months previous to the study. As a result, only 11 useable responses were returned.

Organization 5: This group of volunteers' primary function was the providing of health services in a major organization. There were over 200 volunteers in the organization, however, only 49 were active during the study period. The volunteer group exhibited instrumental orientation. Budget level and paid staff was over $1,000,000 and over 300, respectively. Twenty-three useable responses were supplied by volunteers from this organization.

Organization 6: Organization six was the smallest association participating in the investigation. The active volunteer list included only six regular volunteers. There

were several other volunteers who were only involved in fund
raising and other high visibility activities. One person
served as a paid staff member. The annual budget was less
than $50,000 per year and the group had no affiliation with
other associations. The organization was involved in socio-
political activities and had been hit by a severe decline in
membership during the previous year. Two useable responses
were supplied by the volunteers.

Organization 7: Organization seven was involved in
community arts, culture, and history. There were 28 active
volunteers and over 30 paid staff members operating with a
budget of over $250,000 per year. The group exhibited both
instrumental and expressive tendencies. Useable responses
were returned by five of the volunteers.

Organization 8: This large association was involved in
social and welfare services. There were over 600 volunteers
in the various groups associated with the organization.
Only members of two programs (48 volunteers) working out of
the central office were sampled. The annual budget for
volunteer services was in excess of $1,000,000 and there
were over 300 paid staff members. The organization exhi-
bited instrumental/expressive tendencies.   Twenty-two
useable questionnaires were provided by volunteers from the
group.

Organization 9: Organization nine was the largest
organization to participate in this study. There were over

2,000 volunteers in the organization. Only the 47 volunteers who worked regularly in the central office were sampled. Paid staff was over 300 and the budget was several million dollars per year. The organization exhibited instrumental/expressive tendencies. Thirteen responses from the volunteers were useable.

Organization 10: This organization had 25 active volunteers involved in a social welfare program. The group exhibited high instrumental orientation and was affiliated with other county and state organizations. The paid staff consisted of five members and the annual budget was in excess of $150,000. Ten volunteers returned useable responses.

Summary of Organizations Studied

The 10 organizations chosen were widely distributed on the basis of size, membership level, function, and volunteer involvement. Phase I results were used to classify the organizations. Seven of the associations exhibited instrumental orientation. The remaining organizations (two, seven, and nine) best fit the instrumental/expressive model. No expressive organizations were selected for three reasons: (1) the difficulty in finding expressive associations which had formally appointed leaders, (2) the lack of a leader subordinate relationship, and (3) specific tasks or goals for the volunteers. The organizations participating were

located in three geographic areas in Arkansas; five in one central Arkansas location, three in northwest Arkansas, and two in west-central Arkansas. The organizations were not randomly selected. Efforts were made to represent a wide range of locations, functions, and sizes of associations. Both instrumental and instrumental/expressive organizations were included

Characteristics of the
Volunteers

General demographic information, satisfaction levels, personality characteristics, and volunteer task perceptions are reported in this section. Satisfaction was examined on the basis of satisfaction with the work itself and intrinsic satisfaction. Personality characteristics reported are locus of control, authoritarianism, and growth need level. Task perceptions included role ambiguity, role conflict, variety, autonomy, feedback, dealing with others, friendship opportunities, and task identity.

Demographics. The volunteers responding to the questionnaire ranged from 15 to 78 years of age. Nearly 50 percent of the respondents were under age 40. However, 22 percent were over 65 years old. Eighty-five percent of the volunteers were female. Respondents had a variety of education levels. Fifteen percent had not completed high school, 32 percent had attended college or vo-tech school, and 22 percent were college graduates.

Nearly 18 percent of the participants had been doing volunteer work for over 10 years. Two-thirds had been volunteers for three years or less. Nearly half (49.58 percent) indicated that they had been doing volunteer work for the current organization one year or less. Only ten percent had worked for the organization for five years or more. Sixty percent of the respondents stated that all the volunteer work they did was for the current organization and three-fourths of the volunteers reported working ten hours or less. Only 10 percent volunteered for over 20 hours per week.

Table 15 provides a further breakdown of the demographic profile of the volunteers. The participants in the study were predominantly female, from a variety of educational backgrounds, had been doing volunteer work for several years, but volunteered to work for only one organization at a time.

Satisfaction. Volunteer's satisfaction was measured using sub-scales of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Hulin and Kendall. The validity and reliability of the scales have been widely reported. Over half of all satisfaction-based research published in seven leading management journals used the JDI as the measure of satisfaction (Yeager, 1978). Satisfaction with the work itself, supervision, and co-workers scales were used to measure respondent satisfaction levels.

TABLE 15

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

Age	Frequency*	Percent
Less than 21	3	2.44
21-29	22	17.89
30-39	34	27.64
40-49	19	15.45
50-59	11	8.94
60-69	17	13.82
70 or over	17	13.82
Education	**Frequency***	**Percent**
High School or Less	43	33.86
Some College or Vo-Tech	39	31.71
College Graduate	28	22.76
Beyond College Graduate	17	13.82
Income	**Frequency***	**Percent**
Less than $15,000	32	26.02
$15,000 to $24,999	29	23.58
$25,000 to $34,999	18	14.63
$35,000 to $44,999	17	13.82
$45,000 to $54,999	12	9.76
$55,000 and over	15	12.20
Gender	**Frequency***	**Percent**
Male	18	14.17
Female	109	85.83
Volunteer Work	**Frequency***	**Percent**
Less than 1 year	33	27.05
1 year to less than 2	12	9.84
2 years to less than 3	16	13.11
3 years to less than 4	18	14.75
4 years to less than 5	9	7.38
5 years to less than 10	13	10.66
Over 10 years	21	17.21

TABLE 15 (Continued)

Experience With Current Organization	Frequency*	Percent
Less than 1 year	50	41.32
1 year to less than 2	17	14.05
2 years to less than 3	16	13.22
3 years to less than 4	15	12.40
4 years to less than 5	11	9.09
5 years to less than 10	9	7.44
10 years or more	3	2.48

Hours Volunteering	Frequency*	Percent
1 to 3 hours	25	20.83
4 to 6 hours	40	33.33
7 to 9 hours	14	11.67
10 to 19 hours	24	20.00
20 or more hours	17	14.17

Percent For This Organization	Frequency*	Percent
Less than 25 percent	09	7.56
25 to 49 percent	12	10.08
50 to 74 percent	12	10.08
75 to 99 percent	14	11.76
100 percent	72	60.50

* frequencies may not add to the number of respondents due to missing responses.

An additional scale consisting of eight items was developed by the author to measure intrinsic satisfaction. Factor analysis confirmed that one underlying factor (intrinsic satisfaction) represented the eight items. The factor explained nearly 70 percent of the variation in the responses to the items. Cronbach's alpha was .92.

Volunteers, as Gidron (1983) noted, consistently report high levels of satisfaction. This sample was no exception. Table 16 presents univariate information for each of the satisfaction measures. The results indicated a clear skewness to the upper range of the scores. There were few dissatisfied respondents if traditional measures of satisfaction were used. Therefore, the levels of satisfaction used for further analysis were: satisfied, moderately satisfied, and very satisfied. Volunteers were considered satisfied if their scores were below the first quartile; moderately satisfied if their score was in the middle 50 percent; and very satisfied if above the third quartile. The median values for satisfaction with work, supervision, co-workers, and intrinsic satisfaction were 43, 49, 51, and 40.

TABLE 16

SATISFACTION LEVEL OF VOLUNTEERS

	Range	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation
Work itself	22-54	41.35	43	45	7.085
Supervision	24-54	47.85	49	51	5.994
Co-Workers	18-54	48.38	51	54	7.049
Intrinsic	17-45	38.90	40	45	6.326

Personal characteristics. The personal characteristics examined in this research were locus of control, authoritarianism, and growth need level. Table 17 summarizes the univariate analysis of each of the personal characteristics.

TABLE 17

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

	Range	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation
Locus of Control	13-24	16.74	16	15	2.80
Authoritarianism	16-52	33.98	34	35	7.12
Motivation Level	11-25	20.58	20	20	2.86

Locus of Control: A modification of Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control instrument was used to determine the

internal/external orientation of the subjects. The scale is
well documented with respect to both validity and reliabi-
lity (Robinson and Shaver, 1976). Scores of 18 or less
indicated internal orientation while scores of 19 or greater
classified the individual as an external. The mean for this
sample was 16.74. The median and mode was 16 and 15,
respectively. The subjects were predominantly internals.
Only 23 percent had a score of over 19, indicating an exter-
nal orientation.

Authoritarianism: The California F scale (Adorno, et.
al, 1950) was used to determine the respondents degree of
authoritarianism. The scale has been tested and used exten-
sively in pyschological research. Confirmatory factor ana-
lysis indicated that one underlying construct was being
measured by the 11 items. Cronbach's alpha was .87.

The respondents were distributed normally on the
authoritarianism scale. There seemed to be no discernable
tendency of volunteers to be more or less authoritarian.
The mean and median scores were 33.98 and 34, respectively.
The larger an individual's score the higher their level of
authoritarianism.

Motivation: Fourteen items designed to measure the
relative strength of an individual's needs were subjected to
factor analysis. Five items related to "stimulation and
challenge," "becoming the best person I can be," "use my
real skills and capacities," "taking pride in what I do,"

and "accomplishing great things" loaded on the first factor extracted. The first factor was used as a measure of the individual's motivation level. The higher the factor-score the higher the individual's intrinsic motivation. The mean score on the motivation level factor-based scale was 20.58 and the median was 20. Most volunteers reported high intrinsic motivation levels.

Perception of the task. Seven specific task related areas were measured in order to determine the volunteers' perception of the roles they played in the organization. Items measured were role ambiguity, role conflict, variety, feedback, autonomy, friendship opportunities, and dealing with others. Each of these areas (with the exception of friendship) have been examined in previous research on the Path-Goal theory of leadership.

Role conflict and ambiguity: Fourteen items developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1976) were used to measure the degree of role conflict and role ambiguity. The items were subjected to factor analysis to confirm the underlying constructs of the instrument. Two factors were extracted based on the scree plot criteria. The factors paralleled the role conflict and role ambiguity scales developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman. Cronbach alphas were .67 and .73, respectively.

Most volunteers reported low levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. The correlation between the two factors

was .46 (p=.0001).

Job characteristics: The Job Characteristics Inventory as developed by Sims, Szilagyi, and Wallace was used to measure the degree of variety, autonomy, friendship opportunities, dealing with others, and feedback in the volunteer's task. Research (Pierce and Dunham, 1978) indicates that the JCI is an excellent measure of job characteristics in a variety of organizations. Factor analysis was conducted on the 28 items to confirm the hypothesized constructs measured by the instrument. The six factors resulting from the analysis paralleled closely the six dimensions in the JCI.

The degree of each dimension present in the volunteer's work was derived by summing the item responses for each dimension. Volunteers reported moderate levels of variety, autonomy, and feedback. High levels of task identity, dealing with others, and friendship opportunities were reported by the participants. The type of work most volunteers did provided a good deal of social contact while providing less variety, autonomy, and feedback on the results of their efforts. Table 18 provides a summary of the univariate analysis of each task dimension.

Analysis of Leader Behavior/Volunteer Satisfaction Relationship

The Path-Goal theory of leadership suggests that when subordinates are intrinsically motivated, instrumental leader

behaviors will result in high levels of subordinate satis-
faction. An unbalanced analysis of variance model (General
Linear Models, GLM, procedure, SAS; Barr, et al, 1982) was
used in order to test the concept that leader behavior is
related to satisfaction and that motivation level influences
that relationship. The GLM results indicated significant
main and interaction effects. The results of the analysis
are provided in Table 19. Significant main effects, as
indicated by Scheffe's test, are shown in Table 20.

TABLE 18

TASK PERCEPTION

	Range	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation
Identity	6-20	16.08	16	18	3.10
Feedback	5-25	18.53	19	16	4.69
Autonomy	7-25	18.75	19	19	3.71
Others	7-20	16.67	17	20	3.04
Friendship	6-20	14.94	15	20	3.88
Variety	9-25	16.66	17	17	3.08

Instrumental Leader Behaviors

Instrumental behaviors consisted of three distinct
activities; (1) role clarification, (2) work assignment, (3)
specification of procedures. The main effects between each
behavior and satisfaction with work was examined in the GLM
procedure. Results indicated that only one of the three
instrumental behaviors was related to satisfaction (see

Table 19).

Leader role clarification was significantly related (F=8.72, p=.0004) to volunteer satisfaction with work. Scheffe's test indicated that the differences between the low and high satisfaction groups were significant (p<.05). The significant main effect indicated that higher levels of role clarification resulted in higher levels of satisfaction with work.

Leader work assignment and specification of procedures were unrelated to volunteer satisfaction. Scheffe's test were not performed since the main effects were not significant. The lack of any main effect indicated that satisfaction was unaffected by varying levels of leader work assignment and specification of procedures.

Supportive Leader Behaviors

The main effect between supportive behavior and volunteer work satisfaction was significant (F=7.54, p=.0011). Scheffe's test indicated a significant difference (p<.05) between means only for the high versus low supportive behavior groups. The differences between the low/medium and medium/high groups were not statistically significant. Increasing levels of supportive behavior resulted in higher levels of volunteer satisfaction when other factors were not included in the analysis.

The results indicated when no situational factors were considered that two of the four possible leader behaviors

had a significant main effect on volunteer satisfaction with work. Role clarification and support resulted in significantly higher levels of work satisfaction while work assignment and specification of procedures had no significant effect on satisfaction.

TABLE 19

FIVE WAY UNBALANCED ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS

	DF	F Value	Pr>F
Main Effects			
Motivation level	2	11.82	.0001
Support	2	7.54	.0011
Role Clarification	2	8.72	.0004
Work Assignment	2	1.13	.3298
Specification of Procedures	2	0.95	.3905
Interaction Effects			
RC*Motivation	4	0.66	.6248
S*Motivation	4	0.42	.7954
WA*Motivation	3	0.76	.4706
SP*Motivation	2	0.97	.4136
S*RC*Motivation	6	1.18	.3275
WA*S*Motivation	6	0.76	.6047
S*SP*Motivation	6	0.85	.5358
WA*SP*RC*Motivation	13	2.02	.0318
WA*LS*S*RC*Motivation	2	1.14	.2955
TOTAL MODEL	125	2.04	.0025

TABLE 20

SCHEFFES TEST FOR DIFFERENCES
ON SIGNIFICANT MAIN EFFECTS

Comparison	Difference Between Means
Growth Need Level High vs. Low	9.650[*]
Leader Role Clarification High vs Low	10.442[*]
Leader Support High vs Low	8.611[*]

[*] $p < .05$

Motivation Level Effect

Hypothesis 3 and 4 predicted a significant interaction effect between motivation levels, leader behaviors and satisfaction with work. Specifically, Hypothesis 3_a predicted that intrinsically motivated volunteers would be more satisfied with instrumental leader behaviors. Hypothesis 4_a indicated that supportive behaviors would be more important to extrinsically motivated volunteers.

Results of the analysis procedure indicated that no significant individual behavior-motivation interaction effects were present. Table 19 (page 158) shows that intrinsic motivation level had a significant main effect on satisfaction ($F = 11.82$, $p = .0001$) however, none of the interactions approached the significance level required.

A close examination of the interaction effects provides information which indicates potential relationships between leader behaviors and satisfaction with work for both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated volunteers. Table 21 indicates that intrinsically motivated volunteers were more satisfied with high levels of role clarification behavior (X_1=80.36 vs X_h=86.67). Extrinsically motivated volunteers also were more satisfied with high levels of role clarification (X_1=68.76 vs X_h=82.00).

Leader supportive behavior was related to satisfaction in a similar manner. High levels of leader support resulted in higher mean satisfaction with work in both intrinsically (X_1=79.05 vs X_h=86.48) and extrinsically motivated (X_1=71.92 vs X_h=77.92).

The summary results indicated that extrinsically motivated volunteers were more likely to respond favorably to role clarification and intrinsically motivated volunteers would respond favorably to high levels of support as well as role clarification.

The overall interaction effect between instrumental leader behaviors and growth need level was significant (p=.0318). The results indicated that high levels of role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment had a large impact on satisfaction of volunteers who were extrinsically motivated. In fact, extrinsically motivated volunteers had a higher mean satisfaction level which

approached that of intrinsically motivated individuals when the leader engaged in high levels instrumental behaviors (X_e=82.17 vs X_i=85.40). Table 22 provides a summary of the mean satisfaction levels of intrinsics and extrinsics under high and low levels of instrumental leader behavior.

TABLE 21

LEADER ROLE CLARIFICATION, MOTIVATION LEVELS,
AND MEAN SATISFACTION WITH WORK RESULTS

| | Mean Satisfaction Levels | |
| | Motivation Type | |
Leader Behavior	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
Role Clarification		
Low	80.36	68.76
Medium	80.50[a]	74.40
High	86.67	82.00
Support		
Low	79.05	71.92
Medium	85.00	75.00[a]
High	86.48	77.92

[a] 4 or less volunteers fit this situation.

Summary of Behavior-Satisfaction
  Main and Interaction Effects

The findings indicated that leader behaviors were related to volunteer satisfaction. However, the relationship was opposite from that suggested by current Path-Goal research. In particular, role clarification resulted in higher levels of satisfaction in extrinsically

motivated volunteers while supportive behavior had an effect on intrinsics. The findings were opposite from those hypothesized. One significant interaction effect existed indicating that instrumental leader behaviors, when considered together, were more likely to increase satisfaction levels of extrinsically motivated volunteers than intrinsically motivated individuals.

The data analysis procedure did not include situational variables which have been shown to influence the leader behavior satisfaction relationship. Therefore, further analysis which included relevant situational variables was undertaken to gain additional insight into the factors that were most significant in determining volunteer satisfaction with work.

TABLE 22

IMPACT OF LEADER BEHAVIORS AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION
LEVELS ON SATISFACTION WITH WORK

Motivation	Instrumental Leader Behavior Level	
	Low	High
Intrinsic	83.40	85.4
Extrinsic	70.08	82.17

Leader Behavior Situational
Variable Model

Inclusion of situational variables in the analysis required the use of a multivariate technique. Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to determine which of 17 situational variables were most significant in discriminating between volunteer satisfaction levels. The variables chosen for initial analysis are listed in Table 23.

Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to obtain the variables from the list which were related significantly to levels of volunteer satisfaction with work. Those variables which did not meet the level of significance required ($p \leq .10$) were not included in further analysis. Five of the variables met the criteria selected. Those variables were (in order of significance) Locus of control ($F=9.2$, $p=.002$), autonomy ($F=9.20$, $p=.0002$), role clarification ($F=5.416$, $p=.0058$), friendship opportunities ($F=11.374$, $p=.0001$), and work assignment ($F=3.004$, $p=.0541$).

TABLE 23

SITUATIONAL VARIABLES INCLUDED IN THE MODEL

Personal Characteristics	Task Characteristics
Locus of Control	Role Ambiguity
Authoritarianism	Role Conflict
Motivation Level	Variety
Perceived Ability	Autonomy
	Friendship
	Opportunities
	Dealing with Others
	Feedback
	Identity
	Work Group Relations

Leader Behaviors

Instrumental
  Work Assignment
  Role Clarification
  Specification of Procedures

Supportive

Those five variables provided the best discriminant model available from all combinations of the seventeen variables, however, an additional step was required before the model could be considered significant. A classification matrix was developed by using the function to classify the respondents. Table 24 indicates the percentage correctly classified into each satisfaction category. The predictive accuracy of the function was significantly greater than chance ($p \leq .05$). The results indicated the function was a valid discriminator between the levels of volunteer satisfaction.

TABLE 24

CLASSIFICATION SUMMARY FOR
DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS[a]

Actual Level	Predicted Level		
	Satisfied (Percent)	Moderately Satisfied (Percent)	Very Satisfied (Percent)
Satisfied	19 (63)	8 (27)	3 (10)
Moderately Satisfied	7 (13)	38 (72)	8 (15)
Very Satisfied	3 (9)	14 (44)	15 (47)

[a] 62.61 percent of the volunteers were correctly classified. The proportional chance criterion suggests the model would correctly classify only 35.79 percent.

Significant Leadership and
   Situational Variables

The validated discriminant function included two leader behaviors, two task, and one personal variable. The standardized weights for each of the variables are shown in Table 25. The sign of the coefficient indicated whether the variable effects the function positively or negatively and the size of the coefficient indicates the amount contributed to the function.

TABLE 25

STANDARDIZED DISCRIMINANT COEFFICIENTS FOR
SATISFACTION WITH WORK

Variable	Satisfied (Ranking)	Very Satisfied (Ranking)
Locus of Control	8.8277 (1)	7.2363 (1)
Friendship Opportunities	1.8582 (5)	2.6787 (5)
Role Clarification	3.4353 (4)	3.3689 (3)
Work Assignment	3.8858 (3)	3.2589 (4)
Autonomy	4.3696 (2)	4.7237 (2)

Leader behaviors. The two leader behaviors significant in discriminating between satisfaction levels were role clarification and work assignment. Role clarification and work assignment were moderately important variables in discriminating between satisfaction levels of the volunteer.

The higher the level of leader role clarification the greater the volunteer's reported satisfaction. The mean role clarification scores for satisfied, moderately satisfied, and very satisfied were 32.60, 35.94, and 40.09 respectively. The differences between means for all groups were significant at the $p \leq .05$ level.

Work assignment behaved in an opposite manner. The

moderately satisfied and very satisfied groups perceived less leader work assignment. The means were 40.90, 40.25, and 39.66 for the satisfied, moderately, and very satisfied volunteers. The difference between the low/high groups was significant at $p \leq .05$.

Task dimensions. Two task dimensions, autonomy and friendship opportunities, entered the discriminant model. Autonomy was the most important task contributor to prediction of the satisfaction level; friendship opportunities was the least important of all variables.

Very satisfied volunteers felt their tasks had greater autonomy than less satisfied volunteers. Very satisfied and moderately satisfied volunteers scored 19.93 and 19.01, respectively, while satisfied volunteers scored only 16.23. The differences between the low/high and low/medium group were significant at the $p \leq .05$ level.

Higher levels of friendship opportunities were also related to higher levels of satisfaction with work. Very satisfied individuals reported a mean friendship opportunities score of 16.87 while the lowest satisfaction group reported a mean score of only 12.40. The difference was significant at $p \leq .001$ level. The difference between the moderately satisfied and satisfied group was significant at $p \leq .05$.

Personal characteristics. Locus of control was the only personal characteristic which was significant in pro-

viding discriminant power for the three levels of satisfac-
tion studied. The standardized coefficient score in the
discriminant function indicated the variable was the largest
contributor of all variables to the discriminating power of
the function. The moderately satisfied group had a locus of
control mean score of 15.79 indicating extreme internal
orientation. The low satisfaction group mean score was
18.40 indicating a moderate external orientation. The high
satisfaction locus of control mean score was 16.93. The
greater the internal or external orientation the less likely
a volunteer was to be highly satisfied. Volunteers who were
in the mid range of internal/external score tended to be
very satisfied.

Summary of Situational
Variables

Five variables were the most powerful in discriminating
between volunteer satisfaction levels. Very satisfied
volunteers perceived more role clarification, less work
assignment, more autonomy, more friendship opportunities,
and were in the mid range of locus of control. Less
satisfied volunteers perceived an opposite situation and
were more external oriented.

Summary

Chapter V provided results of univariate and multi-
variate analysis of the data collected during Phase II.
Each organization studied was described and an overall

description of the perceptions of volunteer's work environments was provided.

The first multivariate technique utilized (GLM) indicated role clarification and support were related to volunteer satisfaction when no situational variables were considered. Results indicated that neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation levels affected the satisfaction with work and leader behavior main effects relationship when intrinsic motivation was included in the procedure. Hypothesis $3H_0$ and $4H_0$ as stated must be rejected. A relationship was found between one type of instrumental leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction when the volunteer was intrinsically motivated. In addition, leader support was related to volunteer satisfaction in extrinsically motivated volunteers. The results, however, indicated that the alternative hypothesis did not fully explain the relationships present; i.e., role clarification was also positively related to satisfaction in extrinsically motivated volunteers and support was positively related to satisfaction of intrinsically motivated volunteers.

The overall impact of instrumental leader behaviors on satisfaction with work of intrinsically versus extrinsically motivated volunteers was found to be significant. Satisfaction levels of extrinsically motivated individuals were significantly higher if the leader engaged in high levels of all three instrumental leader behaviors. High

levels of instrumental leader behaviors also were related to higher levels of satisfaction in intrinsically motivated individuals but not to the degree present in the extrinsically motivated volunteer.

The use of discriminant analysis allowed the inclusion of multiple task, personal, and leader behavior variables in a model to test the Path-Goal Theory. Figure 1 illustrates the variables included and their hypothesized relationship to volunteer satisfaction. Satisfaction levels were effectively predicted by the degree of leader role clarification and work assignment, autonomy and friendship opportunities present in the task, and the volunteer's locus of control. Each of the variables had a positive impact on satisfaction with work. Leader support was not related significantly to satisfaction in this model. Individual factors and task variables neutralized the relationship between support and satisfaction found in the initial analysis procedure.

The implications for leaders of volunteers and interpretation of the results of the Phase II analysis procedures are discussed in the second part of Chapter VI. In addition, expansions, revisions, and research suggestions will be provided based on the results of this analysis.

FIGURE 1

MODEL OF FACTORS INFLUENCING VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION

LEADER BEHAVIORS

Instrumental
*Role Clarification
*Work Assignment
 Specification of
   Procedures

Supportive

VOLUNTEER
SATISFACTION WITH
WORK

INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

*Motivation Level
*Locus of Control
 Authoritarianism
 Perceived Ability

TASK CHARACTERISTICS

 Role Ambiguity
 Role Conflict
*Friendship Opportunities
 Feedback
 Dealing with Others
 Identity
*Autonomy
 Variety
 Workgroup

*Factors found to be significant discriminators.

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172

CHAPTER VI

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

The objectives of this research were related to the development of an empirically based understanding of leadership in voluntary organizations and the impact of individual, task, and structural characteristics upon leader behaviors in those associations. This chapter focuses on interpretation and discussion of the findings reported in Chapter IV and V. Consequently, the chapter consists of two primary sections. The first section is dedicated to a review of results from the structural characteristics analysis. The second section examines results from the analysis of leader behaviors and situational factors related to satisfaction with work.

Analysis of data collected during Phase I indicated that many of the relationships "traditional" voluntary action scholars hypothesized between size, function, and structure did not exist (see Chapter II for a discussion). As a result, specific attention is paid to several recent theories and empirical studies which provide a basis for the lack of relationship between size, orientation, and structure. The newer, empirically based, theories seem to provide better explanations of the structural phenomena than

173

do the older anecdotal or normative approaches used to deve-
lop the hypotheses tested.

The discussion and interpretation of the leadership
hypotheses analyzed in Chapter IV focuses on the ability of
the Path-Goal Theory to explain relationships which existed.
Results indicated the alternative hypotheses did not fully
explain the leader behavior/volunteer satisfaction rela-
tionships, although both hypotheses tested were statisti-
cally significant. The major emphasis in this section is on
the discussion of test results for the overall Path-Goal
Model (see Figure 1 page 170). The findings are used to
develop a model of factors which impact significantly the
level of satisfaction with work for volunteers in the ten
organizations studied. In addition, several extensions,
modifications, and directions for further research on the
Path-Goal Theory are suggested.

Structural Characteristics Discussion

The hypotheses tested in the first phase of this
research were based on the predictions and general obser-
vations of traditional voluntary action scholars (see Smith
and Reddy, 1971; Stenzel and Feeney, 1968; Smith and
Freedman, 1972; Smith, 1973). Those individuals used their
years of contact and experience with voluntary associations
to generalize about structure, size, and processes in most
voluntary associations. Phase I specifically examined the
relationship between size, orientation, and six organiza-

tional constructs (volunteer input, interaction in decision-making, formality, adhocracy, job codification, and hierarchical control). The hypotheses were developed to provide information on the validity of the views of traditional voluntary action scholars.

Results of the data analysis (Chapter IV) indicated no relationships existed between organizational orientation and the structural constructs utilized in this study. Thus, traditional models of voluntary associations may be inappropriate. Several new, potentially appropriate models of voluntary associations have been proposed (see Hyman, 1983; Walker, 1982; and Pearce, 1978). Although these models were not utilized to develop the hypotheses tested, results obtained were explained to a significant degree by using the constructs of the newer theories. Results were examined and interpreted on the basis of both traditional and non-traditional theories. Utilization of newer, non-traditional theories in addition to traditional theories allowed a better understanding of the processes and structures found in voluntary organizations. In addition, reasons for the existence of those characteristics which run counter to traditional assumptions may be hypothesized.

This section of Chapter VI is segmented into two parts. The first part examines orientation/structure relationships while the second section focuses on the size-structure hypotheses. Each hypothesis is individually examined and

future research directions are suggested based on current theories of voluntary organizations.

Orientation/Structure
Relationships

The major orientation and structure characteristics hypothesis tested was:

1) Ho: There is no relationship between structure and degree of instrumental orientation in voluntary associations. Instrumental orientation is unrelated to formalization, structure, and standardization.

Ha: There is relationship between the structure of voluntary organizations and the degree of instrumental orientation.

Specific sub-hypotheses stating a lack of relationship between orientation and each organization structure characteristic were examined. Those specific hypotheses are enumerated in the discussion section for each in the following section.

The analysis indicated that no significant relationship existed between the organization structure characteristics and the degree of instrumental orientation. Traditional voluntary action scholars have suggested that instrumental orientation is coupled with hierarchical control, work rules, formality, formal structure, and low levels of participation and influence. Results of the analysis of each of those proposed relationships is examined in the following section.

Hierarchical control. Several authors (Walker, 1975; Smith and Reddy, 1971; Stenzel and Feeney, 1968) proposed that voluntary associations must have control over volunteers in order to accomplish the long-term goals of the group. Those authors suggest further that control is accomplished through the use of a hierarchy in most associations.

The sub-hypothesis developed to test the existence of a relationship between orientation and hierarchical control was:

1.a) Ho: Instrumental orientation is unrelated to hierarchical control.

      Ha: Instrumental organizations have higher levels of hierarchical control.

The results of this study did not indicate that organizations which emphasized long-term goals are predisposed to the use of hierarchical control. Instrumental organizations had no more or less hierarchy than did expressive organizations. One author (Lipisky, 1980) suggests that many instrumental associations are characterized, at the lower levels, by volunteers who have a high degree of discretion, develop their own routines, and determine their own output. As a result, control is weak and the volunteers are immune to hierarchical control (Elmore, 1978 and Lipisky, 1980). Such organizations, termed Bureaucratic Process organizations, are usually involved in delivery of social and welfare services, have governmental affiliations, and uti-

lize volunteers for delivery of services. These
Bureaucratic Process Model (BPM) voluntary groups, although
instrumental in nature, operate without high levels of
hierarchical control. Several of the instrumental organiza-
tions which participated in the first phase of this study
seem to exhibit characteristics of a BPM organization.

The statistically insignificant correlation between
hierarchical control and instrumental orientation indicates
the BPM may provide more information about hierarchical
control in an organization than does the orientation of the
association. Future research should be directed at iden-
tifying organizations which fit the BPM and determining if
those groups de-emphasize hierarchy as a control mechanism.

Job codification. The sub-hypothesis developed and
tested for the job codification and instrumental orientation
relationship was as follows:

1.b) Ho: Instrumental orientation is not related to
hierarchical control.

Ha: Instrumental organizations have high levels
of job codification.

The lack of a significant relationship between instrumental
orientation and existence of work rules (job codification)
is also explained by the BPM. Elmore (1978) and Lipisky
(1980) noted that immediate demands of the tasks performed
by volunteers dictated that discretion and routines be left
to the volunteer. Therefore, it would be difficult for the

organization to standardize and codify the task of volunteers through use of work rules.

Pearce (1978) found that voluntary associations have loosely defined norms and work patterns. Pearce states "Most volunteers tended to share responsibilities. No indi- vidual was assigned any specific task. Rather, depending on who was available, all persons were responsible for goal accomplishment and service to clients." The results of this research combined with Pearce's conclusions suggest that volunteer tasks in instrumental organizations are not stan- dardized and volunteers are not subjected to a great many work rules. Factors other than orientation were responsible for determining the degree of task standardization in volunteer work. Research should be directed toward inden- tifying those factors. Potential factors which may be related include function, level of state, regional, or national affiliation, age of the organization, and strength of national offices.

Informality of oligarchy. Smith and Reddy (1971) suggest instrumental voluntary associations develop highly formalized structures to insure continued existence. The following sub-hypothesis was developed to test that conten- tion:

1.c) Ho: Instrumental orientation is unrelated to
            level of formalization.

      Ha: Instrumental organizations have high levels
            of formalization.

Degree of formalization was unrelated to instrumental orientation. The results provided a degree of support for Walker's Coalition model (1983) by indicating that a good deal of informality existed in the organizations studied. The coalition model proposed that voluntary organizations are semi-permanent bargaining coalitions. Decisions and operations are made and implemented through politics rather than formal control, shifts in routines, or concensus building. Leadership, according to the model, is vested in the group with the most power at the moment. Decisions are made based on that group's preferences. Members of other groups are discouraged from speaking out.

Stenzel and Feeney (1968) and Smith and Reddy (1971) concluded that voluntary organizations are usually subjected to oligarchical control by a core group of members who determine policies and practices. The results indicated that most groups were subject to oligarchical control, however, orientation was not related to the degree of formalization of the control group.

Organizations in this sample may fit the coalition model. This would have resulted in the insignificant correlation between formalization and instrumental orientation. Pearce (1978) found evidence to support the coalition model in a variety of voluntary associations. Future investigations should focus on identifying organizations fitting the coalition model and determining if there is any influence on formalization.

Adhocracy.   Instrumental organizations and the long=
term goals associated with the organization would be
expected to lead to a structure which is relatively per-
manent (Smith and Reddy, 1971). The sub-hypothesis deve-
loped to test that relationship was:

> 1.e) Ho: Instrumental orientation is unrelated to
>   the use of temporary problem-solving groups
>   or organizational structures.
>
>   Ha: Instrumental orientation use more
>   permanent organizational structures.

Instrumental orientation had no impact on the degree to
which organizations used temporary groups or committees to
solve internal or external problems. In other words, some
organizations in the sample used temporary structures while
others did not, regardless of the degree of instrumental
orientation.   Hyman (1983) suggests that voluntary asso-
ciations are usually structured along one of two lines: (1)
traditional bureaucractic structure or (2) dialectical
structure. Traditional organizations have highly stratified
formal structures, specific roles, hierarchy, and focus on
means rather than ends.   Dialectical organizations (White,
1969) are very unstructured, fluid, informal associations
focusing on ends rather than means.

Smith and Reddy (1971) suggest that voluntary organiza-
tions are structured along traditional lines while Hyman
(1983) suggests that many represent the dialectical form.
The possible mixture of the types in this sample may have

lead to the weak correlation present in this study. Instrumental orientation did not determine dialectical or traditional form. Studies should segregate organizations on the basis of traditional and dialectical lines before examining any relationship with adhocracy. Dialectical associations (fluid, informal, and unstructured) should have high levels of adhocracy. Traditional associations (emphasis on structure, rules, procedures) would be low on the measure.

    Influence and participation. Walker (1975) suggests that instrumental orientation leads to lower levels of volunteer influence and participation in decision-making was utilized to develop the following sub-hypothesis:

        1.d) Ho: Instrumental orientation is not related to
                 levels of volunteer input and
                 participation.

            Ha: Instrumental organizations have low
                levels of volunteer input and
                participation.

    The hypothesis stating the lack of a relationship between orientation and volunteer influence and participation was examined in terms of two separate constructs due to the factor analysis results. Influence was measured by the construct entitled volunteer influence. Participation was measured by the interaction in decision-making and volunteer input factors.

    Volunteer influence was not related to orientation at

the significance level chosen for this study (p<.05).
However, the level of significance (p=.0659) indicates that
the relationship deserves further testing before being sum-
marily rejected. The correlation which existed may provide
support for the contentions of Walker (1975) which indicated
that instrumental organizations have lower levels of
volunteer influence.

Volunteer participation as measured by interaction in
decision making and input was not related to instrumental
orientation. The interaction construct was significant at a
level of p=.1004; however, upon close examination of the
items, there may be some confusion as to what the instrument
actually measures. Wording of the items included in the
factor inquire as to the degree of interaction by indivi-
duals (not necessarily volunteers) in decision making.
Respondents may have included paid staff as well as volun-
teers in the responses. One would expect leaders of non-
profit and voluntary groups to report higher levels of
interaction, since leaders in those organizations emphasize
interaction to a greater extent than do managers of profit-
oriented organizations (Gatewood and Lahiff, 1977; Rawls,
Ullrich, and Nelson, 1973). Future studies should more
carefully state the items in the participation construct in
order that volunteers' interaction in decision making be
properly measured.

The results of the analysis did not support the conten-

tion of Wood (1981) that leaders of voluntary associations, by their nature, neither allow nor encourage high levels of input. Factors other than orientation determine input levels. Leaders of many voluntary groups see the organiza- tion as a model of democracy and therefore emphasize democractic processes based on participant input (Langton, 1981: 8). The leader's perception of the organization's democratic purposes would determine the degree of volunteer input. Additional research should be directed toward exami- nation of the relationship between the leader's perception of the purpose of the group (democratic vs. non-democratic processes) and amount of volunteer input.

Size/Structure Relationships

The results of the size/structure relationships were more supportive of the contentions of traditional voluntary action scholars than were the results of the orientation analyses. The general size and structure hypothesis tested was:

2) H_o: There is no relationship between organiza- tion size and degree of formalization, structure,standardization, influence, and interaction.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between size and voluntary organization structure. Larger organizations will be more for malized, structured, and have lower levels of volunteer interaction, influence, and participation.

Specific sub-hypotheses were developed to test each

relationship mentioned. These will be enumerated in each section discussing the results of the sub-hypotheses tests. One null sub-hypothesis was rejected, one was significant at levels indicating need for further investigation, and the remainder were not significant.

   Volunteer input. The sub-hypothesis of interest was as follows:

   2.d) H_o: Voluntary organization size is not related to the level of volunteer participation and influence.

   H_a: Larger voluntary organizations will have lower levels of volunteer participation and influence.

   Volunteer input decreased as size of the budget and paid staff increased. This indicated that larger organizations do have lower levels of volunteer input. This research supported the findings of Warner and Hilander (1964) and Sills (1957) that larger voluntary associations had less volunteer input. As the budget and number of paid staff increase the organization begins to focus on administration of programs and may feel that volunteers provide only "cheap", low quality labor. Volunteer input and opinions are discouraged. Leaders may find it difficult to include the input of volunteers in addition to the input of paid professional staff.

Volunteer interaction. Interaction in voluntary asso-
ciations is hypothesized to decrease as size increases.
Walker suggests that larger organizations keep volunteers
insulated from the operations of the organization. The
following sub-hypothesis was developed to test the
relationship:

2.e) H_0: Voluntary organization size is not related
to levels of volunteer interaction.

H_a: Larger voluntary associations will have
lower levels of volunteer interaction.

Volunteer interaction was unrelated to all three
measures of size. Pearce (1978) found that most decisions
in voluntary associations were committee decisions and deci-
sion makers were likely to contact other individuals at any
time or place to develop solutions. The democratic value
system and participatory nature of most voluntary organiza-
tions leads to high levels of interaction (Rothschild-Witt,
1979). Small, as well as large voluntary associations
depend on social interaction in all aspects of their opera-
tions. Larger organizations have high levels of interac-
tion, however, that interaction may be limited to a core
group of individuals (Stenzel and Feeney, 1968).

Job codification. The following sub-hypothesis was uti-
lized to test the relationship between size and job codifi-
cation:

2.b) H_0: Voluntary organization size is unrelated to
levels of job codification.

H_a: Larger organizations will have high levels of job codification.

Two of the three size measures, budget and number of volunteers were significant at levels of $p<.10$, indicating a need for additional research into the relationship before drawing conclusions. The larger the budget of the organization the more likely the volunteers were to have rules and regulations to follow in performing their tasks. Larger numbers of volunteers were also related to higher levels of job codification. The results indicated that Smith and Reddy (1971) and Sills (1957) were correct when they observed that most large organizations tended to be highly structured with high levels of standardization. The correlation coefficient, although not statistically significant, was strong enough to indicate that further research into the job codification, budget and number of volunteers relationship is warranted.

<u>Volunteer influence</u>. Organizations which are larger would be expected to have lower levels of volunteer influence and participation. The following sub-hypothesis was developed for testing:

2.d) H_0: Voluntary organization size is not related to the level of volunteer participation and influence.

H_a: Larger voluntary organizations will have lower levels of volunteer participation and influence.

Size of the paid staff was negatively correlated (r=.-12, p=.1258) with volunteer influence. The findings suggest that Langton's (1981) contention that increases in paid staff members result in decreased volunteer influence warrants further investigation. Langton states "Professional staff feel that volunteers do not have the training necessary to make the correct decisions in many situations." Thus, decision-making becomes more centralized when paid staff increases. Additional research which specifically measures the paid staff size and volunteer influence in the organization should provide more conclusive results.

Hierarchical control. Several voluntary action scholars suggest that large organizations emphasize hierarchy to control the volunteers. The following sub-hypothesis was developed for testing:

2.a) H_0: Hierarchical control is unrelated to organization size.

   H_a: Larger voluntary organizations will have higher levels of hierarchical control.

The lack of a significant correlation between hierarchical control and size measures indicated further support for the Bureaucratic Process model. Smith and Reddy (1971), Stenzel and Feeney (1968), and Walker's (1975) observations that large voluntary associations typically have a high degree of hierarchical control were not supported by the results. However, the results indicated the Bureaucratic

Process model is deserving of further investigation to determine its relationship with hierarchical control.

   Formalization. Larger organizations have a tendency to be more formalized (Smith and Reddy, 1971). The following hypothesis was developed to test that contention:

   2.c) H_0: Voluntary organization size is unrelated to the degree of formalization.

   H_a: Larger voluntary associations will be more formalized.

   Formality of the oligarchy was not related to organizational size. The degree of formalization in voluntary associations was related to some factor other than size. The conclusions of Smith and Reddy (1971) that large associations are more formalized was not supported. Other factors such as national affilitation, function, etc., may be more predictive of the degree of formalization in a particular association.

Summary of Phase
   One Results

Results of the analysis of structure, size and orientation relationships indicated the unique nature of voluntary associations. The structural characteristics, norms, and relationships found in voluntary associations were nebulous. No current model adequately predicted the structural properties of voluntary organizations. Research is needed in order to understand the factors which influence the structure of

voluntary groups. Findings from this study indicated that
neither orientation nor size are robust predictors of struc-
ture. Various results indicated support for portions of
several models. The Bureaucratic Process (Lipisky, 1981),
the Coalition (Walker, 1983), and the Dialectical models
(White, 1969) seemed to be more predictive of the structural
properties present in the organizations studied. Research
is needed to classify organizations according to those
models and to determine if those models accurately predict
structure.

Findings from this study supported the contentions of
Pearce (1978) and Walker (1982) that structure, as defined
in the profit sector, does not exist in voluntary asso-
ciations. In fact, voluntary associations may well fit the
Garbage Can model (March and Olsen, 1978). That model sta-
tes that choices (structures) are largely determined by
situations in which decision makers find themselves. Those
choice situations are caused by processes preceeding choice.
Those processes include the previous organizational struc-
ture, degree of interaction with the environment, decision-
making practices, etc. Structure in voluntary associations
seems to be determined by a random stream of events over
time. Consequently, no matter which model is used, the
study of voluntary associations will continue to be dif-
ficult.

The results of this phase of the study provided

valuable insight into the structural properties of voluntary associations. The information was unavailable from other sources and proved helpful in interpretation of the relationship between leader behaviors, situational variables, and satisfaction with work. Those results are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Leadership in Voluntary Associations
Discussion and Interpretation

Chapter V reported results of the analysis of data obtained during the second round of data collection. The information dealt with leader behaviors, situational variables, and satisfaction of volunteers. Two data analysis procedures were used to understand the relationships present.

Major objectives of this study related to understanding leadership in voluntary associations, its relationship with volunteer satisfaction levels, and testing in a unique setting the explanatory powers of the Path-Goal theory. No previous studies had specifically examined the existence of a relationship between leader behaviors and outcomes in voluntary associations. The first analysis procedure was explantory in nature. Basically, the objective was to determine if individual leadership behaviors were related to volunteer satisfaction with work.

Two hypotheses developed from propositions related to the Path-Goal theory were analyzed. These were:

3) H_0: There is no relationship between instrumental leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction with work when the volunteer is intrinsically motivated to perform volunteer tasks.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between instrumental leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction with work when the is intrinsically motivated to perform volunteer tasks.

4) H_0: Considerate or supportive leader behaviors are not related to level of volunteer satisfaction in extrinsically motivated volunteers. Environmental and personal characteristics are unrelated to satisfaction with supportive behaviors.

H_a: There is a positive relationship between supportive leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction with work in extrinsically motivated volunteers. Environmental and personal characteristics will moderate the relationship according to the Path-Goal theory.

The initial procedure provided the information needed to examine the impact of motivation type, intrinsic or extrinsic, on satisfaction with various leader behaviors. The results supported the alternative hypotheses but indicated the relationships were not fully explained by the stated hypotheses.

Discriminant analysis methods were used to determine which task and personal variables influenced the relationship between leader behaviors and satisfaction with work uncovered during the initial analysis. Results indicated the Path-Goal theory provided a viable approach to understanding leadership in voluntary organizations.

Path-Goal logic was utilized in the last section of this chapter to develop an understanding of the relationships between leader behaviors, task structure, personal charac- teristics, and satisfaction uncovered by discriminant analy- sis. The remainder of this chapter focuses on interpretation of results from the initial analysis and the discriminant analysis procedure.

Intrinsic
Motivation

Volunteers who are intrinsically motivated have a belief in the overall goals of the organization or a commit- ment to help those individuals who are served by the asso- ciation. Intrinsically motivated volunteers cite factors such as full utilization of their abilities, helping a worthwhile cause, accomplishing an important goal, and taking pride in what they do as reasons that others volunteer. These factors are similar to those used to tap intrinsic motivation in for-profit sector research (Dermer, 1975).

The hypothesis of interest in this situation was:

3) H_a: There is a positive relationship between
             instrumental leader behavior and volunteer
             satisfaction with work when the volunteer
             is intrinsically motivated to perform
             volunteer tasks.

The implication of this hypothesis is instrumental leader behaviors are more satisfying than supportive behaviors to intrinsically motivated volunteers regardless of task or

personal characteristics. The overriding importance of the intrinsic motivation leads to valence which approaches unity. Volunteer expectancy (EII) also would approach the maximum, since intrinsic rewards are self-administered and effort would be tied directly to the outcome. Therefore, only those leader behaviors which are instrumental in the attainment of future satisfactions, intrinsic in this instance, would be a source of satisfaction to the individual.

Supportive or considerate leader behaviors hypo- thetically would not serve any particular purpose beyond satisfaction of immediate social needs not fulfilled through interaction on the job. Dependency upon leader behavior for such satisfaction is significantly reduced to the extent that satisfaction is provided the individual by the task itself (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1983). Extrinsic factors, by definition, would be of less concern to intrinsically moti- vated volunteers.

The initial test of hypothesis three indicated that one of three instrumental leader behaviors was related to satis- faction levels of volunteers, whether intrinsically or extrinsically motivated (see Table 26). Role clarification, the extent which a leader informs subordinates about their duties and responsibilities and lets individuals know what is expected of them, was related to higher levels of satis- faction with work. Role clarification would be responsible

for increasing instrumentality by providing the volunteer
with an idea of how their role or task relates to the
overall objective of the organization as well as indicating
the importance of the role in obtaining the ultimate goal of
the group. The relationship between satisfaction with work
and role clarification would be predicted for intrinsically
motivated volunteers but not for extrinsically motivated
individuals. The implications of a relationship between
role clarification and satisfaction in extrinsics are
discussed in the next section.

TABLE 26

LEADER BEHAVIORS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP
TO VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION WITH WORK

Behavior	Significance level
Role clarification	.0004
Specification of procedures	.3905
Work assignment	.3298
Support	.0011

Specification of procedures and work assignment were
unrelated to satisfaction scores. Neither behavior served
any instrumental or immediate satisfaction function for
either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated volunteers,
however task or personal characteristics not included in the
initial analysis may have concealed potential relationships

which existed.

Supportive leader behaviors did relate to subordinate satisfaction. Higher levels of supportive behaviors were related to higher levels of satisfaction with work in both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated volunteers. The relationship was expected for extrinsically motivated volunteers due to supportive behaviors serving as an immediate source of satisfaction as well as increasing the intrinsic value of the task (Yukl, 1981). The unexpected relationship indicated that supportive behavior was related to satisfaction in intrinsically motivated volunteers. The explanation for this relationship may revolve around the reasons that individuals volunteer. Research indicates that two work related factors serve as satisfiers regardless of motivation to volunteer. Those factors, content and context, relate to the actual work performed and the work environment, respectively (Gidron, 1983). Supportive leader behaviors increase satisfaction with context factors by making the work place more pleasing, reducing boredom, and increasing interaction. The results indicate intrinsically motivated volunteers look to supportive leader behaviors to increase sources of immediate satisfaction if the task does not provide the appropriate contextual satisfactions.

The results indicate, even in intrinsically motivating situations, that supportive or participative behaviors may serve the purpose of increasing satisfaction with work if

other factors do not supply the appropriate satisfactions. The findings suggest that a mid-range emphasis in such leader behavior may be appropriate. Howell and Dorfman (1981) obtained similar results in a study of a community hospital. Supportive behaviors become important if the goal of the organization (and individual) is long term and progress toward the goal is relatively slow. Intrinsically motivated volunteers would then look to leader behaviors which supplement the satisfactions they receive from task progress.

Extrinsic Motivation

Individuals may associate with volunteer organizations for reasons other than commitment to a cause, goal, or derivation of a sense of accomplishment. Extrinsically motivated volunteers participate for reasons such as opportunities to meet new people, social interaction, recognition, status, and gaining an advantage in their paid employment (Scheirer, 1981). Gaining those rewards, rather than intrinsic factors, become of paramount importance for those individuals.

Hypothesis four basically was the complement of Hypothesis three. In addition, hypothesis four added that task and personal variables would moderate the relationship between extrinsically motivated volunteers and satisfaction with supportive behaviors. The alternative hypothesis of interest was:

4. H_a: There is a positive relationship between
            considerate leader behavior and volunteer
            satisfaction in extrinsically motivated
            volunteers. Environmental and personal
            characteristics moderate the relationship
            according to the Path-Goal theory.

It was hypothesized that extrinsically motivated volunteers
would derive satisfaction from leader behaviors which pro-
vided immediate sources of satisfaction. Instrumental beha-
viors would not be as important since they provided future
satisfaction through attainment of organization goals, goals
to which the volunteer may not be committed. Extrinsically
motivated volunteers would emphasize social interaction,
recognition and exposure which might lead to benefits in
paid employment, and de-emphasize intrinsic rewards which
might be provided through attainment of organizational
goals. The focus of the individual on external factors in
the organization would allow task and personal charac-
teristics to influence the level of satisfaction with any
particular style of leader behavior. One would expect this
situation to be similar to a paid work environment.

     The results indicated that only a part of the hypothe-
sis was correct. Consideration was related to satisfaction
in extrinsically motivated volunteers, however, one instru-
mental behavior, role clarification, also was related to
satisfaction with work.   The relationship between role
clarification and satisfaction in extrinsically motivated
volunteers was unexpected, since such leader behavior is not

viewed as a source of immediate satisfaction. Rather, it would seem that role clarification would be significant only if the volunteer wished to achieve some outcome over which the leader had control.

Close examination of the motivations of extrinsically motivated individuals may provide an explanation for the existence of the relationships. Extrinsic rewards, other than social interaction, influence the behavior of some volunteers. Certain individuals volunteer in order to receive recognition and rewards as an indirect result of volunteer activity. Examples might be the individual who volunteers in order to vie for a "volunteer of the month" award which appears in a local newspaper or the individual in charge of a fund drive who gets the opportunity to meet many "important" persons in the community. Leader behaviors which serve to clarify the path and remove frustrating barriers to those goals would be satisfying to individuals in those instances. Thus, particular instrumental leader behaviors may serve as satisfiers to certain types of extrinsically motivated individuals in the organizations studied.

Situations exist where people are "volunteered" for organizations by implicit or explicit threats from their employer. Instrumental leader behaviors such as role clari- fication will influence satisfaction even in those instan- ces. Leadership behavior that involves strengthening reward

contingencies will have the greatest effect on individual
outcomes when the leader has substantial power over rewards
(non-monetary, extrinsic in this situation) and the indivi-
duals are not already highly motivated (Yukl, 1981).

Importance of Leader Behaviors to Satisfaction with Work

No empirical test of the relationship between leader
behaviors and volunteer satisfaction with work had been con-
ducted prior to this research. Practitioners and theorists
assumed that leader behavior was related to volunteer satis-
faction (Scheirer, 1981). Considerate behaviors, in par-
ticular, were emphasized as more appropriate than
instrumental or task oriented leader behaviors. This heavy
emphasis on supportive behavior seems to stem from a depen-
dence on the works of McGregor and others in the human rela-
tions movement (LaCour, 1977). The validity of such
profit-oriented prescriptions were never tested in voluntary
associations.

A final hypothesis was developed to determine whether
supportive or instrumental leader behaviors were emphasized
by leaders of volunteers. The hypothesis was:

    5). H_0: There is no particular style of leadership
                  emphasized by leaders of volunteers.

           H_a: Supportive leader behaviors are engaged in
                  more frequently than instrumental behaviors
                  by leaders of volunteers.

Results from this research indicated that leaders in the

sampled organizations did emphasize supportive leader beha-
viors as opposed to instrumental behaviors. The dependence
on a particular style of leadership may be inappropriate in
many situations (Fiedler, 1967; Vroom and Yetton, 1978;
House and Mitchell, 1974).

Hypotheses three and four were developed to test the
situational concept that different leader behaviors were
related to satisfaction with work in different situations.
The situational function tested initially was that of
volunteer motivation type; intrinsic or extrinsic. It was
predicted that consideration or supportive behavior was most
appropriate for extrinsically motivated volunteers while
instrumental behaviors would be most significant to intrin-
sics. Results indicated the relationships were not that
simple, however, leadership behaviors definitely were
related to satisfaction with work for volunteers.

The initial analysis indicated a strong third degree
interaction effect between satisfaction and all three
instrumental leader behaviors for different types of motiva-
tion. Instrumental leader behaviors in combination had a
larger effect on satisfaction levels of extrinsically moti-
vated volunteers. Motivation type becomes a moderator or
suppressor of the effect of leader behavior on satisfaction.
Intrinsically motivated volunteers had high levels of satis-
faction even in situations where the leader exhibited only
low levels of each behavior. Higher levels of instrumental

behavior were related to increased satisfaction, but not to the degree present in extrinsically motivated volunteers. The commitment of the volunteer to organizational goals and the resulting intrinsic motivation results in higher levels of satisfaction regardless of situational variations.

Extrinsically motivated individuals reported higher levels of satisfaction than intrinsics when the leader was very active and emphasized role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment. The instrumental behaviors were satisfying because they lead to future satisfactions; i.e. less time spent in the organization, recognition for work, reduction of role conflict and ambiguity, and low levels of personal commitment and involvement. Figure 2 shows the interaction effect between motivation, instrumental leader behaviors, and satisfaction with work.

The results of this research contribute to the understanding of the impact of leader behaviors on satisfaction of volunteers. This initial empirical study indicated leader behavior is important; in fact, instrumental leader behavior may be critical when dealing with individuals who volunteer for reasons other than commitment to organizational purposes. In addition, instrumental leader behaviors are significantly related to satisfaction and therefore, should not be avoided by leaders of volunteers.

FIGURE 2

INSTRU'ENTAL LEADER BEHAVIOR
AND MOTIVATION INTERACTION
EFFECT ON SATISFACTION

Degree of Instrumental Leader
Behavior Exhibited
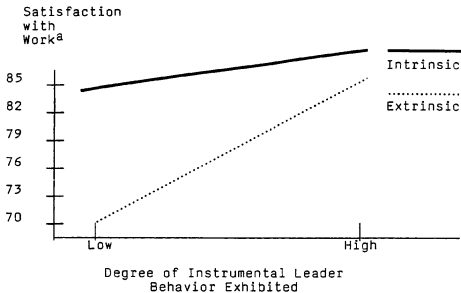
[a] The satisfaction with work scale consists of the summation of the nine items indicating intrinsic satisfaction with work and the items from the JDI satisfaction with work scale.

Voluntary associations should develop training programs in which leaders are trained in the utilization of specific instrumental behaviors when dealing with volunteers. Intrinsically and extrinsically motivated volunteers' satisfaction levels are positively affected by both instrumental and supportive leader behaviors. The findings run counter to traditional prescriptions on leading volunteers which suggest that supportive behaviors are of paramount impor-

tance to volunteer satisfaction with work. Voluntary asso-
ciations which emphasize supportive leader behaviors would
appear to be missing an opportunity to have higher levels of
satisfaction by encouraging leaders to exhibit instrumental
behaviors as well.

Leader Behaviors and Situational Variables Related to Volunteer Satisfaction

One of the major contributions of Path Goal Theory to
the study of leadership is the inclusion of a variety of
situational variables. An objective of this research was to
test the Path Goal theory in voluntary organization settings
to determine if the results were similar to tests in the
for-profit sector. The initial data analysis procedure
included only one situational variable and therefore did not
meet the stated objective. In addition, the results of the
procedure indicated that relationships between satisfaction
and leader behaviors in voluntary associations were more
complex than first thought. A multivariate technique which
could handle the number of variables included in the Path
Goal model and one which could simplify the complex interac-
tions was used for further analysis. The following sections
discusses the results and implications of the discriminant
analysis procedure utilized.

Figure 3 shows the significant discriminators between
satisfied, moderately satisfied, and very satisfied volun-
teers. The model includes two instrumental leader behav-

FIGURE 3

PROFILE OF SATISFIED, MODERATELY SATISFIED
AND VERY SATISFIED VOLUNTEERS ON THE BASIS
OF FIVE CHARACTERISTICS
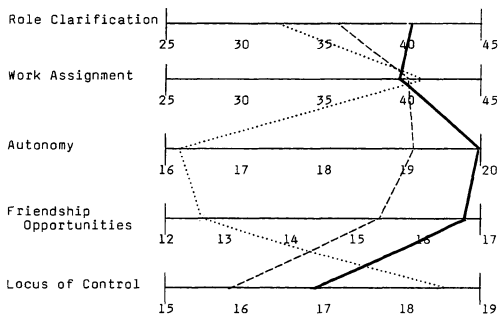
Legend: Satisfied ···············: Moderately Satisfied ‒‒‒‒‒‒‒:
        Very Satisfied ▬▬▬▬▬ :

DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS

Group	Constant	RC	WA	Autonomy	FO	LC
Very Satis	-63.25	+.61	+.51	+1.1218	+.72	+2.51
Mod Satis.	-55.68	+.50	+.57	+1.223	+.62	+2.31
Satisfied	-56.94	+.46	+.59	+1.017	+.47	+2.68

RC – role clarification   WA – work assignment
FO – friendship
     opportunities   LC – Locus of control

iors, two task behaviors, and one personal characteristic. Significant in its absence is supportive leader behavior. This will be discussed at a later point. The variables included in the model are examined separately and the implications of the overall model are discussed in the following section.

Role clarification. Role clarification as measured in this research is defined as "clarifying management expectations of volunteers in their work." The behavior relates to providing goals and stating performance and quality levels expected. The standardized discriminant coefficient weight indicated this behavior was one of the more important variables determining the level of satisfaction with work. The inclusion of this variable in the final model indicated that, regardless of personal or task considerations, role clarification was related to satisfaction with work.

Yukl (1981) proposes that role clarification is most essential in the following situations:

When subordinates lack experience and don't know what to do or how to do it.

When the work is complex and unstructured, and subordinates rely on the leader for guidance about objectives, procedures, and priorities.

When the organization has elaborate rules and regulations, and subordinates are not familiar with them.

When the unit receives many short tasks or projects to perform, and the leader must frequently give new assignments to subordinates.

When changes in the nature of the work or the organization of activities require a redefinition of subordinate work roles.

Results from the study of voluntary organization characteristics indicated the environment of voluntary associations closely match those criteria appropriate for role clarification. Volunteer work is unstructured, relatively short term, and varies a great deal within the organization. In addition, volunteers usually work for the association only one to three years at most and may never fully understand or become familiar with the objectives, and priorities of the group. Structural and task characteristics create the need for role clarification in voluntary associations.

Work assignment. Work assignment is the degree to which leaders "assign volunteers to specific tasks." Results indicated that work assignment contributed positively to satisfaction but only when lower levels of the work assignment were engaged in by the leader. This indicated that a threshold of work assignment was necessary. Anything below or above that level would result in lower levels of satisfaction. Volunteers prefer a leader who does assign them to particular tasks but does not emphasize task assignment beyond some threshold level. This most likely results from the short time periods which most volunteers spend in the organization. They do not wish to waste time waiting

for an assignment but do not want the leaders to be too spe-
cific about the assignment (See the specification of proce-
dures discussion).

Specification of procedures. Specification of proce-
dures is defined as "enforcing rules, developing procedures,
or work methods" (Howell and Dorfman, 1981). Those beha-
viors did not provide any discriminant power in determining
satisfaction levels. The non-existence of job codification
in instrumental voluntary associations uncovered and
discussed during the Phase I analysis would lead one to
expect that specification of procedures would be difficult
for the leader. **The nature of the work done by volunteers,
i.e. small, low skill level, high social interaction tasks,
renders specification of procedures unnecessary.** Leaders
may engage in specification of procedures but such behaviors
are ignored by the volunteers who develop their own proce-
dures and work rules. Specification of procedures, there-
fore, is insignificant in the overall model and not
included.

Support. Supportive behavior is the amount of warmth,
trust, and concern shown by the leader for subordinates.
Behaviors which create that atmosphere would include making
the job pleasant, being thoughtful and considerate, doing
personal favors, developing a friendly working relationship,
and being polite. Such behaviors lead to reduction of bore-

dom in routine tasks, making a bad job tolerable, increasing self-confidence, and reducing anxiety. Those outcomes result in more intrinsically satisfying jobs and increased effort to performance expectancy (Yukl, 1981: 150).

Supportive behaviors were not significant discriminators between the levels of satisfaction with work when task and personal characteristics were included. Results from the initial analysis indicated a significant main effect of supportive behavior on satisfaction with work, however, the analysis did not include any situational or personal characteristics. The main effect between support and satisfaction seems to have been influenced by task structure and personal characteristics included in the discriminant analysis. The absence of supportive behaviors in the final model indicates that one of the situational variables served as a substitute for considerate behavior.

Yukl (1981) suggests that supportive or considerate leader behavior is essential and will contribute to leader effectiveness only in the following instances:

When the work is boring and tedious.

When subordinates lack self-confidence, feel insecure, and depend on the leader for support and encouragement.

When subordinates have strong affiliation needs and are concerned about acceptance by the leader.

When the leader works in close proximity to subordinates and/or must interact frequently with them due to the nature of the task.

When subordinates have substantial counterpower over the leader and are able to determine whether he(she) retains the leadership position.

The results from the first phase of this research indicated that those situations mentioned are unusual in voluntary associations. Most volunteers perform tasks for only a few hours per week, therefore, boredom does not become a major concern. The existence of oligarchical control in voluntary associations reduces the power of rank and file volunteers over leaders, and the large amount of interaction between volunteers reduces the need for interaction with the leader. Finally, volunteers are usually assigned tasks well within their skill levels eliminating self-confidence and insecurity problems. The structure of voluntary associations and the task characteristics render supportive behavior ineffective in discriminating between levels of volunteer satisfaction. An understanding of the structure of voluntary associations provides the information needed to determine the reasons for supportive behaviors being excluded from the model.

Autonomy. The task characteristic of autonomy is defined as freedom to do the work, as well as discretion in scheduling, decision-making, and means of accomplishing the job (Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller; 1976). The final discriminant model indicated that autonomy was the most significant discriminator of satisfaction with work. Volunteers

were more satisfied when they perceived their position to have higher levels of autonomy. The results indicate that autonomy serves as a neutralizer for specification of procedures.

The overall importance of autonomy to volunteers explains the absence of specification of procedures in the final model. Leaders who specified procedures for task accomplishment would, by definition, reduce or eliminate autonomy. Role clarification, on the other hand, provides the volunteer with information concerning performance levels and how their task fits in the overall process. Autonomy is not affected by the degree of role clarification.

It is interesting to note the lack of heirarchical control and job codification found in voluntary associations during the first phase of this research. The discussion of the results indicated that voluntary associations may follow a Bureaucratic Process model of organization. Volunteers would always have high levels of autonomy in those types of organizations. Perhaps, voluntary associations have adapted themselves to the needs of the volunteers, at least in the area of autonomy. This would explain the wide divergence of opinion between traditional voluntary association structure scholars and current theorists.

Friendship opportunities. This characteristic is the degree to which a job allows individuals to talk to one another on the job and to establish informal relationships with others at work (Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller; 1976). House and Mitchell (1974) suggest that supportive or considerate leader behaviors are appropriate when tasks are dissatisfying, frustrating, or stressful. House (1971) implies that factors such as interaction with co-workers and friendship opportunities may render supportive leader behaviors unnecessary even when the tasks are dissatisfying, frustrating, and stressful. Results from this study indicated that volunteers viewed their tasks as satisfying and non-stressful. In addition, the importance of friendship opportunities as a discriminator indicated that it neutralized the need for supportive behaviors.

Locus of control. The variable locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe they control their lives through their own actions (internal) or are controlled by events over which they have no influence (externals). Research (Dessler, 1974) indicates internals are more satisfied with participative leader behaviors and externals are most satisfied with instrumental behaviors.

Individuals in this sample reported lower levels of satisfaction with work if they scored on the upper or lower end of the internal/external scale. Volunteers who scored in the mid-range on the locus of control measure were

generally more satisfied with volunteer work.

Tenets of the Path-Goal theory would suggest that internals would not be satisfied with leader behaviors which do not allow them to be involved in controlling their actions. Thus, instrumental behaviors adopted unilaterally by the leader would not be as satisfying as the same actions when the individual was allowed to participate in the decision. Only participative behavior allows such involvement. Since participative behaviors were not included in this study, one would expect a lower level of satisfaction for internals who were subjected to instrumental behaviors.

Externals are more satisfied with instrumental leader behaviors according to Mitchell (1973). On the surface, it appears the results do not support his findings. Externals had lower levels of satisfaction in a model that included two of three instrumental leader behaviors. Durand and Nord (1976) found that externals rate leaders higher on instrumental and lower on consideration than do internals. Externals are more sensitive to external events and tend to perceive actions of leaders as influence attempts. Mitchell's findings may have resulted from externals' bias of reporting behaviors as instrumental when they really were not. In addition, the results from this study may only indicate that externals are generally more dissatisfied with volunteer work.

The personal characteristic locus of control seems to

be a strong moderator of the satisfaction with work and leader behavior relationship. Future research should be directed toward answering two important questions: (1) does the tendency of externals to report higher levels of instrumental behaviors render the satisfaction with instrumental behavior relationship found by Mitchell inaccurate and; (2) are externals generally less satisfied with volunteer work that are internals?

Implications of the Model

The final model which best discriminated between levels of volunteer satisfaction included five significant variables. Two were instrumental leader behaviors, two were task characteristics, and one was a personal characteristic of the volunteer. The model suggested several implications for both leadership in voluntary setting and the Path-Goal theory in general. The following sections discuss some of those implications.

Leadership in voluntary associations. The results of this study provide voluntary associations with evidence that leader behaviors are related to volunteers' satisfaction with work. No previous research had been conducted to determine if such a relationship existed. Not only was the relationship between satisfaction and leader behaviors established, but specific leader behaviors which discriminated between levels of volunteer satisfaction were iden-

tified. In addition, the use of a situational model of leadership allowed the inclusion of task characteristics and volunteer personality constructs. Using a situational model allows one to develop an understanding of additional factors which may influence volunteers' satisfaction with work.

No other empirically based test of a situational model of leadership in voluntary associations has been conducted. The results indicated that satisfaction with work in voluntary organizations results from a complex interaction of leader behaviors, task, and personal characteristics. Pearce (1978) concludes that leadership is as important to voluntary associations as it is to employing organizations. Findings from the present study suggest that it (leadership) also is as complex, if not more complex, than leadership in the for-profit sector. Therefore, voluntary associations must be aware of leadership styles which are appropriate for dealing with volunteers and the special circumstances such as the task, organizational structure, and individual characteristics.

Leaders of volunteers should note two important findings from this research, first, evidence indicated that supportive leader behaviors did not effectively discriminate between levels of satisfaction with work. That is, the level of supportive behavior is not associated with the level of volunteer satisfaction. Volunteers are not influenced to any major degree by supportive behaviors.

This does not imply that leaders should ignore supportive behaviors or that such behaviors are unnecessary. Instead, it suggests that such behavior does not have a major impact on the individual volunteer's satisfaction level. The current emphasis on supportive behaviors utilized by leaders in voluntary associations (LaCour, 1977) is inappropriate if the organizations wish to increase the satisfaction with work for volunteers. Volunteers' satisfaction levels are effected to a greater degree by two instrumental behaviors. Fulk and Wendler (1982) suggest the major task for leaders may be not only to avoid the inappropriate display of constructuve behaviors but also to avoid the exhibition of less constructive behaviors as well. Although not supported by this research, Fulk and Wendler's findings suggest that unnecessary emphasis on supportive behaviors may have substantial and immediate dysfunctional effects for volunteers. Additional research into that hypothesis would be warranted.

LaCour, (1974) suggests leaders of volunteers do not use instrumental or directive behaviors due to fear of alienating volunteers. Such behaviors are often viewed by leaders as being dissatisfying to volunteers and running counter to the democratic purposes of voluntary associations. This study indicates the assumption that instrumental leader behaviors are dissatisfying is not well founded. Role clarification, in fact, is one of the most

important factors that influences levels of volunteer satis-
faction. In addition, a degree of work assignment appears
to be necessary for higher levels of satisfaction. The only
instrumental behavior that was not a significant discrimina-
tor of satisfaction levels was specification of procedures.
Volunteers were unaffected by the degree to which the leader
engaged in specification of procedures.

A significant implication of the results is that
instrumental leader behaviors serve an important function in
voluntary associations. **Instrumental behaviors are more
important than supportive behaviors in predicting the satis-
faction level of volunteers.** The positive impact of instru-
mental behaviors and the neutral influence of supportive
behaviors should not be ignored by leaders of volunteers.

The results indicated that certain task characteristics
also were important discriminators of satisfaction with
volunteer work. Those volunteers who perceived the task
they performed as having greater levels of autonomy and
friendship opportunities tended to be members of the high
satisfaction group. **The results indicated that volunteer
tasks should be structured to provide high levels of auto-
nomy and friendship opportunities.** Those factors were the
only task characteristics found to significantly influence
satisfaction with work. All others, including role ambi-
guity, role conflict, dealing with others, variety, iden-
tity, feedback, and work group relations were found not to

be important for classifying the satisfaction level of volunteers. The findings from this investigation suggest that voluntary associations should not be overly concerned with providing variety, identity, and other such task characteristics in order to increase satisfaction with volunteer work. The very nature of volunteer work (short hours, individual control, frequent duty changes, etc.) minimizes the influence of those factors on satisfaction with work.

The personality characteristic, locus of control, was the only personal characteristic included in the discriminant model. The results indicated that individuals who were either high internal or high external orientation were less likely to be satisfied with volunteer work. It seems that due to personality factors those individuals will be less likely to be influenced by "appropriate" leader behaviors and task structure. Leaders of volunteers should be prepared to face lower levels of satisfaction when they deal with individuals who are high in either internal or external orientation. Initial screening of volunteers could provide the necessary information to determine the volunteer's locus of control. This information could in turn be used to anticipate those volunteers who will tend to be dissatisfied regardless of the leader's behavior or the task assignments.

This study provided the first empirically based infor-

mation that leaders of volunteers may use to understand those leader behaviors and environmental factors that are important in determining the satisfaction level of volunteers. Results indicated that leadership practices currently emphasized in the voluntary leadership literature may well be inappropriate for many volunteers. Additional research is needed before final conclusions may be reliably drawn.

Path-Goal Theory
Implications

Results of this research generally were supportive of Path-Goal propositions. The framework of the model proved to be valid for use in studying leadership in voluntary associations. Some of the results indicated that parts of the model may need to be altered when being applied to leadership in voluntary organizations; however, none of the revisions suggest the Path-Goal Theory is not a viable framework for future study. In addition, the outcomes from this research indicated that newer measures of leader behavior (such as the scale utilized) and other methodologies might provide more information about relationships between all variables and the satisfaction with work outcome than did discriminant analysis. Revisions to the theory, measures, and future methodologies which were suggested by this research are discussed at the end of this section.

First, results indicate that instrumental behaviors

should be broken into the component behaviors (role clarification, specification of procedures, and work assignment) if a full understanding of the model is ever to be achieved. This study indicated only two of three instrumental behaviors were related to satisfaction in the voluntary situation. Previous studies (Stinson and Johnson, 1975; Schriesheim and Von Glinow, 1977) report inconsistencies in the relationship between satisfaction and instrumental behavior. These inconsistencies may result from using a global measure of instrumental behavior. The instrument developed by Schriesheim (1979) and utilized in this research may reduce those inconsistencies. Campbell (1977) suggests that use of measures of leader behavior which are less global than "instrumental" or "supportive" will allow detection of stronger and more meaningful leader behavior relationships with outcomes.

Two major hypotheses (Hypothesis 3 and 4) tested in this study were based on volunteer's motivation (intrinsic or extrinsic) having an impact on the appropriate leader behaviors. Intrinsically motivated persons or individuals would prefer instrumental behaviors (Kerr and Jermier, 1978). Extrinsically motivated individuals would prefer a style (Hypothesized to be supportive by several voluntary action scholars) that matched the environment in which they were operating. In other words, an extrinsically motivated individual's satisfaction level would be influenced by task

and personal characteristics.

Results of the final model indicated two instrumental behaviors were more important than supportive behavior for classifying the satisfaction level of both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated volunteers. This indicates that Kerr and Jermier's (1978) hypothesis is supported, i.e. intrinsically motivating tasks serve as a substitute for supportive behavior. However, the results indicated that volunteer work done either for intrinsic or extrinsic reasons served as a substitute for supportive leader behaviors. Current Path-Goal propositions would not explain or predict that outcome.

An extension or modification of the theory seems necessary at this point. Graen and Ginzberg (1977) uncovered a factor called role orientation which had an overriding impact on satisfaction with various leader behaviors in the profit sector. Those results indicated individuals who perceived their current role as important to future career advancement were more satisfied with instrumental behavior regardless of task structure or environmental characteristics. This information suggests reasons (whether intrinsic or extrinsic) people have for doing a particular task are more important than the task structure. A similar situation may exist in the voluntary setting. Studies indicate, for example, that many women recognize a need for a career outside the home and choose to find it

through volunteerism (Loeser, 1974). In addition, others use volunteer work as a means of career exploration, or to maintain skills and contacts during a break in an employed career (Gidron, 1978; Loeser, 1974; Mueller, 1975). Jenner (1981) suggests that volunteer work may be used to fill three different roles: (1) a consciously chosen primary work role: (2) a supplement to other, primary, work or; (3) a vehicle for entry, return, or maintenance of employement.

Individuals who choose voluntarism as a career in itself would be likely to have commitment to a long-term goal, along with involvement in a current activity that is considered important. The intrinsic motivation present in that situation would result in satisfaction with specific types of instrumental behaviors.

A person using volunteer work to develop a paid career may temporarily channel much of their work energy toward voluntarism, and participate at a level similar to that of the career volunteer. Those individuals would be satisfied with leader behaviors which clarify paths to work goal accomplishment, remove frustrating barriers, and are instrumental to future satisfactions (i.e. instrumental behaviors).

People who use volunteer work as a supplement to the more important aspects of life will be less involved and make fewer demands on the volunteer work experience. Satisfaction with particular leader behaviors and task

structures would be a result of the importance of the supplementary role of volunteer work for that person.

Future study of leadership in voluntary organizations should include some measure of role orientation. A strong case can be made that such a variable may outweigh environmental considerations or personal factors. The variable, role orientation, may have affected the results of this study, particularly with regards to the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation results.

A final implication of this research relates to the outcome (satisfaction with work) examined in the study. Results supported the existence of a relationship between leader behaviors and satisfaction with work. Other outcomes predicted by the Path-Goal theory, acceptance of the leader and motivation to perform, were not tested. Results from the profit sector indicate that the theory provides consistent support for the satisfaction relationship, but not performance. The same results might be obtained in future studies of the voluntary sector. Research should address the performance issue to determine if leader behaviors which impact satisfaction with work also influence motivation to perform and acceptance of the leader. Fulk and Wendler (1982) suggest canonical correlation methodology is ideally suited for the study of leadership since the approach exposes something resembling primary and independent secondary effect of leadership on subordinate variables.

The current study provided the groundwork for further research into leadership in voluntary organizations. The results indicated additional factors such as role orientation should be examined. In addition, experience gained from this study indicated that other methodologies which can handle multiple dependent and independent variables are suitable for study of the Path-Goal theory.

Summary

This chapter presented a discussion and interpretation of the results of data analyses presented in Chapters IV and V. The research findings indicated that traditional theories of voluntary associations are ineffective in prediction of the inter-relationships between size, orientation, and structural characteristics. Only one size-structural hypothesis correlation was significant (lower levels of volunteer input are associated with larger budgets and more paid staff members). A second size-structure hypothesis (larger organizations have higher levels of job codification) approached statistical significance and should be studied further.

None of the orientation structure hypotheses were found to be significant. Therefore, it was concluded that neither instrumental nor expressive orientation was related to the structure present in a voluntary association. Several explanations for the lack of relationships were examined and particular theories were suggested which provided explana-

tions for the results. Theories examined were the Bureaucratic Process model (Lipisky 1980), the Dialectical model (White, 1969; Hyman, 1983), the Coalition model (Walker, 1982), and the Garbage Can model (March and Olsen, 1978). Each of these theories provide a framework for studying structure in voluntary associations. In addition, each theory seems to provide plausible explanations and pre- dictions of the results indicating no relationship between orientation and structure.

The second segment of this study indicated that leadership was related to volunteer satisfaction with work. In addition, the Path-Goal theory proved to be a valuable tool for understanding the relationships between task struc- ture, personal characteristics, leader behaviors, and satis- faction. The hypotheses tested were statistically significant, however, they did not explain fully the rela- tionships present. The Path-Goal theory and results from the for-profit sector were used to develop an understanding of and possible theoretical explanations for the rela- tionships present in voluntary associations. Extensions, modifications, and future areas for research using the Path-Goal theory of leadership in voluntary associations were suggested. Support for the Path-Goal Theory indicates that it is a viable approach to the study of leadership in voluntary associations and that additional study would be appropriate. This chapter has presented a discussion of the

findings from the Phase I and Phase II analyses. Chapter VII will: (1) review the research process; (2) summarize the relationships found between structure, size, and orientation and the relationship between leader behaviors, task structure, personal characteristics, and satisfaction with work; (3) discuss the limitations of this study; (4) recommend areas for future research into structure and leadership in voluntary associations.

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227

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CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS
FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to investigate the struc-
tural characteristics and leadership processes which exist
in voluntary organizations. The major objectives of the
study were to: (1) provide an empirically-based descriptive
body of knowledge concerning the structure of voluntary
associations, (2) identify relationships among size, orien-
tation, and structural characteristics, (3) develop an
understanding of factors which significantly affect the
volunteers' satisfaction with work, and (4) examine the
Path-Goal Theory of leadership in a unique and heretofore
untested setting.

The literature review indicated that little empirically
based information existed on the structure and leadership
processes present in voluntary organizations. Theories
which existed were normative and based on anecdotal evi-
dence. The importance of the voluntary sector to the eco-
nomy and the emerging recognition that management and
leadership is important in those organizations

231

(Desruisseaux, 1984; Pearce, 1978) indicated research was
needed to provide a foundation for further study of
leadership and management in voluntary associations. The
absence of previous research concerning leadership and
organizational structure in the voluntary sector required
the current investigation to be exploratory in nature. The
study was divided into two distinct phases. Phase I dealt
solely with structural relationships in voluntary organiza-
tions. The information gathered in Phase I, however, also
was used to select organizations which underwent closer exa-
mination during Phase II of the research. Phase II examined
the relationships between situational variables, leader
behaviors, and satisfaction. The relationships tested were
developed and examined using the Path-Goal Theory of
leadership as a framework for analysis.

Phase I

A sample of 450 organizations was selected for par-
ticipation in the study. The sample was drawn from a direc-
tory of voluntary associations provided by the Governor's
Office on Volunteerism (GOV), of the State of Arkansas.
The sample size was chosen on the basis of results obtained
in a study of a similar population (Crittenden, 1982) and a
formula which considered the instrument scales utilized and
the accuracy level desired (Elliot, 1980).

A mail survey resulted in 159 useable instruments repre-
senting a response rate of slightly over forty-one percent.

The survey supplied information concerning the organization's orientation, size, structural character- istics, budget, and administrator demographics. The questionnaire was based on instruments utilized in previous research on voluntary associations (Crittenden, 1982; Jacoby and Babchuck, 1963) as well as selected instruments used in studies of leadership and satisfaction in the profit sector.

Descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used to analyze the data collected during Phase I. Frequency counts provided an overview of the organizational characteristics. The simple descriptive statistics provided insight into the voluntary associations and the charac- teristics of their administrators. The summary statistics were compared to the profiles reported by Crittenden (1982) and indicated that this study represented a similar popula- tion. Factor analysis was utilized to reduce the twenty- two items measuring structure into a set of underlying structural characteristics. The actual results of the pro- cedure paralleled the hypothesized constructs intended to be measured by the items. Mean summate scores from the factor analysis routine as well as measures of size and orientation were subjected to Pearson Product Moment Correlation analy- sis. The six structural characteristics correlated with size and orientation are listed and defined below:

> Volunteer influence - the degree to which volunteers influence the decisions made by leaders of the organiza- tion.

Volunteer input - the degree to which input into the decision-making process is encouraged.

Interaction in decision-making - the degree to which a large number of individuals are involved in the decision-making process.

Heirarchical control- the extent to which the organiza- tion attempts to control volunteer behavior through the use of a hierarchical structure.

Adhocracy - the degree to which the organization uses committees and temporary problems solving groups to handle internal and external threats.

Informality of the oligarchy - the degree to which the group of individuals controlling the organization used formal or informal methods to administer the organiza- tion.

A seventh item, job codification, was subjected to the same correlation procedure. Job codification is the degree to which the organization uses work rules to define what the occupant of a position is to do (Hage and Aiken, 1967).

Size was measured in terms of number of volunteers, number of paid staff, and annual budget for the organiza- tion. Orientation was measured by the degree to which the voluntary association emphasized long term goals and viewed activities as means to an end not an end in themselves.

Correlation analysis indicated very few significant correlations between either orientation or size and struc- tural properties in voluntary associations. None of the six orientation hypotheses were supported. This infor- mation, in particular, suggests that instrumental organiza- tions may not closely resemble for-profit organizations as suggested by Crittenden (1982). Table 27 shows the hypothe- ses tested and whether they were supported or not supported.

TABLE 27

ORIENTATION, SIZE, AND STRUCTURE RELATIONSHIPS
EXAMINED AND DEGREE OF SUPPORT

Orientation Hypotheses	Supported
Instrumental organizations have higher levels of hierarchical control.	No
Instrumental organizations have high levels of job codification.	No
Instrumental organizations have lower levels of volunteer participation and influence.	No[*]
Instrumental organizations have more permanent organizational structures.	No
Instrumental organizations have lower levels of interaction.	No
Instrumental organizations have higher levels of formalized procedures.	No

TABLE 27 (continued)

Size Hypotheses:

Larger organizations have more hierarchical control.	No
Larger organizations have higher levels of job codification.	No[a]
Large organizations utilize formalized control groups.	No
Large organizations have lower levels of volunteer of volunteer influence and participation.	No
Large organizations have lower levels of volunteer input.	Yes[b]
Large organizations have lower levels of adhocracy.	No

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[*] Orientation was negatively correlated at p=.0659 level with the volunteer influence construct (not both par- ticipation and influence.

[a] Budget and number of volunteers were related at levels approaching the chosen significance level, .065 and .057, respectively.

[b] Number of volunteers was not significantly related to the degree of volunteer input.

One of the six size and structure relationships examined was found to be significant. Budget and number of paid staff was related to lower levels of volunteer input. In addition, the hypothesis stating a relationship between size and job codification approached the significance level chosen for this study. Job codification was related to budget and number of volunteers at the $p=.065$ and $p=.057$ significance levels, respectively.

Results indicated that size was a better predictor of structure than was orientation but neither were robust predictors of the structural characteristics of voluntary associations. The overall results suggested that much of the literature (which in not based on scientific research methodology) on the structure of voluntary associations is not viable. Several emerging theories were examined which provided potential explanations for the unexpected relationships (or lack thereof) between orientation and structure. Those theories included the Bureaucratic Process Model (Lipisky, 1980), the Dialectical Model (White, 1969), and the Garbage Can Model (March and Olsen, 1978).

Phase II

Ten organizations were selected from those studied during Phase I. Those ten organizations were subjected to further investigation of the relationships between leader behaviors, situational factors, and volunteer satisfaction with work. The organizations were selected from Phase I

survey results which reported their size, location, and orientation. Expressive organizations were excluded from Phase II due to their generally small size, lack of leader-follower relationships, and the ever-changing conditions reported by those associations during Phase I. Phase II data collection was conducted by means of on-site question-naire administration supervised either by the investigator or a representative of the organization.

Three hundred and five questionnaires were distributed to volunteers in the ten organizations. Nearly fifty per-cent were returned and forty-two percent of the total distributed were useable. The survey provided information in four major areas: (1) satisfaction levels of the volunteer, (2) perceived leader behaviors, (3) task struc-ture, and (4) personal characteristics of the volunteer. Table 28 provides a listing of the variables examined in each major category. The questionnaire incorporated segments of instruments designed to measure each of the above areas in for-profit research. Modifications in wording of the instruments were made so the items would be appropriate for the voluntary sector.

TABLE 28

SITUATIONAL VARIABLES INCLUDED IN THE MODEL

Personal Characteristics	Task Characteristics
Locus of Control*	Role Ambiguity
Authoritarianism	Role Conflict
Motivation Level	Variety
Perceived Ability	Autonomy*
	Friendship
	Opportunities*
	Dealing with Others
	Feedback
	Identity
	Work Group Relations

Leader Behaviors

  Instrumental
    Work Assignment*
    Role Clarification*
    Specification of Procedures

  Supportive

* indicates those variables found to be significant
discriminators between levels of satisfactio with work.

The major focus of the initial data analysis was to determine the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction with work for intrinsically versus extrinsically motivated volunteers. An unbalanced analysis of variance technique (similar to multiple linear regression) was used to determine main and interaction effects of various leader behaviors and motivation levels on work satisfaction. The result of the initial analysis indicated that leader behaviors were significant in determining the volunteer's level of satisfaction with work. That relationship held irregardless of motivation, intrinsic or extrinsic, to perform volunteer work.

A second more complex analysis technique was used to determine which personal and task characteristics, in conjunction with leader behaviors were significant discriminators of satisfaction with work. Multiple discriminant analysis provided further support for the relationship between leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction. Two instrumental leader behaviors, role clarification and work assignment, were found to be significantly related to higher levels of work satisfaction. In addition, two task variables, autonomy and friendship opportunities, and one personal characteristic, locus of control, were related to satisfaction with work.

The results suggested the framework provided by the Path-Goal Theory is appropriate for the study of leadership

in voluntary associations. Modifications of the theory were suggested in order to make it applicable for voluntary associations. In addition, this research suggested that canonical correlation and hierarchical regression were methodologies which may provide more meaningful results than does discriminant analysis when using the Path-Goal Theory as a framework for investigation.

Summary of Results

Results from both phases of this research project indicated that current knowledge of leadership and organization structure in voluntary associations is limited. The results of this research suggest that many existing theories which suggest that voluntary associations are characterized by low levels of volunteer input, high levels of hierarchical control, job codification, and formalization, may be inappropriate. This investigation indicated newer theories such as the Bureaucratic Process Model (Lipisky, 1980), the Dialectical Model (White, 1969), and the Garbage Can Model (March and Olsen, 1978) which are based on empirical evidence gathered from the voluntary sector seem to provide a much better explanation of the structure present than do traditional or for-profit theories. Results from Phase I indicated organizational theories based on for-profit organizations should not be indiscriminantly applied to voluntary associations. Similarities may exist in areas such as strategic planning (see Crittenden, 1982) but major dif-

ferences in other areas suggest that instrumental voluntary associations are not similar to for-profit organizations. Although not specifically tested, Crittenden's (1982, p. 164) hypothesis that findings in the profit sector are generalizable to those third-sector organizations exhibiting instrumental tendencies was not supported in this research. The results indicate the need for empirically developed information specifically derived from voluntary associations. That information should then be used to develop appropriate prescriptive solutions to the unique management problems which they face.

Limitations

This investigation was exploratory in nature. Future research of a more conclusive nature can build on the information acquired from this study. It is important that other investigators understand the limitations and potential errors present in this information. The limitations occur in three areas: (1) sampling errors, (2) measurement errors, and (3) instrument errors.

Sampling Error

Sampling error is the degree to which the sample is unrepresentative of the population of interest. One source of sampling error in this investigation was derived from the representativeness of the sample frame. The sample frame for this investigation was limited to associations included

on the Governor's Office on Volunteerism for the State of Arkansas. That fact created several obvious limitations to the viability of the findings. First, as with any list, inclusion of an organization on the list may have lead to biased results. That is, the chance exists that organizations on the GOV list were different in some manner from organizations not on the list.

Second, the organizations which participated in the first phase of data collection may have differed from those organizations which chose to not participate. Data could not be collected to compare respondents to non-respondents on the basis of organizational structure.

Organizations chosen for participation in the second phase of data collection were not chosen on a random basis. Rather, they were chosen based on size, location, orientation, and willingness to participate in the project. Four organizations were contacted and chose not to participate in the second phase. There was no method of comparing those organizations with the organizations selected, however, all four were similar to participating associations in terms of size, location, and orientation. It is possible that a different set of leader behavior and volunteer satisfaction relationships might have been found in those organizations.

There may also be general geographic differences that result in this sample of Arkansas voluntary associations being unrepresentative of voluntary organizations in other

states or regions. For example, other states and localities
may provide different levels of support and encouragement
for voluntary associations than does the state of Arkansas.
Research indicates the degree of voluntarism in a particular
area is related to the number of individuals in a high
socio-economic class, a class which may be under-represented
in Arkansas.

Instrument Error

The instruments utilized in both phases of the data
collection relied heavily on instruments desiged and used
for data collection in the profit-sector. Although care was
taken to reword the questions in a framework appropriate for
volunteer settings, the instruments may measure different
underlying constructs in the voluntary environment. On the
other hand, factor analysis of the sections measuring leader
behavior, task structure, and personality characteristics
indicated the instruments measured underlying factors simi-
lar to the ones hypothetically measured, indicating support
for the validity of the measures.

The length of the questionnaire and position of items in
the instrument used during the second phase of data collec-
tion created the potential problems of fatigue and frame of
reference bias. The researcher used three forms of the
questionnaire to reduce the influence of fatigue and frame
of reference. Theoretically, the use of multiple forms
would result in different segments of the instrument being

effected by fatigue bias and the bias would be minimized on any particular segment when all questionnaires were examined.

Measurement Error

A final instrument-related concern is that of possible measurement error bias. Measurement bias concerns the degree to which the instruments are systematically recording distorted or false information. The potential for volunteers supplying "socially desireable" responses for leader behaviors or satisfaction could have resulted in spurious relationships appearing. Measurement bias may not be significant since the data analysis procedures compared the differences in scores of volunteers from all organizations. Consistent bias throughout volunteers and organizations, therefore, would reduce the measurement bias problem.

The method by which questionnaires were distributed to the volunteers created a potential bias. Some volunteers received their questionnaire from the investigator while others received the instrument from the co-ordinator of volunteer services for their organization. Written instructions accompanied the instruments in both situations. The representative of each voluntary association agreed to distribute questionnaires to all volunteers in their organization or department, however, it is possible they picked particular individuals to fill out the instrument. No method was devised to determine if that occured. However, no major differences were noted when the results from organizations using each method were compared.

Summary of Research Limitations

There were three potential threats to the validity of the data that arose from the procedure employed for data collection. Limitations were related to sampling error, measurement error, and instrument error. Each of the error types created the possibility of erroneous conclusions, however, steps were taken to reduce the impact of those errors on the findings. Reasonable confidence in the findings can be argued. Lehman (1980) points out that if one is concerned with relative rather than absolute values, many of the sources of error will cancel out. Finally, the exploratory nature of this research precludes major conclusions from being reached. Future examinations of leadership in voluntary associations should be designed to reduce the chance of errors and related limitations encountered in this study. Further systematic research should provide voluntary associations the information they need to develop reliable management techniques for their organizations.

Contributions of the Research

This study was one of the first empirical investigations into the structural characteristics of voluntary associations. It was the initial study to specifically examine the role of leader behaviors and situational variables in predicting satisfaction levels of volunteers. Specific contributions were made in terms of (1) understanding the structure of voluntary associations and (2) developing an understanding of leadership in voluntary associations.

Structural Characteristics

The investigation provided information which clarified factors that are or are not related to the structure present in voluntary associations. The following relationships (or lack of relationships) were found in this investigation:

Adhocracy in voluntary associations is unrelated to budget, number of paid staff, and number of volunteers.

Interaction in decision-making is unrelated to budget, number of volunteers, and number of paid staff.

Hierarchical control is unrelated to budget and numbers of paid staff and volunteers.

Informality of the oligarchy is unrelated to budget and number of volunteers and paid staff.

Volunteer input is negatively related to budget and number of paid staff.

Volunteer input is unrelated to number of volunteers.

Job codification is related to budget and number of volunteers in moderate ($p<.10$) positive manner.

Job codification is unrelated to number of paid staff.

Volunteer input is unrelated to instrumental orientation.

Interaction in decision-making is unrelated to orientation.

Adhocracy is unrelated to orientation.

Informality of the oligarchy is unrelated to instrumental orientation.

Job codification is unrelated to instrumental orientation.

Number volunteers is unrelated to instrumental orientation.

Number of paid staff is unrelated to instrumental orientation.

Volunteer influence is negatively related to a moderate degree (p<.10) with instrumental orientation.

Budget size is moderately (p<.10) related to instrumental orientation.

Age of the administrator heading the organization is negatively correlated with instrumental orientation.

Leader Behaviors and Volunteer Satisfaction

This study added the following information to the body

of knowledge concerning leadership and volunteer satisfac-

tion with work:

Supportive leader behaviors are related to satisfaction with work when no situational variables are considered.

Role clarification is related to satisfaction with work when no situational variables are considered.

Instrumental leader behaviors have a greater impact on satisfaction with work for extrinsically motivated individuals than intrinsically motivated volunteers when no other situational factors are considered.

Role clarification and work assignment are the only significant discriminators of the level of satisfaction with work when task and personal characteristics are simultaneously considered.

Supportive leader behaviors are ineffective discriminators of the level of work satisfaction due to the structure of volunteer tasks.

Task structure, specifically autonomy and friendship opportunities, are major determinants of satisfaction with work.

Specification of procedures and supportive leader behaviors do not influence the satisfaction level of volunteers due to the influence of autonomy and friendship opportunities.

Career orientation of a volunteer may moderate the relationship between instrumental behaviors and work satisfaction for the volunteer.

Locus of control is related in a non-linear manner to satisfaction with volunteer work.

These findings suggest that further research into both structure and leadership in voluntary associations is necessary and would be fruitful. The study uncovered information which provides the foundation for future research into the structure and leadership processes in voluntary associations. Empirical evidence indicates that leadership is important in influencing the satisfaction levels of volunteers. Certain task structures and personal characteristics influence satisfaction with volunteer work. In addition, the results indicate that supportive leader behaviors are not the universal answer for influencing volunteer satisfaction with work. Many additional research questions were uncovered by this investigation. A number of those questions are presented in the following section of this chapter.

Conclusions and Future Research
Directions

The scientific study of voluntary organizations is just beginning. A need for empirically-based management knowledge exists throughout the third sector. This study provided a foundation for further research in two major areas of interest to voluntary association management; leadership and structure. Both areas are of concern to voluntary associations due to the impact each has on the individual volunteer and performance in the organization (Gidron, 1983; Jenner, 1981; Hyman, 1983). Empirically-based information needs to be developed fully in both areas to provide managers and leaders of volunteers a sound basis for choosing particular macro and micro structures and leadership styles.

Results from this investigation suggest several general areas where future research can provide needed information. Findings suggested specific topics and models, particularly when dealing with voluntary organization structural characteristics. These topics and directions were as follows:

1. The Bureaucratic Process model (Lipisky, 1980) suggests the following testable hypotheses:

a. Hierarchical control will be low in organizations involved in social or welfare services, which are controlled by government agencies, and utilize volunteers as the primary service delivery mechanism.

b. Job codification will be low in voluntary associations which have BPM characteristics.

2. The Dialectical model (White, 1969) of voluntary organization structure suggests those organizations are informal-unstructured entities. Specific hypotheses which should be tested include:

a. The degree of adhocracy is related to the degree to which the organization chooses to de-emphasize traditional structures such as formal communication channels, job titles, and centralized authority.

b. Dialectical organizations will have low levels of job codification and low levels of hierarchical control.

Results from the research suggest the need for further study into the following hypotheses specifically related to orientation and size of voluntary associations.

3. Instrumental orientation is negatively correlated with degree of volunteer influence.

4. Organizations with larger budgets provide more job codification for volunteer tasks.

5. Higher numbers of paid staff members will be related to less volunteer influence on decisions in the organization.

6. Job codification will be present in greater amounts as the number of volunteers in the organization increase.

7. Instrumental orientation is related to higher levels of volunteer interaction in decision-making.

8. Instrumental orientation is related to larger operating budgets.

Several important implications for the future direction of leadership research and practice also were suggested by this investigation. Those suggestions fall into two categories: (1) measures of leader behavior and (2) testing multiple outcomes.

Future research on the Path-Goal theory should use measures of leader behavior which are not universal in nature. For example, instrumental behavior consists of at least three distinctive behaviors: (1) role clarification, (2) specification of procedures, and (3) work assignment. Past studies used a universal measure of instrumental behavior not a measure of each type of instrumental behavior. Had the current research used an overall measure of instrumental behavior, the conclusions might have been different. It is possible that supportive behavior should not be measured as a universal construct. Research should be directed toward refining the measures of supportive, participative, and achievement oriented leader behaviors. Future studies of leadership in voluntary associations should examine the impact of achievement and participative leadership on volunteer satisfaction once appropriate measures have been developed.

Second, Path-Goal Theory suggests leader behavior is related to three specific outcomes: satisfaction with work, acceptance of the leader, and performance (via motivation). This study examined only one of those outcomes, satisfaction with work. Additional research should be directed at determining the relationship between leader behaviors and the other two outcomes in voluntary associations. Satisfaction with work was chosen as the only outcome for study in this investigation due to the lack of instruments and information

needed to properly measure volunteer performance. Very few voluntary associations attempt to keep records of or evaluate volunteer performance. Acceptance of the leader has not been studied in any setting, profit or otherwise, therefore results of a test of that construct would provide no basis for comparison between voluntary association leadership and for-profit leadership.

Specific Path-Goal hypotheses which should be examined include but are not limited to the following:

9. Supportive leader behaviors are unrelated to satisfaction with work, acceptance of the leader, and performance when the task provides a high degree of friendship opportunities and/or dealing with others.

10. Specification of procedures will be related to lower levels of volunteer autonomy.

11. Both participative and instrumental leader behaviors will be positively related to satisfaction with work, acceptance of the leader, and performance for individuals who participate in the activities of voluntary organizations as a primary career.

12. Instrumental and achievement-oriented behaviors will be positively related to satisfaction with work, acceptance of the leader, and performance for individuals who participate in voluntary activities as a means to enter or maintain employment in the for-profit sector.

13. Supportive and participative leader behaviors will be more meaningful to persons who engage in volunteer work as a supplement to their "regular" activities.

14. Volunteers who are high externals on the locus of control measure will be more satisfied with their work, accept the leader, and exhibit higher performance levels if the leader engages in participative behaviors.

15. Role clarification will be related positively to volunteer satisfaction, acceptance of the leader, and performance when the volunteer is new to the organization, the work is complex, and/or the individual receives many short task or projects to perform.

16. Supportive leader behavior is related to acceptance of the leader.

17. Volunteer satisfaction with work and acceptance of the leader is related to tenure or propensity to resign from that organization.

Conclusions

The intent of this investigation was to answer several questions concerning the relationship between leader behaviors, situational characteristics, and volunteer satisfaction with work. In addition, it was necessary to develop an understanding of the structural relationships in voluntary associations of different sizes and orientations. Hypotheses were developed and tested to answer those questions. Some definite answers were developed, other results were only tentative and the research questions must be investigated further. Still other answers resulted in the posing of new questions. A limited example of those issues and questions was provided in the previous section. Those issues should provide interesting and positive directions for research in one of the most ignored but most important organizations in our society, the voluntary association.

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APPENDIX A

IN(/O)LVEMENT

June 21, 1983

Jane Doe, Director
Volunteers for Volunteers
123A Honeysuckle Lane
Somewhere, AR 77777

Dear Ms. Doe:

Have you ever wondered how to get volunteers in your organization to be more
productive and satisfied with their work in the organization?

Does your organization ever lose key volunteers when they are needed most?

These are only two of many problems facing voluntary organizations which
researchers are attempting to solve. Research is being conducted, in coopera-
tion with the Governor's Office of Voluntary Citizen Participation, to determine
the most effective methods for leading volunteers to higher levels of produc-
tivity, satisfaction, and committment.

Your help is needed to ensure that the study represents the voluntary, nonprofit
organizations in Arkansas. Your filling out the enclosed questionnaire will be
a valuable contribution to the research project. The information you provide
will help identify the primary organizational characteristics and leadership
styles found in voluntary organizations in Arkansas.

The information provided by you will be confidential and reported only in sum-
mary form with information gathered from other voluntary, nonprofit organiza-
tions. You can receive a summary copy of the results when the study is
completed, if you desire.

Ms. Doe, please help by filling out the questionnaire and returning it in
the stamped, self-addressed envelope. Your contribution is important and will
be greatly appreciated.

Respectfully,

C. E. Kellogg
Assistant Professor of Business
Arkansas Tech University

Enclosures (2)

205 State Capitol/Little Rock, Arkansas 72201/(501) 371-7540

INVOLVEMENT

July 12, 1983

Jane Doe, Director
Volunteers for Volunteers
1234 Honeysuckle Lane
Somewhere, AR 77777

Dear Ms. Doe:

"Needless to say, it is difficult to lead followers who are only partially committed." (Zaltman, 1981).

You can help make your task as a leader of volunteers easier. Several weeks ago you were mailed a questionnaire concerning the structure and leadership styles found in the organization you lead. The questionnaire is an integral part of research designed to improve the productivity, satisfaction, and commitment levels of volunteers. Ms. Doe, your response to the questionnaire is vital to the completion of this research.

Decreasing levels of state and federal support, as well as decreases in private donations, are forcing voluntary associations to become more efficient in order to survive. Information from your organization could be the key to discovering the factors which create high levels of productivity, satisfaction, and commitment from volunteers. This information could, in turn, help countless other voluntary organizations in Arkansas survive by reducing the high cost of finding and training new volunteers to replace those who leave due to disatisfaction with organizational practices.

Ms. Doe, please volunteer a few minutes of your time to help others by filling out the enclosed questionnaire, putting it in the postage-paid envelope, and dropping it in the nearest mail box. This will help many other voluntary groups. The information you provide is confidential and will only be used in summary form for analysis. You may receive a free copy of the completed study by checking the blank on the last page of the questionnaire.

If you are no longer a director or leader of the organization, please pass the questionnaire and related material on to the new director. If that is too much trouble, please send the name and address of the new director. Any help you can give will be greatly appreciated and is vital to the completion of this research project.

Respectfully,

C.E. Kellogg
Assistant Professor of Business
Arkansas Tech University

Enclosures (2)   205 State Capitol/Little Rock, Arkansas 72201/(501) 371-7540

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

General Instructions: This questionnaire is designed to gather information concerning management in voluntary organizations. Even though several items may seem to offer no appropriate response in regard to your organization, a response to each item is essential to the success of this research. Unless otherwise specified, all questions are concerned with your local organization rather than any parent organization. Please ignore the numbers in parenthesis by each response as they are for tabulating purposes only. The number in the upper, right hand corner is for purposes of follow-up in those instances of nonresponse.

For this survey, please make use of the following definitions.

A voluntary organization may be defined as an organized group of people with membership open to those sharing common goals or interests and in which people become members by their own decision. The organization is a nonprofit, nongovernment, private group in which volunteers may serve as directors, administrators/staff or as regular members.

Volunteers are those who provide service freely and without expectation of financial gain. However, a volunteer may receive payment for out-of-pockets expenses.

Leadership is any activity used as an attempt to influence or direct a volunteer toward a goal of the organization.

●●

SECTION 1.1

The following is a list of statements concerning why people choose to participate in the activities of voluntary organizations. Please read each statement carefully. Circle the number corresponding to the level of agreement or disagreement that you think the volunteers in the organization would express for each statement.

EXAMPLE:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Volunteers participate in this organization because it benefits society as a whole.	①	2	3	4	5	

The respondent to this question feels the members of the organization would strongly agree with the statement.

●●

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Taking part in the activities of the organization is fun itself. Volunteers get a big kick out of doing these things.	1	2	3	4	5	(1)
Volunteer's chief satisfactions from participating in the activities of this organization come not as much when they do these things as later when they see worthwhile and desireable results accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5	(2)
This group is organized primarily to promote activities for members and others interested in these activities. The group is not concerned with changing or controlling activities of others.	1	2	3	4	5	(3)
Some of the activities of this group are directed toward modifying, controlling, or changing in some way, the actions of persons outside the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	(4)
The activities of the group in which volunteers take part are valuable in and for themselves. They do these things just for the sake of doing them. They do not expect to achieve any other purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	(5)
The reason why volunteers participate in the activities of this group is that the group seeks to bring about goals which they consider to be desirable. They participate in this organization because it attempts to accomplish purposes for which they stand.	1	2	3	4	5	(6)

PLEASE TURN TO THE BACK OF THIS PAGE.

SECTION 1.2

The following statements deal with the management system found in your organization. Please read each statement carefully and indicate whether or not your organization is represented by the statement by circling the number that corresponds to your level of agreement of disagreement.

EXAMPLE:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
There is a great deal of conflict in this organization.	1	2	3	4	(5)	

This person strongly disagrees with the statement since it does not in his/her opinion represent the organization.
****

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Volunteers are encouraged to make suggestions when decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5	(07)
Volunteers in this organization are not likely to express their feelings openly on important matters.	1	2	3	4	5	(08)
Volunteers in this organization are encouraged to speak their minds on important matters, even if it means disagreeing with their superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	(09)
If someone feels he/she had the right approach to carrying out his job in dealing with important matters, he/she can usually go ahead without checking with their superior.	1	2	3	4	5	(10)
People from different areas are often put to-gather in a special group in order to solve important problems.	1	2	3	4	5	(11)
For many decisions the rules and regulations are developed as we go along.	1	2	3	4	5	(12)
It is always necessary to go through channels in dealing with important matters.	1	2	3	4	5	(13)
Volunteers in this organization always get orders from their superiors on important matters.	1	2	3	4	5	(14)
Talking to other people about the problems someone might have in making decisions is an important part of the process of decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	(15)
Getting along with other people is an impor-tant part of the decision making process.	1	2	3	4	5	(16)
For special problems we usually set up a temporary task force until we meet our objec-tives.	1	2	3	4	5	(17)
The same rules and regulations are always followed in making most types of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(18)
Superiors in this organization usually make the decisions themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	(19)
In this organization most people do not share any influences with their superiors in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(20)
Volunteers have to check with their superiors before doing almost anything on important matters.	1	2	3	4	5	(21)
We have special groups for handling problems between different departments on important matters.	1	2	3	4	5	(22)

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
In this organization most volunteers do not have a voice in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(23)
Superiors often seek advice from their subordinates before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(24)
There are rules and regulations for handling any kind of problem which may arise in making most decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(25)
Different individuals play important roles in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	(26)
Subordinates do not play an active role in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	(27)
In handling important problems between departments we usually use a liason group to work things out.	1	2	3	4	5	(28)

●●

SECTION 1.3

How do you think the average volunteer would respond to the following statements about the things they do in the organization? Circle the number which would represent their response.

●●

	Definitely True	True	False	Definitely False	
I am my own boss in most matters in the organization.	1	2	3	4	(29)
I can make my own decisions in the organization without checking with anyone else.	1	2	3	4	(30)
How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work.	1	2	3	4	(31)
Volunteers in this organization are allowed to do almost as they please.	1	2	3	4	(32)
Most volunteers here make their own rules on the job.	1	2	3	4	(33)

●●

SECTION 2

LEADER BEHAVIOR:
    The following statements are descriptions of various behaviors a leader might use in order to secure the commitment of volunteers. Please examine each statement of behavior. After examining the statement, indicate how often the leaders of volunteers in your organization should engage in the behavior by circling the number describing the frequency.

●●

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	
Define's the group's task goals.	1	2	3	4	5	(34)
Shows a personal interest in volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	(35)
Instructs the volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	(36)
Is friendly and approachable.	1	2	3	4	5	(37)
Encourages volunteers to express their feelings and concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	(38)
Establishes a clear chain of command.	1	2	3	4	5	(39)
Emphasizes loyalty and interpersonal relations.	1	2	3	4	5	(40)
Tries hard to please volunteers.	1	2	3	4	5	(41)

PLEASE TURN TO THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	
Tells volunteers how they will be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5	(42)
Discourages conflict among group members.	1	2	3	4	5	(43)
Consults the group on any actions.	1	2	3	4	5	(44)
Tries to put group members at ease when talking with them.	1	2	3	4	5	(45)
Emphasizes the use of uniform procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	(46)
Lets group members know what is expected of them.	1	2	3	4	5	(47)

****

SECTION 3.1

Answer the following questions by placing an "X" in the proper blank, or by providing the actual information where requested.

****

Of the following areas, what is the _primary_ function of your organization? Please mark only the _Most Important_ area.

_____ Health Services
_____ Community Arts and Culture   _____ Conservation
_____ Social Welfare and Services   _____ Political Action
_____ Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation _____ Social Interaction
_____ Community Development   _____ Other, Please Specify_____ (48)

How many volunteers are there in your organization?

_____ less than 15   (1)   _____ 100 to 199   (4)
_____ 15 to 49   (2)   _____ 200 to 299   (5)
_____ 50 to 99   (3)   _____ 300 or over (6)   (49)

How many paid employees are there in your organization?

_____ none   (1)   _____ 10 to 14   (4)
_____ 1 to 4 (2)   _____ 15 to 19   (5)
_____ 5 to 9 (3)   _____ 20 or over (6)   (50)

If your organization has paid employees, estimate the percentage of those who possess a post-graduate degree.

_____ less than 25%   _____ 25% to 49%   _____ 50% to 74%   _____ 75% to 100%   (51)
   (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)

How many standing committees does your organization have?_____ (52)

How many times per year does the board of directors or the executive officers of your organization have formal business meetings?_____ (53)

Do you encourage the volunteers to be present at the business meetings? _____ yes _____ no (54)

On the average, how many hours per week does an executive in your organization work for the organization?

_____ less than 10   _____ 10-19   _____ 20-39   _____ 40 or over   (55)
   (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)

Into what range does the annual budget for your organization fall?

_____ less than $10,000 (1)   _____ 100,000 to 149,999 (4)   _____ 250,000 or over (7)
_____ 10,000 to 49,999   (2)   _____ 150,000 to 199,999 (5)
_____ 50,000 to 99,999   (3)   _____ 200,000 to 249,999 (6)   (56)

Does your organization have any affiliation or dependence on any other organization either through a charter or funding?

_____ Yes   _____ No   (57)

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.

If you answered "yes" to the question, please indicate what level of organization you are affiliated with and briefly explain the dependence.

_____County/District _____ (58)

_____State_____ (59)

_____Regional_____ (60)

_____National_____ (61)

Does your organization have meetings in which a large number of the volunteers participate?

_____Yes   _____No   (62)

•••

SECTION 3.2

Please provide the following personal information. Your responses are confidential and will be grouped with other peoples' responses for analysis.
•••

What is your title in this organization? _____ (63)

Please indicate the highest level of formal education you have completed from the list below.

_____did not graduate from high school	(1)	_____graduated from college	(6)
_____high school graduate	(2)	_____attended graduate school	(7)
_____took some college courses	(3)	_____have a masters degree	(8)
_____technical school graduate	(4)	_____have a doctoral degree	(9)
_____junior college graduate	(5)		(64)

What was your age on your last birthdate? _____   (65)

Please indicate the category into which your gross annual salary from this organizations falls. (Do not include reimbursed expenses.)

_____no salary	(1)	_____$9,000 to $14,999	(4)
_____less than $1,000	(2)	_____$15,000 to $21,999	(5)
_____$1,000 to $7,999	(3)	_____$22,000 or more	(6)
			(66)

Please indicate your gender. _____Male   _____Female   (67)
                                  (1)   (2)

•••

Your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire is greatly appreciated, and your comments are welcomed on the bottom of this page. Enclosed is a self-addressed, postage paid envelope. Please enclose this survey and drop it in the mail immediately.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

I will be very happy to supply you with a copy of the results of this research when completed. Please indicate if you would like a copy by checking yes or no. _____yes _____no

APPENDIX B

INVOLVEMENT

March 11, 1984

Dear Volunteers for Volunteers Member:

Please take about twenty minutes of your time to answer the enclosed
questionnaire. Your input is needed by Volunteers for Volunteers as
well as many other organizations throughout Arkansas.

The Departments of Management at the University of Arkansas and Arkansas
Tech University are, in co-operation with the Arkansas Office on
Volunteerism, conducting research to determine critical factors related
to your satisfaction with the volunteer work you do. Three areas are
being examined in the current project; leadership styles, organizational
characteristics, and the personal characteristics of the volunteers.
All questions address those issues. Your responses are confidential and
will be seen only by the researchers.

Please answer all the questions as you actually feel. Instructions for
the questionnaire are found on the second page of the booklet. After
completing the questionnaire please put it in the postage-paid envelope
provided and drop it in the mail.

Your help is greatly appreciated and will provide information which will
allow voluntary associations to operate in a more effective and effi-
cient manner.

Thank you;

C. E. Kellogg
Assistant Professor of Business
(968-0354)

205 State Capitol/Little Rock, Arkansas 72201/(501) 371-7540

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE
Form I

University of Arkansas

INSTRUCTIONS

THIS BOOKLET CONTAINS QUESTIONS THAT ARE RELATED TO THE LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, AND GENERAL ATMOSPHERE FOUND IN THIS VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION.

PLEASE NOTE THAT ALL QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE WORK YOU DO REFER TO THE ROLE YOU PLAY IN THIS ORGANIZATION. IF YOU ARE INVOLVED IN MANY ROLES, THINK OF THE WORK YOU DO MOST FREQUENTLY FOR THIS ORGANIZATION.

THERE ARE ALSO SEVERAL SECTIONS WHICH ASK FOR YOUR OPINIONS ON VARIOUS WIDE-RANGING TOPICS AND CERTAIN PERSONAL INFORMATION. THE REPLIES YOU PROVIDE ARE CONFIDENTIAL. PLEASE FEEL FREE TO ANSWER AS YOU TRULY FEEL.

THE QUESTIONS SHOULD BE READ AND ANSWERED IMMEDIATELY, GO WITH YOUR INITIAL FEELINGS. PLEASE DO NOT GO BACK TO CHANGE ANY ANSWERS. ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS UNLESS YOU FEEL A MORAL OBLIGATION TO NOT ANSWER. YOUR TIME IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

PLEASE ENTER YOUR SUPERVISOR'S NAME HERE:

_____

How often does your immediate supervisor engage in the following behaviors? Please think of your current supervisor only. If you have more than one supervisor in this organization please describe the one with whom you meet most frequently. A supervisor is the person in the organization to whom you directly report to and who makes your work assignments.

MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
gives vague explanations of what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me unclear goals to reach on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the level of performance that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me know what is considered good job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
makes contradictory statements about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the quality of work that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the performance goals for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives vague quality standards to meet on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
helps make working on my job more pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
says things to hurt my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
considers my personal feelings before acting.	1	2	3	4	5
maintains a friendly working relationship with me.	1	2	3	4	5
behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5
looks out for my personal welfare.	1	2	3	4	5
does personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
does things to make my job less pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
treats me without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
shows respect for my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
avoids doing personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
acts without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
acts rudely towards me.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me how I am to go about doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the methods I am to use in performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
permits me to ignore rules and regulations which affect how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
developes procedures to guide my work.	1	2	3	4	5
shows me how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me alone to decide how to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
asks me to follow standard rules and regulations in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me develop my own methods for doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5

MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR.....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
explains to me how my job should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me instructions on how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me to develop my own ways of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom in how I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
sets up rules and regulations to guide how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Lets me decide how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
decides how I am to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
allows me to develop my own procedures for performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
encourages me to develop my own methods of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me exactly what tasks I am to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
puts me on specific jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me general work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me narrow job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me what tasks my job involves.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me broad job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
carefully defines what jobs I am to do.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me vague work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom to work on whatever tasks I choose.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me specific work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
specifies what tasks I am to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me decide what specific duties to perform.	1	2	3	4	5

****

SECTION 1.2

Think of your present work in this voluntary organization. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your work
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your work
? if you cannot decide.

****

____Fascinating	____Creative	____Tiresome	____Simple
____Routine	____Respected	____Healthful	____Endless
____Satisfying	____Hot	____Challenging	____Gives sense of
____Boring	____Pleasant	____On your feet	accomplishment
____Good	____Useful	____Frustrating	

Think of the supervision you receive in this voluntary organization. How well does
each of the following words or phrases describe this supervision? In the blank
beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your supervision
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your supervision
? if you cannot decide

****

____ Asks my advice	____ Hard to please	____ Impolite
____ Praises good work	____ Tactful	____ Influential
____ Up-to-date	____ Doesn't supervise enough	____ Quick tempered
____ Tells me where I stand	____ Annoying	____ Stubborn
____ Knows job well	____ Bad	____ Intelligent
____ Leaves me on my own	____ Lazy	____ Around when needed

****

Think of your co-workers in this voluntary organization. What are they like
most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your co-workers
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your co-workers
? if you cannot decide

****

____ Stimulating	____ Boring	____ Slow
____ Ambitious	____ Stupid	____ Responsible
____ Fast	____ Intelligent	____ Easy to make enemies
____ Talk to much	____ Smart	____ Lazy
____ Unpleasant	____ No privacy	____ Active
____ Narrow interests	____ Loyal	____ Hard to meet

****

Think about all the activities you are involved with in this voluntary organization. How
satisfied are you with the opportunities that the work provides you in the following
areas.

****

	VERY Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	VERY Dissatisfied
The chance to try out some of my own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do the kind of work I do best.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do different things form time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make best use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5

****

SECTION 2.1

Please read the following statements about the characteristics of the volunteer work you do in this organization. Circle the number representing the amount of the characteristics present in your work.

****

	very little		moderate amount		very much
How much variety is there in your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How much are you left to your own to do your own work?	1	2	3	4	5
How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?	1	2	3	4	5
How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendships with?	1	2	3	4	5
How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?	1	2	3	4	5
How repetitious are your duties?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other volunteers while at work?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical work day?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?	1	2	3	4	5
The feedback from my supervisor on how well I am doing is:	1	2	3	4	5

	Minimum amount		Moderate amount		Maximum amount
Friendship from my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to talk to others on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a number of different things	1	2	3	4	5
The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The degree to which the work I am involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of variety on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity for independent thought and action	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to complete work I start	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly	1	2	3	4	5

	Minimum Amount		Moderate Amount		Maximum Amount
The opportunity to develop close friend-ships in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Meeting with others in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The control I have over the pace of my work	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to end (i.e. the chance to do a whole job)	1	2	3	4	5
The extent of feedback you receive form individuals other than your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

****

SECTION 2.2

Read the following statements which describe your work environment in this organization. Indicate how you feel about your work and tasks in this organization by circling the number which reflects your amount of agreement/disagreement with the statement as it per-tains to your work.

****

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5
There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5
I know that I have divided my time properly	1	2	3	4	5
I receive assignments without the man-power to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5
Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to work under vague directives or orders.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 2.3

Take a moment to think about the people you work with in this organization and how they get along with you and others. Circle the number which best represents your feelings about your peers.

	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
The people I work with have trouble getting along together with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers are reliable and trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5
There seems to be a friendly atmosphere among the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers always cooperate with me in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
There is friction between my peers and myself.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers give me a good deal of help and support in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
The people I work with work well together.	1	2	3	4	5
I have good relations with my peers.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3.1

The following section contains several statements about life in general. Please read each statement carefully and only once. Circle the number representing your agreement/disagreement with the statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Obedience and respect for authority are the most important for an organization to function properly.	1	2	3	4	5
What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.	1	2	3	4	5
No normal person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.	1	2	3	4	5
Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.	1	2	3	4	5
A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.	1	2	3	4	5
An insult to our honor should always be punished.	1	2	3	4	5
There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.	1	2	3	4	5
Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.	1	2	3	4	5
If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.	1	2	3	4	5
No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.	1	2	3	4	5
People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3.2

Out of the following pairs of statements please circle the letter beside the statement that you more strongly believe to be true. Be sure to mark the one you actually believe to be true, rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief. Obviously there is no right or wrong answer.

EXAMPLE: (a) *Getting people to do things depends on ability.*
b. *Luck has a great deal to do with getting people to follow orders.*

This individual believes that statement "a" is representative the real situation.
****

1. a. Promotions are earned through hard work and persistence.
    b. Getting promoted is really a matter of being a little luckier than the next guy.

2. a. Succeeding in your chosen occupation is mainly a matter of social contacts--knowing the right people.
    b. Succeeding in your chosen profession is a matter of personal competence--how much you know.

3. a. Achieving a successful marriage depends on the devotion and commitment of both part-ners to each other.
    b. The most important element in a happy marriage is being lucky enough to marry the right person.

4. a. It is silly to think that you can really change another person's basic attitudes.
    b. When I am right, I can convince others.

5. a. In our society, your future earning power depends on your ability.
    b. Making a lot of money is largely a matter of getting the right breaks.

6. a. I have little influence over the way other people behave.
    b. If you know how to deal with people, you can lead them and get them to do what you want.

7. a. People like I can change the course of world affairs if we make ourselves heard.
    b. It is only wishful thinking to believe that you can really influence what happens.

8. a. A great deal of what happens to me is probably a matter of chance.
    b. I am the master of my life.

9. a. Getting along with other people is a skill that must be practiced.
    b. It is almost impossible to figure out how to please some people.

10. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
    b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

11. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
    b. In the long run, the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as a local level.

12. a. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
    b. This world is run by a few people in power and there is not much the little guy can do.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
    b. Many times I might as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

****
SECTION 3.3

Read the following statements about why a person does volunteer work. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statements by circling the number which indicates your level of agreement or disagreement.
****

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Volunteers work because it stimulates and challenges them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because the physical working conditions are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers would work harder if more of the expenses incurred while doing volunteer work were reimbursed.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they always know exactly what is expected of them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because of the friendly working atmosphere in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can get recognition for outstanding work.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can make their own decisions and there is a minimum of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they get an opportunity to meet many new people.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it will help them in their regular employment.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it makes them feel like they will become the best person they can possibly be.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can use their real skills and capacities.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because of the social interaction the work provides.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can take pride in what they do.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can accomplish great things.	1	2	3	4	5

****
SECTION 3.4

Take a moment to compare yourself with the leader of your work group. Mark the descriptive phrase which best compares your training, experience, and overall ability to that of your supervisor in this organization. Place an "X" in the box which represents the correct answer.
****

1. Compared to you, how much training has the leader had for doing the work he/she does in the organization?

/	/	/	/
No training at all	Very Little Training	A moderate amount of training	A great deal of training

2. Compared to you, how much experience has the leader had in doing the work they do in the organization?

/ no experience at all / / very little experience / / a moderate amount of experience / / a great deal of experience /

3. Compared to you, how much overall ability does the leader have for doing the work they do in the organization?

/ far less Ability / / less ability / / about the same amount of Ability / / greater ability / / far more ability /

***

Indicate your agreement/disagreement with the following statements.

My abilities are very high for the job I do in this organization.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Without the direction of someone in this organization, I would be unable to accomplish very little of value to the organization.

1   2   3   4   5

If I were not satisfied with the leadership in this organization I would leave the organization.

1   2   3   4   5

I am dissatisfied with the leadership in this organization.

1   2   3   4   5

***

SECTION 4

This section contains some general questions. The answers you provide will allow you to be grouped with other individuals with similar characteristics. The answers you give are totally confidential and will not be reported except in summary form.

***

What gender are you? _____ Male _____ Female

What is your age? _____

Please indicate the highest level of education you have reached. Indicate only one category.

_____ did not graduate from high school
_____ high school graduate
_____ attended some college
_____ attended vo-tech school

_____ graduated from college
_____ attended graduate school
_____ completed a Masters degree
_____ worked on Doctorate
_____ completed Doctorate

Please indicate the category which represents your gross family income.

_____ less than 15,000
_____ 15,000 to 24,999
_____ 25,000 to 34,999

_____ 35,000 to 44,999
_____ 45,000 to 54,999
_____ 55,000 and over

How long have you worked as a volunteer? _____

Do you plan to quit doing volunteer work for this organization?

_____ yes   _____ no

Are you, in general, dissatisfied with the quality of the leadership in this organization?

_____ Yes   _____ No

How long have you been a volunteer for this organization? _____   Years _____ Months

How many hours per week do you do volunteer work? _____

What percentage of this time is spent in work for this organization? _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

FORM II

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS

INSTRUCTIONS

THIS BOOKLET CONTAINS QUESTIONS THAT ARE RELATED TO THE LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, AND GENERAL ATMOSPHERE FOUND IN THIS VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION.

PLEASE NOTE THAT ALL QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE WORK YOU DO REFER TO THE ROLE YOU PLAY IN THIS ORGANIZATION. IF YOU ARE INVOLVED IN MANY ROLES, THINK OF THE WORK YOU DO MOST FREQUENTLY FOR THIS ORGANIZATION.

THERE ARE ALSO SEVERAL SECTIONS WHICH ASK FOR YOUR OPINIONS ON VARIOUS WIDE-RANGING TOPICS AND CERTAIN PERSONAL INFORMATION. THE REPLIES YOU PROVIDE ARE CONFIDENTIAL. PLEASE FEEL FREE TO ANSWER AS YOU TRULY FEEL.

THE QUESTIONS SHOULD BE READ AND ANSWERED IMMEDIATELY, GO WITH YOUR INI-TIAL FEELINGS. PLEASE DO NOT GO BACK TO CHANGE ANY ANSWERS. ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS UNLESS YOU FEEL A MORAL OBLIGATION TO NOT ANSWER. YOUR TIME IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

PLEASE ENTER YOUR SUPERVISOR'S NAME HERE:

_____

Read the following statements about why a person does volunteer work. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statements by circling the number which indicates your level of agreement or disagreement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Volunteers work because it stimulates and challenges them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because the physical working conditions are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers would work harder if more of the expenses incurred while doing volunteer work were reimbursed.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they always know exactly what is expected of them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because of the friendly working atmosphere in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can get recognition for outstanding work.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can make their own decisions and there is a minimum of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they get an opportunity to meet many new people.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it will help them in their regular employment.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it makes them feel like they will become the best person they can possibly be.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can use their real skills and capacities.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because of the social interaction the work provides.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can take pride in what they do.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can accomplish great things.	1	2	3	4	5

Take a moment to think about the people you work with in this organization and how they get along with you and others. Circle the number which best represents your feelings about your peers.

	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
The people I work with have trouble getting along together with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers are reliable and trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5
There seems to be a friendly atmosphere among the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers always cooperate with me in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
There is friction between my peers and myself.	1	2	3	4	5

	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
My peers give me a good deal of help and support in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
The people I work with work well together.	1	2	3	4	5
I have good relations with my peers.	1	2	3	4	5

Read the following statements which describe your work environment in this organization. Indicate how you feel about your work and tasks in this organization by circling the number which reflects your amount of agreement/disagreement with the statement as it pertains to your work.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5
There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5
I know that I have divided my time properly	1	2	3	4	5
I receive assignments without the man-power to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5
Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to work under vague directives or orders.	1	2	3	4	5

Take a moment to compare yourself with the leader of your work group. Mark the descriptive phrase which best compares your training, experience, and overall ability to that of your supervisor in this organization. Place an "X" in the box which represents the correct answer.

1. Compared to you, how much training has the leader had for doing the work he/she does in the organization?

/_____/   /_____/   /_____/   /_____/
No training   Very Little   A moderate   A great deal
at all   Training   amount of   of training
                                  training

2. Compared to you, how much experience has the leader had in doing the work they do in the organization?

/_____/_____/_____/_____/
No experience   very little   A moderate amount   A great deal of
at all   experience   of experience   experience

3. Compared to you, how much overall ability does the leader have for doing the work they do in the organization?

/_____/_____/_____/_____/_____/
Far less   less ability   about the same   greater ability   far more
Ability   amount of Ability   ability

****
Indicate your agreement/disagreement with the following statements.
****

My abilities are very high for the job I do in this organization.

		Neither		
Strongly agree	Agree	Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Without the direction of someone in this organization, I would be unable to accomplish very little of value to the organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

If I were not satisfied with the leadership in this organization I would leave the organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

I am dissatisfied with the leadership in this organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

****
Please read the following statements about the characteristics of the volunteer work you do in this organization. Circle the number representing the amount of the characteristics present in your work.
****

	very little		moderate amount		very much
How much variety is there in your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How much are you left to your own to do your own work?	1	2	3	4	5
How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?	1	2	3	4	5
How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendships with?	1	2	3	4	5
How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?	1	2	3	4	5
How repetitious are your duties?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?	1	2	3	4	5

	very little		moderate amount		very much
To what extent do you have the oppurtunity to talk informally with other volunteers while at work?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical work day?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?	1	2	3	4	5
The feedback from my supervisor on how well I am doing is:	1	2	3	4	5

	Minimum amount		Moderate amount		Maximum amount
Friendship from my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to talk to others on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a number of different things	1	2	3	4	5
The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The degree to which the work I am involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of variety on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity for independent thought and action	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to complete work I start	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to develop close friend- ships in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Meeting with others in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The control I have over the pace of my work	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to end (i.e. the chance to do a whole job)	1	2	3	4	5
The extent of feedback you receive form individuals other than your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

●●

Think of your present work in this voluntary organization. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your work
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your work
? if you cannot decide

●●

____Fascinating	____Creative	____Tiresome	____Simple
____Routine	____Respected	____Healthful	____Endless
____Satisfying	____Hot	____Challenging	____Gives sense of
____Boring	____Pleasant	____On your feet	accomplishment
____Good	____Useful	____Frustrating	

Think of the supervision you receive in this voluntary organization. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this supervision? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your supervision
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your supervision
? if you cannot decide

____ Asks my advice	____ Hard to please	____ Impolite
____ Praises good work	____ Tactful	____ Influential
____ Up-to-date	____ Doesn't supervise enough	____ Quick tempered
____ Tells me where I stand	____ Annoying	____ Stubborn
____ Knows job well	____ Bad	____ Intelligent
____ Leaves me on my own	____ Lazy	____ Around when needed

Think of your co-workers in this voluntary organization. What are they like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your co-workers
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your co-workers
? if you cannot decide

____ Stimulating	____ Boring	____ Slow
____ Ambitious	____ Stupid	____ Responsible
____ Fast	____ Intelligent	____ Easy to make enemies
____ Talk to much	____ Smart	____ Lazy
____ Unpleasant	____ No privacy	____ Active
____ Narrow interests	____ Loyal	____ Hard to meet

Think about all the activities you are involved with in this voluntary organization. How satisfied are you with the opportunities that the work provides you in the following areas.

	VERY Satisfied		Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied		VERY Dissatisfied
The chance to try out some of my own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do the kind of work I do best.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do different things form time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make best use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5

How often does your immediate supervisor engage in the following behaviors? Please think of your current supervisor only. If you have more than one supervisor in this organization please describe the one with whom you work most frequently. A supervisor is the person in the organization to whom you directly report to and who makes your work assignments.
****
MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
gives vague explanations of what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me unclear goals to reach on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the level of performance that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me know what is considered good job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
makes contradictory statements about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the quality of work that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the performance goals for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives vague quality standards to meet on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
helps make working on my job more pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
says things to hurt my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
considers my personal feelings before acting.	1	2	3	4	5
maintains a friendly working relationship with me.	1	2	3	4	5
behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5
looks out for my personal welfare.	1	2	3	4	5
does personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
does things to make my job less pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
treats me without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
shows respect for my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
avoids doing personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
acts without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
acts rudely towards me.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me how I am to go about doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the methods I am to use in performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
permits me to ignore rules and regulations which affect how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
developes procedures to guide my work.	1	2	3	4	5
shows me how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me alone to decide how to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
asks me to follow standard rules and regulations in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me develop my own methods for doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5

MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR.....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
explains to me how my job should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me instructions on how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me to develop my own ways of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom in how I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
sets up rules and regulations to guide how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Lets me decide how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
decides how I am to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
allows me to develop my own procedures for performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
encourages me to develop my own methods of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me exactly what tasks I to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
puts me on specific jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me general work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me narrow job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me what tasks my job involves.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me broad job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
carefully defines what jobs I am to do.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me vague work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom to work on whatever tasks I choose.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me specific work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
specifies what tasks I am to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me decide what specific duties to perform.	1	2	3	4	5

****

Out of the following pairs of statements please circle the letter beside the statement that you more strongly believe to be true. Be sure to mark the one you actually believe to be true, rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief. Obviously there is no right or wrong answer.

EXAMPLE: (a) Getting people to do things depends on ability.
          b. Luck has a great deal to do with getting people to follow orders.

This individual believes that statement "a" is representative the real situation.
****

1. a. Promotions are earned through hard work and persistence.
    b. Getting promoted is really a matter of being a little luckier than the next guy.

2. a. Succeeding in your chosen occupation is mainly a matter of social contacts--knowing the right people.
    b. Succeeding in your chosen profession is a matter of personal competence--how much you know.

3.   a. Achieving a successful marriage depends on the devotion and commitment of both part-
     ners to each other.
  b. The most important element in a happy marriage is being lucky enough to marry the
     right person.

4.   a. It is silly to think that you can really change another person's basic attitudes.
  b. When I am right, I can convince others.

5.   a. In our society, your future earning power depends on your ability.
  b. Making a lot of money is largely a matter of getting the right breaks.

6.   a. I have little influence over the way other people behave.
  b. If you know how to deal with people, you can lead them and get them to do what you
     want.

7.   a. People like I can change the course of world affairs if we make ourselves heard.
  b. It is only wishful thinking to believe that you can really influence what happens.

8.   a. A great deal of what happens to me is probably a matter of chance.
  b. I am the master of my life.

9.   a. Getting along with other people is a skill that must be practiced.
  b. It is almost impossible to figure out how to please some people.

10. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest
     in politics.
  b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

11. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can
     neither understand, nor control.
  b. In the long run, the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well
     as a local level.

12. a. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world
     events.
  b. This world is run by a few people in power and there is not much the little guy can
     do.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
  b. Many times I might as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

****

The following section contains several statements about life in general. Please read each statement
carefully and only once. Circle the number representing your agreement/disagreement with the state-
ment.
****

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Obedience and respect for authority are the most important for an organization to function properly.	1	2	3	4	5
What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.	1	2	3	4	5
No normal person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.	1	2	3	4	5
Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.	1	2	3	4	5
A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.	1	2	3	4	5
An insult to our honor should always be punished.	1	2	3	4	5
There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.	1	2	3	4	5
If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.	1	2	3	4	5
No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.	1	2	3	4	5
People can be divided into two distinct classes; the weak and the strong.	1	2	3	4	5

****
This section contains some general questions. The answers you provide will allow you to be grouped with other individuals with similar characteristics. The answers you give are totally confidential and will not be reported except in summary form.
****

What gender are you? _____ Male _____ Female

What is your age? _____

Please indicate the highest level of education you have reached. Indicate only one category.

_____ did not graduate from high school   _____ graduated from college
_____ high school graduate   _____ attended graduate school
_____ attended some college   _____ completed a Masters degree
_____ attended vo-tech school   _____ worked on Doctorate
                                                  _____ completed Doctorate

Please indicate the category which represents your gross family income.

_____ less than 15,000   _____ 35,000 to 44,999
_____ 15,000 to 24,999   _____ 45,000 to 54,999
_____ 25,000 to 34,999   _____ 55,000 and over

How long have you worked as a volunteer? _____

Do you plan to quit doing volunteer work for this organization?

_____ yes   _____ no

Are you, in general, dissatisfied with the quality of the leadership in this organization?

_____ Yes   _____ No

How long have you been a volunteer for this organization? _____ Years _____ Months

How many hours per week do you do volunteer work? _____

What percentage of this time is spent in work for this organization? _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

FORM III

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS

INSTRUCTIONS

THIS BOOKLET CONTAINS QUESTIONS THAT ARE RELATED TO THE LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, AND GENERAL ATMOSPHERE FOUND IN THIS VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION.

PLEASE NOTE THAT ALL QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE WORK YOU DO REFER TO THE ROLE YOU PLAY IN THIS ORGANIZATION. IF YOU ARE INVOLVED IN MANY ROLES, THINK OF THE WORK YOU DO MOST FREQUENTLY FOR THIS ORGANIZATION.

THERE ARE ALSO SEVERAL SECTIONS WHICH ASK FOR YOUR OPINIONS ON VARIOUS WIDE-RANGING TOPICS AND CERTAIN PERSONAL INFORMATION. THE REPLIES YOU PROVIDE ARE CONFIDENTIAL. PLEASE FEEL FREE TO ANSWER AS YOU TRULY FEEL.

THE QUESTIONS SHOULD BE READ AND ANSWERED IMMEDIATELY, GO WITH YOUR INITIAL FEELINGS. PLEASE DO NOT GO BACK TO CHANGE ANY ANSWERS. ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS UNLESS YOU FEEL A MORAL OBLIGATION TO NOT ANSWER. YOUR TIME IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

PLEASE ENTER YOUR SUPERVISOR'S NAME HERE:

_____

Think of your present work in this voluntary organization. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your work
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your work
? if you cannot decide

____Fascinating	____Creative	____Tiresome	____Simple
____Routine	____Respected	____Healthful	____Endless
____Satisfying	____Hot	____Challenging	____Gives sense of
____Boring	____Pleasant	____On your feet	accomplishment
____Good	____Useful	____Frustrating	

Think of the supervision you receive in this voluntary organization. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this supervision? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your supervision
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your supervision
? if you cannot decide

____ Asks my advice	____Hard to please	____Impolite
____Praises good work	____Tactful	____Influential
____Up-to-date	____Doesn't supervise enough	____Quick tempered
____Tells me where I stand	____Annoying	____Stubborn
____Knows job well	____Bad	____Intelligent
____Leaves me on my own	____Lazy	____Around when needed

Think of your co-workers in this voluntary organization. What are they like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "yes" if it describes your co-workers
N for "no" if it does NOT describe your co-workers
? if you cannot decide

____Stimulating	____Boring	____Slow
____Ambitious	____Stupid	____Responsible
____Fast	____Intelligent	____Easy to make enemies
____Talk to much	____Smart	____Lazy
____Unpleasant	____No privacy	____Active
____Narrow interests	____Loyal	____Hard to meet

How often does your immediate supervisor engage in the following behaviors? Please think of your current supervisor only. If you have more than one supervisor in this organization please describe the one with whom you work most frequently. A supervisor is the person in the organization to whom you directly report to and who makes your work assignments.

MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
gives vague explanations of what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me unclear goals to reach on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the level of performance that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me know what is considered good job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
makes contradictory statements about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains the quality of work that is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
explains what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the performance goals for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives vague quality standards to meet on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
helps make working on my job more pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
says things to hurt my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
considers my personal feelings before acting.	1	2	3	4	5
maintains a friendly working relationship with me.	1	2	3	4	5
behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5
looks out for my personal welfare.	1	2	3	4	5
does personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
does things to make my job less pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
treats me without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
shows respect for my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
avoids doing personal favors for me.	1	2	3	4	5
acts without considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
acts rudely towards me.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me how I am to go about doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
tells me the methods I am to use in performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
permits me to ignore rules and regulations which affect how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
develops procedures to guide my work.	1	2	3	4	5
shows me how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me alone to decide how to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
asks me to follow standard rules and regulations in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me develop my own methods for doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5

MY IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR.....

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
explains to me how my job should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me instructions on how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
leaves me to develop my own ways of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom in how I perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
sets up rules and regulations to guide how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Lets me decide how to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
decides how I am to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
allows me to develop my own procedures for performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
encourages me to develop my own methods of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me exactly what tasks I am to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
puts me on specific jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me general work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me narrow job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
tells me what tasks my job involves.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me broad job assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
carefully defines what jobs I am to do.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me vague work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me complete freedom to work on whatever tasks I choose.	1	2	3	4	5
gives me specific work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
specifies what tasks I am to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
lets me decide what specific duties to perform.	1	2	3	4	5

•••

Think about all the activities you are involved with in this voluntary organization. How satisfied are you with the opportunities that the work provides you in the following areas.

•••

	VERY Satisfied		Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied		VERY Dissatisfied
The chance to try out some of my own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do the kind of work I do best.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to do different things form time to time.	1	2	3	4	5

	VERY Satisfied		Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied		VERY Dissatisfied
The chance to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make best use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5

●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●● ●●

Read the following statements which describe your work environment in this organization. Indicate how you feel about your work and tasks in this organization by circling the number which reflects your amount of agreement/disagreement with the statement as it per- tains to your work.

●●

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5
There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5
I know that I have divided my time properly	1	2	3	4	5
I receive assignments without the man- power to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5
Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to work under vague directives or orders.	1	2	3	4	5

Take a moment to think about the people you work with in this organization and how they get along with you and others. Circle the number which best represents your feelings about your peers.

	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
The people I work with have trouble getting along together with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers are reliable and trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5
There seems to be a friendly atmosphere among the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers always cooperate with me in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
There is friction between my peers and myself.	1	2	3	4	5
My peers give me a good deal of help and support in getting the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
The people I work with work well together.	1	2	3	4	5
I have good relations with my peers.	1	2	3	4	5

Read the following statements about why a person does volunteer work. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statements by circling the number which indicates your level of agreement or disagreement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Volunteers work because it stimulates and challenges them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because the physical working conditions are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers would work harder if more of the expenses incurred while doing volunteer work were reimbursed.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they always know exactly what is expected of them.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because of the friendly working atmosphere in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can get recognition for outstanding work.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can make their own decisions and there is a minimum of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they get an opportunity to meet many new people.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it will help them in their regular employment.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because it makes them feel like they will become the best person they can possibly be.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can use their real skills and capacities.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Volunteers work because of the social interaction the work provides.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can take pride in what they do.	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work because they can accomplish great things.	1	2	3	4	5

Take a moment to compare yourself with the leader of your work group. Mark the descriptive phrase which best compares your training, experience, and overall ability to that of your supervisor in this organization. Place an "X" in the box which represents the correct answer.

1. Compared to you, how much training has the leader had for doing the work he/she does in the organization?

/_____/   /_____/   /_____/   /_____/
No training   Very Little   A moderate   A great deal
at all   Training   amount of   of training
                                  training

2. Compared to you, how much experience has the leader had in doing the work they do in the organization?

/_____/   /_____/   /_____/   /_____/
No experience   Very little   A moderate amount   A great deal of
at all   experience   of experience   experience

3. Compared to you, how much overall ability does the leader have for doing the work they do in the organization?

/_____/   /_____/   /_____/   /_____/   /_____/
Far less   Less ability   About the same   Greater ability   Far more
Ability   amount of Ability   ability

Indicate your agreement/disagreement with the following statements.

My abilities are very high for the job I do in this organization.

Strongly agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Without the direction of someone in this organization, I would be unable to accomplish very little of value to the organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

If I were not satisfied with the leadership in this organization I would leave the organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

I am dissatisfied with the leadership in this organization.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

The following section contains several statements about life in general. Please read each statement carefully and only once. Circle the number representing your agreement/disagreement with the statement.
●●

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Obedience and respect for authority are the most important for an organization to function properly.	1	2	3	4	5
What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.	1	2	3	4	5
No normal person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.	1	2	3	4	5
Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.	1	2	3	4	5
A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.	1	2	3	4	5
An insult to our honor should always be punished.	1	2	3	4	5
There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.	1	2	3	4	5
Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.	1	2	3	4	5
If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.	1	2	3	4	5
No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.	1	2	3	4	5
People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.	1	2	3	4	5

●●

Out of the following pairs of statements please circle the letter beside the statement that you more strongly believe to be true. Be sure to mark the one you actually believe to be true, rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief. Obviously there is no right or wrong answer.

EXAMPLE: ⓐ Getting people to do things depends on ability.
b. Luck has a great deal to do with getting people to follow orders.

This individual believes that statement "a" is representative the real situation.
●●

1. a. Promotions are earned through hard work and persistence.
    b. Getting promoted is really a matter of being a little luckier than the next guy.

2. a. Succeeding in your chosen occupation is mainly a matter of social contacts--knowing the right people.
    b. Succeeding in your chosen profession is a matter of personal competence--how much you know.

3. a. Achieving a successful marriage depends on the devotion and commitment of both partners to each other.
    b. The most important element in a happy marriage is being lucky enough to marry the right person.

4. a. It is silly to think that you can really change another person's basic attitudes.
    b. When I am right, I can convince others.

5. a. In our society, your future earning power depends on your ability.
    b. Making a lot of money is largely a matter of getting the right breaks.

6. a. I 've little influence over the way other people behave.
    b. If you know how to deal with people, you can lead them and get them to do what you
       want.

7. a. People like I can change the course of world affairs if we make ourselves heard.
    b. It is only wishful thinking to believe that you can really influence what happens.

8. a. A great deal of what happens to me is probably a matter of chance.
    b. I am the master of my life.

9. a. Getting along with other people is a skill that must be practiced.
    b. It is almost impossible to figure out how to please some people.

10. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest
       in politics.
    b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

11. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can
       neither understand, nor control.
    b. In the long run, the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well
       as a local level.

12. a. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world
       events.
    b. This world is run by a few people in power and there is not much the little guy can
       do.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that   can make them work.
    b. Many times I might as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

****

Please read the following statements about the characteristics of the volunteer work you do in
this organization. Circle the number representing the amount of the characteristics present
in your work.
****

	very little		moderate amount		very much
How much variety is there in your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How much are you left to your own to do your own work?	1	2	3	4	5
How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?	1	2	3	4	5
How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendships with?	1	2	3	4	5
How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?	1	2	3	4	5
How repetitious are your duties?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other volunteers while at work?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical work day?	1	2	3	4	5

	very little		moderate amount		very much
The feedback from my supervisor on how well I am doing is:	1	2	3	4	5

	Minimum amount		Moderate amount		Maximum amount
Friendship from my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to talk to others on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a number of different things	1	2	3	4	5
The freedom to do pretty much what . want on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The degree to which the work I am involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself	1	2	3	4	5
The amount of variety on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity for independent thought and action	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to complete work I start	1	2	3	4	5
The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to develop close friend- ships in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Meeting with others in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
The control I have over the pace of my work	1	2	3	4	5
The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to end (i.e. the chance to do a whole job)	1	2	3	4	5
The extent of feedback you receive form individuals other than your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

****

This section contains some general questions. The answers you provide will allow you to be grouped with other individuals with similar characteristics. The answers you give are totally confidential and will not be reported except in summary form.

****

What gender are you? _____ Male _____ Female

What is your age? _____

Please indicate the highest level of education you have reached. Indicate only one category.

_____ did not graduate from high school
_____ high school graduate
_____ attended some college
_____ attended vo-tech school

_____ graduated from college
_____ attended graduate school
_____ completed a Masters degree
_____ worked on Doctorate
_____ completed Doctorate

Please indicate the category which represents your gross family income.

_____ less than 15,000
_____ 15,000 to 24,999
_____ 25,000 to 34,999

_____ 35,000 to 44,999
_____ 45,000 to 54,999
_____ 55,000 and over

How long have you worked as a volunteer? _____

Do you plan to quit doing volunteer work for this organization?

           _____yes   __no

Are you, in general, dissatisfied with the quality of the leadership in this organization?

           _____Yes   _____No

How long have you been a volunteer for this organization? _____   Years _____ Months

How many hours per week do you do volunteer work? _____

What percentage of this time is spent in work for this organization? _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION IN FILLING OUT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.