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VOLUNTEERS – HOW TO MOTIVATE AND LEAD THEM

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Abstract
The aim of this thesis is to study the leadership of volunteers and its specific characteristics. The motivation of volunteers is studied and also how the leadership of volunteers is implemented in some volunteer organisations operating in Finland. The thesis also presents basic theories in human motivation and leadership styles to help identify suitable methods for the leadership of volunteers.

The thesis process was conducted during the spring of 2014 and consisted of two parts. The first part was creating the theoretical background for the topic through studying existing literature about motivation, leadership and voluntary work. The empirical part was conducted through a qualitative research. For the research three volunteer organisations operating in Finland was chosen. From these three organisations, together five employees working with volunteers were interviewed and six volunteers volunteering for the organisation.

The results suggest that volunteer's motivations are wide and that volunteering gives value to both the volunteers and the organisations. The existence of volunteers is a vital condition for these non-profit organisations, and efforts for motivating and committing the volunteers are made. Leading volunteers is different from leading paid-staff, and these differences are important to acknowledge while leading volunteers.

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Volunteers, voluntary work, motivation, leadership.


Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat että vapaaehtoisten motivaatiot ovat monitahoiset ja että vapaaehtoistyö antaa paljon niin vapaaehtoisille itselleen kuin järjestöille. Vapaaehtoisten työ on elinehto vapaaehtoisjärjestöjen toiminnalle ja järjestöt paneutuvat vapaaehtoisestensa motivoinmiseen ja sitouttamiseen. Vapaaehtoisten työntekijöiden johtaminen eroaa palkattujen työntekijöiden johtamisesta ja näiden erojen ymmärtäminen on huomionarvoista johdettaessa vapaaehtoisia.
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1 INTRODUCTION

Non-governmental organisations and other non-profit organisations often work for a cause. They want to create a change and to make the world a better place. Their greatest assets are the people who voluntarily work for them and share this want. There are as many different ways to volunteer, as there are volunteers. Some volunteer only occasionally, in small-scale events, for example taking care of the cafeteria at the school’s spring sale. Others go as far as breaking the law in order to save the polar bears.

The motivations behind volunteering have been studied, as this report will present in the later chapters. Most volunteers do it because they share the cause with the organisation they volunteer for, but volunteering is more; it gives more. It gives fulfilment, self-actualisation, a way to spend new spare time while being retired, a channel to meet new friends, a method to gain important skills for working life and the possibility to make a difference. All these elements came up in the research done for this report.

Volunteer organisations have the possibility to make a change, to serve fields and people that the government no longer is able to take care of, to offer a choice. The problem is that volunteer organisations struggle with the same problems that for profit-organisations do. The increased number of volunteer organisations has created a concurrence of volunteers and funds. Also people do not have as much time to volunteer as before. Getting highly motivated and efficient volunteers is not that easy, and it is even harder to keep them motivated and prevent their retention.

Volunteer organisations need management and leadership too. Large organisations that operate in several countries have both paid workers and volunteers. They co-operate with governments and with each other. This all requires skilled management and leadership, not only activists who share the ideology. In order to support this, this thesis seeks to study the efficiency of
leadership in Finnish volunteer organisations and point out possible improvement areas.

The writer has some experience being a volunteer, and this experience and the interest towards human resource management, motivation and leadership is what lead to this subject of study. Through this study, the writer wants to emphasise the importance of leadership in volunteer organisations and the possibilities it offers. The writer believes that volunteering will only increase in the future and it will offer various possibilities for the volunteers themselves and also for those who receive help through voluntary organisations.

This report consists of a theoretical background related to the topic and of a research conducted in a qualitative form. The theoretical background is divided into fours parts. First the term voluntary workforce and how it is used in this report is explained. Then basic theories of human motivation are presented, which is followed with information on leadership and different leadership styles. The fourth part deals with specific issues in motivation and the leadership of volunteers.

2 WHAT IS VOLUNTARY WORK?

Before presenting theories on motivation and leadership, a short description of what voluntary work is and how the term is used in this report is given. This chapter explains shortly voluntary work so that later on the reader can understand the term used in the text.

Lehtinen (1997, 17) defines voluntary work as, “a process where people together start to improve their quality of life and overcome obstacles.” She also thinks there are certain characteristics of voluntary work. First of all, people need to be involved by their own free will. Secondly, the people participating in voluntary work are not getting paid for their efforts. Expenses are sometimes covered for volunteers, but they are not getting a fixed salary. Other
characteristics she attaches to volunteerism are that it should not replace paid labour, it costs even though the labour force is free, and voluntary work should be managed. Voluntary workers need supervision and guidance and also rewarding. (Lehtinen 1997, 20–21.)

In Finland volunteering has mainly been seen as work supporting governmental operations from non-governmental organisations (Lehtinen 1997, 17). The International Labour Union ILO argues that volunteer work has a great impact on the world’s problem-solving and its contributions are growing still (ILO 2012). For many non-profit and other organisations using volunteer workforce, volunteers are a major component (Worth 2009, 197).

In Finland during 2009, 29% of citizens over 10 years of age had participated in some kind of volunteer action within the previous 4 weeks (Tilastokeskus 2011). The most popular organisations that collect Finnish volunteers are those operating in the field of sports and exercise and healthcare and social services (Yeung 2002). The biggest reason not to attend to some kind of volunteer actions seemed to be lack of time (Yeung 2002).

Volunteers come in different forms. Some people are volunteering only occasionally, participating to short events that require only little commitment. Others take part in an organisation’s volunteer program continually, and their tasks might be really close to a paid worker’s responsibilities. These positions might require high levels of continuity and dependability. Then there is also forced voluntarism, like schools student taking part in an event without any clear rewards. (Worth 2009, 198.)

In this report the term voluntary workforce will describe organisations’ workers who are not receiving a fixed salary connected to their performance. They might be offered some compensation for travel costs or be given a present like free festival tickets for their work, but this compensation is not tied to their level of performance. With the term voluntary workforce, it is also means workers that are not tied to the organisation with a contract that obligates them to perform.
They are able to decide their level of performance and commitment and able to leave when ever they feel like doing so.

3 MOTIVATION - WHAT MAKES PEOPLE ACT?

This chapter will deal with basics of motivation and present some motivation theories. It will answer to the question what is motivation and clarify how the theories have changed during time. As the chapter before, this chapter will make it easier for the reader to understand the information presented in the upcoming chapters.

3.1 Concept of motivation

The word motivation comes from the Latin word *movere*, which is translated in to “to move” (Steers & Porter 1975, 5). This does not entirely describe the way we use the word motivation now, but tells us where it all started. A more useful definition of the word motivation, that describes well how it is used in business literature and also in this report, comes from The Oxford Dictionary of Current English:

*A reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way.*

What interests psychologist and managers is how to make someone motivated to act. Motivating is the act when someone tries to give an incentive for another person to act in a certain wanted way. (MacKay 2007, 20.) Motivation psychology looks to find an answer to the question, what motivates us? Why do people act or think the way they do? (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 10.) Motivational theories have been created to be able to predict the behaviour of humans and to know what causes the chosen actions (McKay 2002, 21).

Motivation has been studied for a long time; the early Greek philosophers discussed hedonism, which can be seen as an early root for our motivational
theories (Steers & Porter 1975, 9). During the last hundred years, motivational theories started to move towards a more scientific approach (Steers & Porter 1975, 9–10), creating fields that looked at motivation from different approaches. The earliest ones believed that human motivation arose from human basic instincts and were mostly physiological. (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 11.) Instincts such as hunger, thirst, fear and love were believed to guide humans’ behaviour. From this the theories moved to believe that past events affected mainly how people decided to act in the future; this was called the drive theory. (Steers & Porter 1975,11.) In modern motivational research, human motivation has been studied through plans and expectations of persons. Researchers have also focused on how motivation affects our well-being and how does our culture, past experiences, personality, and life stages change our motivation. (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 23–24.)

The first theories have given the basis to the modern day motivation theories, still to the day of our time, no one right theory has been created that would clearly describe human behaviour. (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 189.)

3.2 Motivational theories

3.2.1 Hierarchy of needs

Probably one of the most well-known motivational theories is Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Steers & Porter 1975, 31). Abraham Maslow was an American psychologist, and his theory of the human needs influenced many other scientists during the mid 20th century. (MacKay 2002, 42.) Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is a motivation theory claiming that humans have five basic needs that are in a hierarchy in order of their appearance. Motivations create needs, and as one need is satisfied a person moves the latter up to the next need. (McKay 2002, 42.)

These five needs have been given several different names over time, but here is one version of them, moving upwards: psychological, safety, belongingness,
esteem and self-actualisation. (Streers & Porter 1975, 31.) Psychological needs are needs such as hunger and sleep, coming first in the ladder. Safety needs describe the need for shelter and welfare. Belongingness is a need for social interaction and love. Esteem deals with a person’s need to be respected by himself and others. When all these needs are satisfied a person moves to the last need, the top of the pyramid, self-actualization. It is a desire of self-fulfilment and to create something more. (Steers & Porter 1975, 34–37.)

Maslow’s theory has gained a lot of criticism; firstly it has not been fully tested or questioned. Research has not confirmed that a person would stay at a need level until that need would be satisfied. (Wilson 2010, 125.) One problem is also that the hierarchy of needs presents the idea that all people have the same hierarchy. Aleksei Leontjev, a researcher from the Soviet Union, claimed that the hierarchy of people’s needs varies from person to person and cannot be compared. (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 15.)

3.2.2 Motivation-hygiene theory

Frederick Herzberg created a motivation or management theory putting its base largely on Maslow’s theory (McKay 2002 45). Herzberg uses Maslow’s different needs and divides them into two different factors, creating the base for the two-factor theory, also known as motivation-hygiene theory (Steers & Porter 1975, 87). The two different factors include several work related issues that Herzberg relates to work satisfaction and dissatisfaction, or motivation and hygiene factors. Hygiene factors are for example pay, safety at work, working conditions and other tangible factors. Motivators are the feelings the work creates, that stimulate person’s self-esteem and self-actualisations needs, like achievement and recognition. (McKay 2002, 45.)

Herzberg sees that these two factors are not opposites; they act for themselves in different ways (Steers & Porter 1975, 95). For example good working conditions create satisfaction for employees, but do not necessarily create motivation to work, while missing a feeling of achievement in work will not make
the employee dissatisfied with the work. As people’s needs vary, so do the factors that motivate them. Critics towards Herzberg’s theory state that for some people the factors might work the other way around. (Wilson 2010, 127.)

3.2.3 Theory X and Y

Before the 1950s, managers tended to think of workers as lazy, work avoiding and -disliking persons that needed to be monitored and punished in order to get them to work effectively. Douglas McGregor later called this phenomenon Theory X. He saw that managers’ ideas of workers affected the way they managed them. As an opposite of Theory X, McGregor created Theory Y, where workers are thought to actually like to work, enjoy achievement and responsibility. (McKay 2002, 42–43 and Wilson 2010, 129–130.)

This theory does have its appeal, but it has not gained support through research (McKay 2002, 42). It is also seen that these kinds of behavioural theories are naive, and that positive support does not automatically lead to more motivated and committed employees (Wilson 2010, 131). Some research still states that giving a meaning to work helps employees to feel more positively about it and then also be more motivated. (Forsyth 2006, 18.)

3.2.4 Expectancy theory

Expectancy, or expectancy/valence theory, is a motivation theory created by Victor Vroom. It suggests that human motivation and the behaviour affected by motivation is not as simple as researchers had thought. An important aspect was also that Vroom acknowledged the differences between persons and their motivation. (McKay 2002, 62–63.)

The expectancy theory consists of three elements: valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Valence is the degree to which the person values the reward or outcome of the action, e.g. a bonus offered for extra sales. Instrumentality describes the belief that the reward will come if the extra performance is done.
Lastly, expectancy describes the belief of, is the required action actually possible to achieve. (Stewart & Brown 2010, 413–414.)

Support for the expectancy theory can be found, even though research has not fully proven it to work (Wilson 2010, 134). A person’s motivation is linked to his skills in the way that the job should not be too easy or too hard compared to the employee’s skills (Peltonen & Ruohotie 1987, 41), and so expectancy theory can be seen to have some point.

3.2.5 Relational Model of Motivation

Joseph R. Nuttin was one of the modern thinkers of motivational theories, and his relational model of motivation changed the way human motivation was seen. According to him, human motivation is a combination of inner needs and outer sources that can fulfil the needs. For example, the need is hunger, but the person can choose between several possibilities to satisfy this need depending on what the environment is offering. The need and the options together create the motive. (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi 2002, 12–13.)

Nuttin himself says that motivation has been seen as either intrinsic or extrinsic, but his theory of relational motivation combines motivation as the relationship of these two (Nuttin 1984, 2). Contrary to Maslow, Nuttin thinks that motivation is a continuous process, which does not end when one need is satisfied. (Nuttin 1984, 60.)

4 LEADERSHIP - HOW TO MAKE PEOPLE ACT

This chapter offers the reader a quick go through of leadership and its various styles and also clarifies the meaning of leadership compared to management. Defining leadership and separating it from the term management has for long created discussions. Some argue that the two terms are not different whilst others do not agree. One method to describe the two terms is that management
is about administration and leadership of relations. (Wilson 2010, 145.) In this report the term leadership will be used separately from management, leadership meaning the act of guiding and motivating persons and groups.

4.1 Basics of leadership

Different leadership theories have been created through the ages. (Pendleton & Furnham, 10–11.) A summary of the different phases of leadership theories could state that methods have shifted from a high-level of authority and supervision, where compliance was important and expected, towards more cooperative and supporting methods, where commitment is the key motivator. (Pendleton & Furnham 2012, 11–12.)

As with motivation theories, there is not one leadership method. The best method is to adapt the leadership style to match different people and situations. (Peltonen & Ruohotie 1987, 62.) The size of the team also has an effect; a leadership style that is more concerned with people rather than tasks works well for smaller teams, creating a sense of belongingness and a group dynamic. This makes the team supervise itself and increases the groups' motivation. When dealing with larger work groups, a more task-oriented method is more suitable. (Peltonen & Ruohotie 1987, 64.)

According to John Adair, a good leader divides his focus between three dimensions: task, team and individual. If he or she fails to lead on of these areas, it will affect the other dimensions. (Soisalo 2014, 50.) Something that Adair also noted is that leadership is a combination of skills that can be learned; one does not need to be born as a leader. (Pardey 2007, 16.) So far it seems that there is no specific trait that would make a successful leader; it is the leader's skills to adapt his style to a situation that makes him or her successful (Pendleton & Furnham 2012, 14).
4.2 Leadership theories

4.2.1 Taylorism

In the beginning of the 20th century, when leadership theories started to pop-up, science had a lot of influence on how leadership was seen. One of the most well known leadership and management theorist was Frederick Taylor, who created the scientific leadership style. At the time it was more of a management style and still could be, but as it affected how employees were led, it can be seen as a leadership theory. (Pendleton & Furnham 2012, 13.)

Taylor’s ideas of management led to re-organise the way work was done. Key ideas were to de-skill the tasks employees were given, one person performing only a simple task and the next person performing the second. This was for managers easy to follow and supervise; employees could be replaced easily and skill requirements for employees were low. (Wilson 2010, 86.)

Taylor was only one proponent of this method of management. Scientific and classical schools of management were common in the early 20th century and typical of these management or leadership styles were high control, centralised authority and rules. In these different theories employees are seen as machines, and the key idea is to create a system that makes the machine work as well as it can. (Reis & Peña 2001, 666.)

4.2.2 Lewin’s leadership styles

One of the most popular leadership theories is the one created by Kurt Lewin and his colleagues. The theory describes three different styles of leaderships that vary from each other; authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. (Pendleton & Furnham 2012, 14.)

In an authoritarian leadership style the manager or leader possesses the key role in decision-making, and the subordinates have basically no influence on
the process. The leader is more concerned of the task than the people; people are merely a tool for achieving the goal. Because of the few people that can make decisions, this leadership style is very effective. (Soisalo 2014, 30.) The democratic leadership style is almost the opposite of the authoritarian style. Here, the leader is still the one making the last decision, but the subordinates have the possibility to make known their opinion and ideas. Decisions and strategies are discussed in groups, and everyone has the possibility to participate. (Soisalo 2014, 31–32.) Laissez-faire is the third style that Lewin presented. It describes a style were the subordinates are given free hands, intentionally or sometimes unintentionally, for example because of the lack of experience of the leader. (Soisalo 2014, 32.)

All the different leadership styles have their pros and cons. The authoritarian leadership style might raise negative feelings inside the working environment, but is effective when decisions need to be made fast, as in a crisis situation. (Soisalo 2014, 30.) Democratic leadership usually creates a sense of belongingness in a team and raises job satisfaction, but the decision-making process is slower and some persons might need more support for making progress. (Soisalo 2014, 32.)

4.2.3 Situational leadership

When deciding how to lead, one can take into consideration the skill level and commitment of the person or team. Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard created a leadership model called situational leadership, where people are divided into four different categories according to their skills and commitment. These levels are then matched with the four different levels of leadership. People on the first level have little or no experience, lack self-confidence towards the task and are not highly motivated; this level requires a more commanding and supervising leadership style. On the contrary, forth-level persons are highly skilled and experienced and can be given almost free hands. (Soisalo 2014, 37–39.) This all is illustrated in Table 1 below.
Table 1. Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership. Source Pardey 2007, 20.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follower’s development levels</th>
<th>Leadership style</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1 Low in competence and commitment</td>
<td>S1 Directing</td>
<td>The leader tells the follower what to do and supervises work closely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2 Some competence but uncommitted</td>
<td>S2 Coaching</td>
<td>Although still directing followers, they are allowed to participate more, but decisions are still made by the leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3 Fairly competent but not fully committed</td>
<td>S3 Supporting</td>
<td>The leader allows the followers more freedom to decide what to do and how to do it, but supervises without being too controlling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4 Highly competent and committed</td>
<td>S4 Delegating</td>
<td>By and large followers are left to make decisions on their own; they decide what help they want from their leader.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This theory has not been fully supported by research, but research that has been done agrees that it is useful to teach leaders to adapt their styles to different personas (Wilson 2010, 152).

4.2.4 Transformational leadership

In transformational leadership, the leaders seek to transform the goals of the ones being led. The leader motivates by sharing a vision of something better and creates a collective were the leaders and led share a common will and
mission. Transformational leaders inspire people to perform. A political scientist named Burns created this theory in the 1970s. (Wilson 2010, 150.)

Burns also defined an opposite leadership style for transformational leadership. It was called transactional leadership. In transactional leadership performance and value are being exchanged from the manager to the employee and vice versa. For doing a task, the employee gets paid and if not performing there is a punishment. In contrast transformational leadership develops a mutual trust, a will to work together towards a better option or the mission of the organisation. The key is to motivate people through inspiring them, not with rewards. (Worth 2009, 96–97.)

4.2.5 Charismatic leadership

Charismatic leaders are quite similar to transformational leaders: they make people want to follow them through inspiration and being able to make people motivated and exited. What makes it different from transformational leadership is that charismatic leaders do not want to change the employees; they might actually not be focused on the employees at all. (Soisalo 2014, 31.)

A charismatic leader believes in his or her mission and is not afraid to engage in self-sacrifice or to use unconventional ways to achieve the goal. They are able to communicate their cause powerfully and through that influence the followers they gather to achieve their mission. (Worth 2009, 99.)

The charismatic leadership style suffers from the fact that many charismatic leaders seem to have narcissistic characters and that they see themselves as more important than the team. When a charismatic leader resigns from the job or project, the whole project might collapse because it was built around the leader. (Soisalo 2014, 31.)
4.2.6 Trust leadership

Trust leadership is a new leadership style that answers to any problems that a changing working environment has created. A new generation of often more educated employees know what to ask for and what they want from their work; the older leadership styles relating to authority and command do not work anymore. (Kalliomaa & Kettunen 2010, 11.) Trust in the leadership relationship is created through communication and openness between the leaders and the led. It builds up companionship relying on moral and ethical values, where both parties commit to creating value for each other. (Kalliomaa & Kettunen 2010, 33.)

Researches support the value of trust in the leader-follower relationship. They stress creating well-being for the individual, reducing risks and operating costs for the organisation and to increase commitment and productivity. (Krot & Lewicka, 224.)

5 MOTIVATION AND THE LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTEERS

The last chapter of the theoretical background in this report deals with specific issues in leading and motivating a voluntary workforce, combining the earlier presented theories and analysing them through the volunteer viewpoint.

5.1 How to lead volunteers?

Many larger non-governmental organisations often have both paid staff and volunteers. This creates a requirement for both operational management and leadership. Paid staff and the organisation needs to be managed, but the volunteers require a more political and motivating way of leadership. (Drucker 2007, 8.) Leadership is essential when communicating the organisation’s vision and mission to the volunteers in order to retain their motivation and commitment (Worth 2009, 94). Leadership methods need to be considered in volunteer
organisations because volunteers are not being paid, so monetary rewards or punishments do not have an effect on them. It is more effective to lead volunteers through relationships and inspiration than hard discipline. (Worth 2009, 98.)

The need for leadership is clear. Volunteers themselves want more people-focused leadership from their leaders. They do need support and encouragement to their work. Knowing when they have done a good job and understanding that their performance creates value for the organisation increases motivation of the volunteers. All this can easily be created through communication and involvement of the management. (Hänninen 2012.)

Worth (2009, 199–204) lists several important aspects that an organisation should take into account while dealing with volunteers. An organisation should consider its need for volunteers and develop job descriptions for them. The organisation should make clear what task volunteers are performing. The organisation should also create rules and policies for volunteers. These policies should make the relationship between volunteers and possible paid staff clear. Clear policies prevent misunderstandings and also work as risk management. With the policies and task descriptions also comes a clear budget for volunteers. Volunteers need equipment to perform, and the budget should be planned as any other budget of the organisation.

Many researches state that voluntary work has been most efficient in organisations were the activities have been tailored to match the volunteers’ skills and motives (Lehtinen 1997, 21). When operations are well taken care of and tasks are done perfectly, a feeling of dignity to the volunteer community is created. (Drucker 2007, 35.)

Support and guidance is important also for a volunteer workforce. Volunteers might experience stress and anxiety in work as paid-staff does. Many volunteers are active in organisations providing social and health services, and despite possible professional background, volunteers might themselves be in need of counselling due to their work. (Kettunen & Myllymaa in Porkka &
Guidance and support also helps the volunteers to find their strengths and skills; therefore, the volunteers can be organised towards more suitable tasks, which again is more likely to create satisfaction towards the job. It can help make the volunteers more committed to the organisation, and possible problems or negative feelings can be dealt with more quickly. (Porkka & Salmenjaakkko, 12–14.)

5.2 Motivations behind volunteering

Yeung studied motivations inside the volunteers of the evangelic church in Finland and created an octagon model of volunteer motivation, illustrated in Figure 1. In the research she found several hundred motivational elements, which she divided into eight dimensions. From the eight dimensions, four groups that are linked together were created; these are: getting-giving, continuity-newness, distance-proximity and thought-action. (Yeung in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 104–107.)

![Figure 1. The Octagon Model of Volunteer Motivation by Yeung 2005.](image)

On the getting-giving axis were placed elements of motivation, which described what people felt they gained or were giving while performing volunteer work.
This dimension included the majority of the elements found in the research. People felt that the work gave back more than they themselves gave to it. They got a feeling of self-actualisation through what they did and also got personal wellness through the positive feelings the volunteerism raised. The work gave them feelings of success and also a purpose. The element of giving came through as a need and a will to help and make others’ lives better. A desire to spread good will and work as an example for others also came up. Some elements were placed on the middle of the axis, such as the motivational force, where people believed that when they offer their help they will also receive it someday. (Yeung in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 109–112.)

Continuity-newness was seen in elements such as working with something familiar, continuing experience from parents and doing something that past experience had shown to be enjoyable. For some it seemed to be almost a lifestyle. Voluntary work also offered continuity for paid labour. As one respondent explained that for his generation, work has been the main meaning in life, and after retirement voluntary work offered continuity to this meaning. On the opposite side of the axis, the dimension of newness collected elements such as seeing voluntarism as something new and exiting. Voluntary work offered some of the respondents a way to broaden their lives or to counterweigh their personal life. Voluntary work was also a method to gain new skills and to help to survive a personal change. (Yeung in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 112–113.)

Belongingness to the group and a way to perform without obligations were elements that showed up in the distance-proximity axis. Voluntary work offered a way to work without boundaries, bureaucracy or the feeling of must. Through voluntarism people could by themselves define the amount of effort they gave to the cause. The social aspect of voluntary work, elements such as belonging to a group, meeting new people and the spirit inside the teams worked as clear motivators for people. (Yeung in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 113–115.)

In the last axis, the thought-action axis, people’s values played a major role in the thought dimension. Values and role models were in the background when persons started to do voluntary work. For some, voluntary work offered a way to
deal with personal dilemmas or crises. In simplicity, for others it was just a way to spend spare time. A motivational element that was placed in the middle of the axis was the element of being able to actualise one’s values through voluntarism. (Yeung in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 116–117.)

Many researches implemented in Finland show that motives behind voluntary work are connected to the person’s life cycle or life experience. (Sorri in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 126–139.) In his research Sorri defined three dimensions explaining why people volunteering for church’s’ helping phone line started to work as volunteers. The three different dimensions were development focused, crisis focused and situation focused. People with focus on development started to volunteer at the help line because they wanted to gain or improve skills that they saw to be relevant and useful for their professional development. Crisis focused persons often had experienced an own crisis in life and wanted to help others and also deal with their own crisis through their volunteer work. Situational focused persons were in life situations suitable for volunteerism, they were for example newly retired and were looking for fulfilment to their new spare time. (Sorri in Nylund & Yeung 2005, 128-130.)

When applying the previously presented motivational theories on volunteers, Herzberg’s motivators and hygiene factors seems to be comparable. As Yeung (In Nylund & Yeung 2005, 109-112) found out in her research, volunteers got a feeling of self-actualisation trough volunteering, which again is the highest need level in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. When looking at the other motivation element Yeung found, self-actualisation is not the only need in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs that came up, people volunteered because they found the social environment enjoyable and also in wish to gain help for themselves in the future, those elements answering the social and safety needs.

5.3 How to motivate volunteers?

Volunteers are not getting paid for their work, so keeping them motivated and active requires different methods than when leading paid-staff. Organising the
work so that it is motivating and exiting can work as a reward itself, because when a person gets satisfaction from the work itself, the need for an extrinsic reward is smaller. (Peltonen & Ruohotie 1987, 36 & 40.) People start volunteering for different reasons, and leaders of organisations using volunteer workforce should offer volunteers a change to reach their personal goals. Leaders should also communicate their own motives and work as examples. (Worth 2009, 195.)

Leaders should offer volunteers motivating and rewarding tasks. The motivational theories presented offer examples on how to create satisfying tasks. (Worth 2009, 195–196.) Drucker (2007, 26) performed a research with boy scouts and showed that the most effective groups were the ones from whom it was expected a high level of commitment and performance.

How to then reward volunteers when one cannot give them money in exchange of their performance? The motivational theories and studies made within volunteers presented earlier offers some guidance. While the leaders know what motivates their volunteers, they can offer compensation that answer to these needs like free social events, acknowledgement, more responsibility and training. For many volunteers simply the possibility to help or work for the cause is a motivator. Organisations should communicate their success to the volunteers so that they know the value of their work. Volunteers have seemed to be satisfied with their work as long as the motivators Herzberg presented, exist. Using these as a base for organisations’ incentives for their volunteers might so raise the motivation of the volunteers. (Worth 2009, 193.)

Still, for the organisation, it is important to understand not to put all its resources into motivating volunteers if it is not useful. The key is to choose the right people for the case, people that really want to be a part of the organisation’s cause and work for it. Trying to motivate people who are not keen on the cause is a waste of time even though volunteers are not being paid money. Creating a selective and motivating atmosphere for an organisation will itself work as a motivator for the volunteers. (Collins 2005, 24–25.)
5.4 Recruiting and retaining volunteers

Many organisations are in need of volunteers and do not put much thought into recruiting them. For long-term efficiency and to make the program more attractive, organisations should recruit volunteers, as they would be paid staff. Not putting real effort and not being selective in the recruiting process of volunteers might end up offering very short term help while not giving a good experience either for the organisation nor the volunteer. (Worth 2009, 203.) When thinking of the motivational theories presenter earlier, being selective and creating a status for volunteering might result in higher motivation not only to attend to volunteer activity, but also to gain more responsibilities and to retain staff longer.

In her book Yeung (2002, 63–64) describes the findings of her research dealing with volunteers and why people do not volunteer. For most the reason was lack of time, but many of the persons not volunteering explained it through never being asked to do so or not knowing how to. Especially many younger persons claimed that they would want to participate if only asked. Yeung also points out that younger persons tend to attend to volunteering through their friends. These facts give reason to assume that communicating and marketing volunteering and the organisations missions could bring new volunteers to the organisation. Using volunteer motivations as a treat to volunteer might bring an organisation new volunteers. An organisation should realise that people volunteer for different reasons and use this knowledge in for example marketing and recruiting materials in order to create interest among possible new volunteers. (Riggio & Orr 2004, 170.)

After recruitment, new volunteers should be oriented to their new responsibility areas and to the organisation’s policies. (Worth 2009, 199–204.) Socialising new volunteers is important while wanting to create higher commitment and participation of volunteers. (Catano, Pond & Kelloway 2001, 256.)
Volunteer performance should be evaluated, and success needs to be communicated. Volunteers do not get monetary compensation for their work, so they need recognition not only for motivation, but to know they are doing the right thing. Recognising good performance means that the organisation needs to deal with bad performance, too. Some organisations might hesitate in dealing with the bad performance of a volunteer because they are in great need of volunteers, but doing so might create negative feelings inside the working group. (Worth 2009, 203–205.) The problem with getting rid of low performing volunteers might also be that the leaders see the other volunteers as a kind of brothers-in-arms and so do not want to let them go, even if it would be better for the organisation to do so. (Drucker 2008, 150.)

Offering volunteers social events has a high impact on their motivation to stay and perform. A research by Müller-Kohlenberg shows that the change to meet other volunteers has a huge impact on the well-being and strength to continue of the volunteers. The impact is much greater than when meeting with paid staff of the same organisation. (Lehtinen 1997, 21.) A research made by Yeung presented earlier also stated that social interaction is a high motivator for volunteers, and leaders should take this into count both in recruiting operations and in strategies to commit volunteers.

A study inside the British Red Cross showed that skilled leaders are able to create higher motivation and more positive attitudes towards voluntary work, and so they are also able to keep volunteers longer. It is also important to offer a variety of tasks, if only possible, to offer the volunteers a job that motivates them and gives them the possibility to achieve their goals. (Waikayi, Fearon, Morris & McLaughlin 2012, 362.)

The responsibility of motivating the volunteers effectively is on the organisation. The organisation needs to create tasks and missions that the volunteers want to perform to keep them active. It is also important to make it possible for the volunteers to perform well; most of the volunteers do have activities outside the volunteer organisation that requires their time and effort. Organisations need to
take this into consideration and tailor their operations so that it is both easy and attractive to participate. (Loimu 2000, 361–363.)

6 STUDYING LEADERSHIP IN FINNISH VOLUNTEER ORGANISATIONS - HOW THE RESEARCH WAS CONDUCTED

The empirical part of this thesis was conducted as a research. This chapter will present the aim of the study, the research questions, the methods used to gather information and describe the implementation of the research.

6.1 The aim of the study

The aim of this study is to analyse specific characteristics in the leadership of volunteers and to offer guidance for persons dealing with volunteers. Motivation and leadership theories are presented to give ideas on what kind of methods suit best for volunteers. The empirical part seeks also to study the current state and methods used in volunteer organisations operating in Finland and how the volunteers themselves experience these.

When finished, the report can work as guidance for voluntary organisations in how to motivate, recruit and retain voluntary workforce.

The research questions this report seeks to answer to are:

- What kind of leadership and rewarding methods are effective in leading voluntary workforce?
- What are the motives behind voluntarism and how can they be supported by the organisation?
- How can leaders of volunteers optimise activity and commitment of volunteers?
- How effective is the leadership of voluntary organisations in Finland currently?

6.2 How information was gathered

The theoretical background was gathered using existing literature in the field of motivation, leadership and voluntarism. Not only existing literature in the business field was used, but also many of the materials dealing with motivation were from the field of psychology. While going through materials and theories of human motivation, it quickly came through that management and leadership literature is still following very strictly the older motivational theories as Maslow’s and Herzberg’s, even though in the field of psychology the research has moved a lot further.

Articles were used, as they often present more up to date data and information. An important source for information was also reports and guidebooks written by different organisations that were used to inform their own volunteers.

In order to answer the research questions presented above and to support the information presented in the theoretical part, a two-part qualitative research was conducted. The first part consisted of interviews with specialist or group leaders inside Finnish volunteer organisations. The aim was to study how leadership is conducted inside these organisations and how the specialist felt about it. The second part included interviews done with the volunteers themselves. A match-pair system was used in conducting both interviews. The experts and volunteers were chosen from the same organisations in order to support the comparability of the data.

The qualitative method was chosen to implement the research, because a qualitative research can start without any pre-ideas or a hypothesis. (Eskola & Suoranta 2000, 19.) The aim was to find out the feelings and ideas that the volunteers had, not to test how common they were, so a qualitative method was more suitable.
During the research, five persons working with leading and guiding the volunteers from three different organisations were interviewed, as were six volunteers from these three organisations. In this report, the persons in charge of leading the volunteers are referred to as volunteer coordinators and the volunteers are referred to as volunteers. Most of the interviews were conducted as face-to-face interviews between 18th of April and 5th of May in 2014. Two of the five coordinators were interviewed via email, because of the convenience and wish of the respondents. All the volunteer interviews were done face-to-face. The interviews were semi-structured and thematic, offering the interviewees the possibility to explain their own ideas and opinions. A list of questions was made and used to make the findings more comparable. The questions were separated into four different themes: leadership, motivation, rewarding and personal ideas. The interviews both to the coordinators and the volunteers had the same themes, with one expectation, the volunteers also had a fifth theme, compensation and encouraging. The themes were supporting the theories presented in the theoretical part of this report.

The organisations and volunteers are kept unknown in this report for ethical reasons. In the text the organisations are referred as organisation A, B and C. Organisation A is a labour union, organisation B a charitable organisation and organisation C is an animal activist organisation. They all operate in Finland both nationally and locally. The volunteers in these organisations that were interviewed were part of local departments, but some were also in national committees. Volunteers were from various ages and most of them were women. The persons interviewed are referred to in the following way: coordinators are marker with letter “c”, so coordinator from organisation A is referred to as Ac1 and the volunteers are referred to with the letter “v”, so volunteers from organisation B are either Bv1 or Bv2.
Table 2. List of the interviewed organisations and persons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Interviewed coordinators</th>
<th>Interviewed volunteers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A | • Labour union  
• 8000 volunteers | • Ac1  
• Av1  
• Av2 |
| B | • Charitable organisation  
• 40 000 volunteers | • Bc1  
• Bc2  
• Bv1  
• Bv2 |
| C | • Animal activist organisation  
• 600 volunteers | • Cc1  
• Cc2  
• Cv1  
• Cv2 |

The organisations were chosen because of their usage of volunteers. The possibility to perform face-to-face interviews affected the choice. All the organisations had a local office or a person in charge of the local operations. The coordinators were chosen due to their experience in leading volunteers, and the volunteers were mainly randomly chosen by interest to attend to the research. Still their amount of experience affected the choice, because persons with more experience could more thoroughly answer the questions.

Face-to-face interviews were recorded and noted. The interviews were done in Finnish language. The interviewees were asked questions, but throughout the discussion, new points came out and it affected the structure of the interviews. The recorded material was gone through as soon as possible after the interviews and transformed to written form. The written reports were done to match the recordings word-to-word, so they were also reported in Finnish. To the final report the comments that were cited were translated to English. Later the analysis was done with the help of these written reports. The email answers were used as the respondents wrote them. The interviews and the email answers were 51 pages together in written form.
6.3 How the data was analysed

The data was analysed using the different themes existing in the interviews. Using this method helps the researcher to point out themes that relate to the research questions, and it is possible to compare the answers and the theoretical background with the help of the themes. (Eskola & Suoranta 2000, 174.) While organising the data using the themes, citations from the interviewees are most often interesting, but do not offer particularly valuable information for the research; that is why the thematic method requires interplay between the theoretical and empirical part of the research. (Eskola & Suoranta 2000, 175.)

After the data was analysed through the themes, the answers were also analysed with the help of the matched-pair system. If the answers and thoughts of the coordinators and volunteer differ was investigated in order to find out the realistic situation of the organisation’s volunteer operations and to also detect possible gaps in leadership.

6.4 Ethical questions concerning the study

While doing research, some ethical questions need to be taking into account. It is important that the research is objective. According to Eskola and Suoranta (2000, 17) objectivity comes from realising oneself own subjectivity. The research needs to be done without mixing own experiences and ideas to the analysing and interpreting. While interviewing and discussing with the interviewees, it is important to focus on the choice of words in order to not guide the interviewees towards certain answers or opinions.

Another ethical question is the anonymity of the interviewees. The interviewees have the right to know why the information is gathered and how it is used; being honest and open of the research supports the ethicality of the research. In this report the interviewees are presented anonymously, so that they had the possibility to be open in their thoughts and opinions. The writer also wanted to
present the organisations anonymously so that no possible negative side effects could harm the organisations’ image.

7 LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTEERS IN FINNISH VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

In this chapter the data collected through the interviews is presented and analysed. Firstly the interviews of the coordinators are presented. After that the answers and thoughts of the volunteers are being studied. The last part compares and studies the possible differences in the thoughts of the coordinators and volunteers.

7.1 Leadership of volunteers

The people who were interviewed in this part of the research, were all working as supportive persons for the volunteers. They were dealing with leadership of volunteers in their daily tasks, but they were not considered directly as leaders. They themselves described their work as being a support for the volunteers, so that the volunteers could perform.

7.1.1 Background information

Under this theme the specialist were asked background questions of the organisation’s volunteer operations. All three organisations used volunteer workforce widely in different operations. Organisation C had the least paid staff, and so their operations were mostly reliable of volunteers. The amount of organisation Cs’ volunteers was told to be around 600. Organisation B has in amount most volunteers, over 40,000 nationally and the biggest variation in operation forms. Organisation A had circa 8,000 volunteers.
Bc1 “Actually to everything, all operations circle around volunteering. And all workers are here for the volunteers; our first function is to support them.”

When asked what the purpose of volunteers was for the organisations, all five answered that it is a vital condition; the organisations would not be able to operate successfully without volunteers.

Cc1 “As said, we operate fully through volunteers, so the meaning of them is pretty obvious. But then we can think of what kind of meaning it is. In my opinion, it is the functional work but also the visibility. For example the fact that I can say that we operate in 20 different cities, that even though the activity might be small, but if we want to affect people’s opinions it does matter that we can function in so many different cities. So the visibility is what is meaningful.” The meaning of volunteers is really big. Without volunteers we would not be able to organise visible campaigns in other areas than the capital city area and not be able to be visible on the streets.”

While analysing the results and comparing the answers of the volunteers and the coordinators, the differences between the organisations need to be taken into consideration. C is the smallest one of them all and B the biggest, when considering the number of volunteer operations. Organisation A has the most members and as a labour union also many operations, but not all of them are functioning through volunteers.

### 7.1.2 Leadership

In this theme the structures of the organisations’ volunteer operations were studied. The coordinators were asked questions about guiding, training, recruiting, supporting and of the effectiveness of the organisation volunteer operations.

The first question dealt with plans and guidance made for the volunteers. Organisation C had a manual that guided volunteer operations and behaviour. It informed the volunteers of what they were allowed to do and gave guidance on how to act with media and different practical advices. The local contact persons also had to sign a paper were they committed to take care of the regional area,
and there were listed the organisation's definitions of policies which the contact persons needed to follow in their operations.

Organisation A did have some manuals guiding the volunteers' work and also to support the paid workers who are co-operating with the volunteers. Organisation As' operations are widely spread and due to the nature of labour union’s organisational chart, many regional departments can create their own regulations, and the coordinator interviewed in this case was aware only of the operations she was responsible for.

Organisation B had a wide range of rules and guidance offered to the volunteers. They dealt with questions like “What it is to be a volunteer?” and “How one should represent the organisation?” Organisation B trains most of its volunteers to their operations, so the training also works as instructions for the volunteers.

Recruiting is something the organisations are doing all the time. Locally organisation C had organised a recruiting campaign for its activist with small tasks that would help recruit new volunteers and members. After a while they decided to quit the project because it was not successful enough. They also had a person who is responsible for coordinating new volunteers. As on-going methods they always recruit and market their operations while having a happening and they also organise twice a year an evening for new volunteers. The coordinator of organisation C thought that their number of local volunteers was more than good, but she agreed that more volunteers would help to organise more happenings. She also thought that many organisations just complain about the lack of volunteers for no reason.

Cc1 “I feel like it is more like a eternal complaint that “we don’t have any volunteers, we don’t have any volunteers, we don’t have enough doers…”, I do it also but I’m not so sure anymore if its true. Like today I again received an email, and its not many weeks back that there was another interested contact. So all the time there is new people joining, so I don’t know... I don’t know what the problem is; we really do have volunteers, but when I tried to organise an event on short notice, no one could make it…”
The other coordinator from organisation C who had a more national perspective thought that the problem is in recruiting very committed volunteers, and because of that the continuity of the local departments are sometimes at risk.

Coordinators in organisations A and B agreed that finding and recruiting volunteers is hard and it is mostly the will of the volunteers that matters. They did not have special recruiting campaigns or operations; recruiting of volunteers was rather an ongoing task present in every happening, training and public operation.

Bc1 “Mainly, recruiting volunteers works only so that the person is already interested and somehow committed to the organisation’s values…”

All coordinators shared the idea that every person has a right to volunteer, and it is the organisation’s mission to find something suitable for the volunteers. Still they also admitted that for some cases they were looking for certain personalities. Organisation B has certain responsibilities requirements put to the level of training and personality traits for the volunteers, but is still open for all who are willing to volunteer.

Next the training offered by the organisations to their volunteers and the persons who were responsible for volunteers were discussed. Organisation B was a clear pioneer in training its volunteers and the persons in charge. The volunteers that were responsible for teams or local regions were able to get training in team leadership, training, operational leadership and other related topics. The volunteers also received many forms of training. As told before, most of the volunteers in organisation B receive some kind of training before starting to volunteer.

Organisation A and C offered various training for their volunteers, but at least during the interviews it did not come up that people responsible for leading the volunteers would have gotten any training in leadership skills. In organisation C they are now planning a new training path, which might include training for the contact persons, but planning is still in process.
Cc1 “And I was thinking while going through these questions that it is strange that the people who go to schools to inform students are trained, but the local contact persons are not. It would be nice to receive some training for that… I think leading voluntary work is different than with paid staff, I’m not sure, but giving training about it could be useful.”

According to the coordinators, in all the organisations the volunteers had the possibility to affect the operations, and their ideas were heard. In organisation B for example, the organisation has a framework for operations inside which the volunteers are able to organise operations as they wish. Also in organisations A and C the volunteers are given almost free hands in designing happenings and operations in the regional departments.

The amount of mental support offered to the volunteers and the nature of it varies a lot between the organisations. Organisation C has a titled volunteer coordinator to whom the volunteers can easily share their thoughts to, but offering mental support is mainly done by the contact person and through mutual support inside the teams. From organisation A, no clear answer was received, but the volunteers themselves answered this question and they felt that the other volunteers were their main source for mental support. Organisation B’s volunteers are occasionally dealing with mentally demanding operations, and the organisation offers mental support and crisis help commonly. The volunteers always have the possibility to talk to team leaders, paid staff or even a person who has professional experience in giving mental support. The volunteers also receive training in giving mental support.

Bc1 “Our volunteers sometimes are doing pretty demanding stuff and sure they are given the possibility to share their ideas, and they are also trained a lot to support their friends and how to follow up others feelings. We always try to organise the possibility to talk after it has happened something shocking.”

While asked if the organisations analyse the effectiveness of their volunteer operations, no clear answer was received. This of course does not mean that it does not happen; the specialists interviewed in this case just were not aware of any concrete methods. Organisation C told that the operations effectiveness is measured by comparing action plans and annual reports.
The last question for the coordinators under this theme was how effective they found the volunteer operations of the organisation. In organisations B and C, the coordinators thought that it was very effective with some regional and operational differences. The coordinator in organisation A thought that the effectiveness of the volunteer operations was not so effective.

7.1.3 Motivation

Under this theme, the coordinators were asked what they think motivates their volunteers and how the organisation rewards and encourages the volunteers to act. The level of commitment of the volunteers and their turnover rate was also discussed.

When asked what they think motivates the organisations’ volunteers to act, all answered that the volunteers most probably share the ideology of the organisation and that the volunteers want to act and have an influence.

Ac1 “…and the need to act and work for that ideology and to change things.”
Bc1 “It must be the will to have an influence.”
Cc1 “…the want to be able to influence something.”

The organisations had different methods in rewarding their volunteers. Organisation A offered material rewards as gift cards and products but also organised events for the volunteers. The coordinator herself also stated that thanking and giving feedback is a method at least she uses in her work. Organisation B stated that they try to think about their volunteers in their operations and organise it so that it is rewarding. The coordinator also thought that the possibility for further education and the possibility to get more responsibilities offer many options for motivating and rewarding. Organisation B also had a badge of merit system for active and committed volunteers. In organisation C rewarding was mainly done through organised events for the volunteers, but the coordinator emphasised that recognition and verbal encouraging was mainly used both inside the teams and from the top
management of the organisation. One of the coordinators believed that the new training path will also motivate volunteers in the future.

When asked how committed they thought their organisations’ volunteers were, all thought that they were highly committed and that the turnover rate of the volunteers was low. The coordinator in organisation A thought it is low because the people who commit to the tasks are well aware of the responsibility and have thought about it before taking the responsibilities. In organisation B, the reason according to the coordinator was that organisation B offers many levels of commitment, from one day long volunteering to very high-level responsibility tasks. Coordinator from organisation C also thought that turnover is something that is common for volunteering, not only in a negative way.

7.1.4 Personal thoughts

Lastly the coordinators were asked to describe their own thoughts about leadership of volunteers, what they have learned about it and how the organisation could improve their volunteer operations.

In organisation A, the person interviewed thought that leadership of volunteers got too little attention in the organisation. She had learned that volunteers only perform if they want to or if they feel the matter as important for themselves. She hoped that the organisation would train its paid workers to better understand volunteers and to find right working methods.

Ac1 “I don’t see that money or material is the right way to reward activity. I would also increase time for personal contact, so that to different occasions there would come the right person, the person who would benefit all the parties.”

The coordinator in organisation B thought:
“The volunteer can always vote with his or her boots. If something isn’t pleasant they walk. You can leave. And you have to remember to put expectations and tasks. Asking is in a bigger role than commanding.”

He also thought that it is easier to deal with neglect or disobedience with paid staff. In his opinion the organisation could improve at how they match the right person with the right volunteering method. Also the importance of inspiring people was underlined from the other coordinator from organisation B; she said:

“If I say one verb, it is inspiring. If you are not excited about something, then the volunteers won’t get excited either. Inspiring is most important.”

The coordinator in organisation C had learned that it is not that easy to lead volunteers and that one doubts oneself also a lot. One problem she said she worried about is that in voluntary work, the operations personalise very easily around one active member and that it might be a risk for the continuity of the operations. The other coordinator described her thoughts of leadership of volunteers like this:

“Funny, rewarding, important, but also demanding. There are many different volunteers and motivations, and you should be able to recognise these. You don’t always have a fitting task for the volunteer, even though the person would be enthusiastic, and that’s sad.”

She also told she had learned that one needs to listen and to remember to thank the volunteers. She believed that the training path the organisation is planning now, will improve the organisation’s volunteer operations.

**7.2 Being a volunteer**

In this section the answers and thoughts of the volunteers are presented and analysed. The volunteers had different experiences and amounts of responsibilities. It is also important to take into account the differences in the volunteer operations they participated in.
7.2.1 Background information

The interviewees were asked some questions dealing with their tasks and activity in the organisation they were actively taking part in. The idea was to study how many of them were active in other organisations and what kind of role volunteering played in their lives. Of the six volunteers, five were somehow active in other organisations too. Some had been active earlier in other organisations and others participated still actively to several other organisations’ volunteer operations. The nature of the organisations varied some; for example, a couple of the interviewees were active in labour unions and in charitable organisations.

Their tasks and responsibilities were also studied. All the volunteers who were interviewed had some kind of responsibilities inside the organisations. The responsibilities varied from being the main operator in a project to being the chairperson in a local or national department.

The interviewees’ age varied from twenty to over fifty years old. Some of them had been actively volunteering since their childhood, and others had just started. In the end the amount of volunteer experience varied from one year to over 30 years. Here of course one has to take into account the age of the interviewee. Most of the interviewees were in working life, while doing the interviews; only one of them was only a student and one was working while studying.

7.2.2 Motivation

Whilst motivation of volunteers has been studied widely, as presented in the theoretical part of this report, the motivations behind the interviewees volunteering were not studied very thoroughly. Still some clear elements of what motivates and what volunteering gives to the volunteers came up.
The interviewees were asked why they are volunteering, or why they started to volunteer in the first place. Most of them, four of six, stated clearly that they wanted to have an influence, do something for the cause they believed in or for the people it impacted. Depending on the nature of the organisation they volunteered in, the interviewees’ own ethical values had a great impact on the want to volunteer. Mostly, the persons wanted to do something more for the cause and also to work as examples for others.

Cv1 “…maybe it is that I want to work as an example for others, to show that if I can do it, so can anyone else.”

Av1 “Because I believe that there is power in a group, and through activating others the organisation will keep its value and can increase it.”

The possibility to gain some personal advantage or knowledge from volunteering worked as a motivator to start participating in some level for all the interviewees. They felt that they could gain useful skills and learn something new through volunteering. Also concrete advantages were found, one of the interviewees was able to continue her hobby trough compensations that the volunteering offered to her. For one of the interviewees, a personal experience in helping others guided her to start volunteering.

Bv1 “It was in 1985 when I participated in my first, unofficial search… It created a want to participate.”

While asked what the volunteers are getting now from volunteering, the answers varied, but one element came up with all the interviewees. They had all gotten new friends during their volunteering, and they valued the social community that volunteering offered them. They also felt that they had learnt something new and gained valuable experiences. In organisation B, they have many possibilities to train themselves and to get more responsibility; this element was highly valued by one of the interviewees For the two who had been longest in working life, volunteering offered a way to put work aside and meaningfulness to their free time.

Av1 “Meaningfulness, a feeling that it matters what I do.”
...as a counterweight, it is so different from what I do at work. And also a way to spend my time...It would be pretty boring to just come home from work and that would be it, it would feel like I would be missing something. Sometimes it even is annoying that work disturbs my hobbies.”

The feeling of success and succeeding as a motivator came up with all the interviewees. While asked what was the most favourable element in their volunteering activity, they all stated that when they got the feeling of success or when something they had organised succeeded, they were most satisfied with their volunteering.

The interviewees were asked to describe their volunteering activity with adjectives. The most popular adjectives were challenging, demanding, invigorating and social. Others were different, versatile, funny, pleasant, frustrating and stressful. Most of the persons, five out of six, were satisfied with their volunteering and the organisation, but still many negative adjectives were listed. Some of the adjectives were more carefully discussed, and it was clear that even though some adjectives might sound negative, it was actually a positive thing.

Av1 “I think it’s positive (challenging); if it would be really easy I wouldn’t go on. There needs to be something to evolve for.”

To define the amount of time they spent to volunteering during a week was hard for all, and most of them first responded with a laugh. Because the amount of work and happenings varies, it was hard to define a clear weekly amount of hours and they varied from 2 hours a week to 30 hours a week. One interviewee said thousands of hours in a year, and said that on some level she volunteered all the time through training her dog for searching. Another respondent had the same thoughts, he made decisions in his everyday life that were affected by the cause he believed in and for which he was working for through volunteering. While asked how they felt of the amount of time they spent on volunteering, most agreed it is much, but it was okay. Sometimes, especially when everything seemed to happen during the same week, the amount might be too high and it was felt to be stressful.
Av1 “Yes, it does feel like a lot, but it is what I have decided to do.”

Cv1 “What should I say... I estimate it to be maybe 30 hours a week. I have been thinking that if I would get paid it would go pretty well.”

One problem with their usage of time was that some told that they spent a lot of time thinking about their volunteer work, and this time was really hard to clarify.

Av2 “And then maybe most stressful is that it is always on your mind, that you should do this and that, and it makes it feel like it takes your whole life.”

All interviewees saw that they would be taking part in volunteer operations in the future too. Some thought that they would most probably change the organisation at some point, and one contestant felt that she would gain a paid job in a volunteer organisation at some point of her life.

Bv2 “Sure, I will be, it is kind of a lifestyle now. We have this senior group, I guess it will be the next step then.”

The last question under the theme motivation was whether or not the persons had thought of quitting volunteering at some point. One of the interviewees had decided to quit, and the reasons behind this decisions had to do with how stressful her task had been and that there was too much to do for one person. She also felt that whatever she or others in her position did, it never seemed to be enough. Two other interviewees told that they had at one point thought about quitting because of personal dilemmas with others inside the organisation. Two others of the six interviewees had not thought about quitting, and one had decided to give away some of her responsibilities. The decisions were not made because of personal reasons; she felt that the department was starting to look too much like her and that it needed new ideas and changes, but she would continue volunteering through the operational tasks, just with less responsibilities.
7.2.3 Leadership

The second theme dealt with questions of leadership, how people had become members of the organisation, how their work was supported and had they been trained to their volunteer work. The answers varied a lot between the three organisations, which was logical because the organisations were different in size and purpose. Organisation B offered most training of all the organisations, but many of its operations require well-trained volunteers both because of regulations guiding its operations and the complexity of the operations.

How people became active inside the organisation could be divided in three ways; others had actively searched for an organisation’s volunteer operations to participate in. The second way was that someone had asked directly if they would want to participate, and the last way was that the persons had participated into an event or training the organisation had offered. Most of them had had a want to participate long before they joined the organisations’ volunteer operations, so a statement could be made that it is beneficial for the organisations to market their volunteer operations and to support their already active members to talk about their volunteering.

All the volunteers interviewed were well aware of the existing rules and regulations of the organisations. Again, the amount or regulations existing varied a lot between the three organisations used in the research, but all in all, the volunteers were aware of them and had a clear idea of what they were allowed to do. They also knew from where to ask for help if something was unclear. Few questioned the usefulness of the rules and guidelines. They felt that it does not matter how many rules there are if the paid workers of the organisations and other volunteers do not commit to them.

Av1 “I think it really does not matter how many rules they write, it depends on how much the people want to do. In volunteer work so much is about the personal relationships between the persons, because people do it voluntarily, so it does not really work so well if you just appeal to the rules.”
One of the interviewees thought differently of the efficiency of the rules and training. In the volunteer operations she participated in, it was important to follow the rules and to be trained, for purposes of the safety of the volunteers themselves. She also felt that less authority needed to be used when she was dealing with well-trained volunteers.

Bv1 “It is usually made clear already in the training, the responsibilities and rights of the volunteers, and I have never had problems with trained volunteers, that they would questions this.”

As previously mentioned, organisation B offered the most training and the training varied from clear practical training to team leadership, depending on the training level. Both of the interviewees in organisation B had received training in practical skills and in leadership and found it very useful. When asked if they would wish for some more training, they answered no. In organisations A and C, the training had had more to deal with knowledge of the cause or the element of the operations, less practical skills that would have supported their volunteering. They also felt that they could use some training in how to perform and also in leadership and group dynamics.

Av2 “Yes the trainings have been useful to my personal life... But I don’t know how much they have helped me in working in the organisation.”

All the interviewees felt strongly that they could affect the organisation’s working methods and that their ideas were taken into account. One interviewee felt that sometimes her ideas and wishes were not matched locally, but that she still could widely affects the organisation’s operations in the area were she operated. The majority of the interviewees had high responsibilities in their own regional departments and so felt that they could impact the forms of operations, at least inside given frameworks.

Bv2 “We of course have this framework, how the trainings should be organised. But they can be tailored according the situation.”

The volunteers were asked if they received support or counselling if needed and in which kind of situations they have needed it. The answers varied a lot, and it was also a discussion of how stressful or mentally demanding the work
could be. The majority felt that they received help when needed and that moral support from the other volunteers was of great help. In organisation B, counselling and crisis help was offered and volunteers were always offered the possibility for discussion inside the teams after practical operations and with professionals if needed.

During the discussions about volunteering’s mentally demanding elements, e.g. the resistance of other people came up. While working for a cause, the persons put themselves into it and are taking it very personally and this could cause negative feelings. One of the interviewees said:

Cv1 “We don’t know, when we are out the on the streets, talking about the cause, if someone calls you names and attacks you (verbally). We don’t know it if they don’t tell it to others. That is a thing that concerns me, that how many keep it inside them and quit because of that.”

It was clear that the amount of resistance the volunteers had faced and might face varied a lot depending on the nature of the volunteer organisation and its operations. During these interviews the possible mental demands merely came up, and the interviewees did not have a problem with it, but all agreed that it is highly possible.

The last question for the volunteers under the second theme dealt with stress. The persons were asked whether or not they had suffered from a feeling of hurry or of stress because of volunteering. Four out of six suffered occasionally from stress, which they thought was pretty normal and only occasional. The feelings of stress was caused by the occasionally higher amount of work and was more a worry of if everything had been done right, than stress. One of the interviewees said she had never suffered from stress and another said she suffered from it very often. The reason for her stress was that she felt she had too many responsibilities in relation to her knowledge and skills. The interviewee thought that dividing the operations between more volunteers and making the responsibility areas more clear would help release the tension. It was clear that the smaller the team or the more alone the interviewees felt with their responsibilities, the higher the stress level was. When working with fewer
persons the interviewees also worried about their partners who would end up doing the work, if they would not work as hard as they did.

7.2.4 Compensation and encouraging

The third theme dealt with volunteers’ compensations and rewards, and how they are encouraged to perform. In this section the only remarkable difference between organisations was that organisation B had a badge of merit system for the volunteers.

The first question to the volunteers was about when they know they have done well. Two of six answered that when they received no negative feedback and one more said when there came no feedback at all.

Av1 “When there comes no feedback at all. I mean, that feedback usually means that there is something to blame about.”

Most of the volunteers felt that they had done well when something they had organised went successfully, when new people participated or from the feedback of the participants. Again, depending on the nature of the volunteer operations, some of them offered strong feelings of success and the successfulness was easy to measure. To know when one has done well gets hard when it cannot be measured;

Cv1 “Like you can never really know how many person’s ideas you have influenced with some posters. You just go to the city, spread some posters for few hours and that’s it; you never know if it had an influence.”

The interviewee felt that it is very important to go through all the operations and happenings and actually analyse if they went well or not, so that the volunteers get to know their efforts were meaningful and that the organisation can evolve and develop its operations.
The volunteers found the work itself very rewarding. While asked what is the most rewarding, four of six answered simply that when something had succeeded and the feeling of success.

Av2 “When you feel you have succeeded in something.”

The feeling that they had done something that mattered and had an impact was also viewed as rewarding.

Cv1 “That I have anyway done something that I feel I have done something else than just talked. Done something concrete. I have recognised the problem and I am doing something for it and not just sitting at home and thinking about it.”

All the interviewees felt that their work mattered and was valuable for the organisation. Many of them also said that if they would not feel it mattered, they would most likely quit or change their own behaviour so that it would matter.

As mentioned earlier, organisation B had a badge of merit system, and both volunteers who were interviewed from that organisation were aware of that. The other two organisations rewarded their volunteers according to the interviewees by small gifts of recognition and through organising social events. Also organisation B offered these free social events for their volunteers. When it comes to non-tangible rewards, the lack of positive feedback and the way negative feedback was given disturbed some of the interviewees. The majority agreed that a simple “thank you” is the best reward, and it does not really matter who says it.

Av1 “You get the feeling, if no-one thanks you, that they take your work for granted.”

The interviewees also agreed that they too have a responsibility in remembering to thank others in their work. One of interviewees thought that the meaning of verbal recognition and feedback is even bigger than before, and especially when dealing with young or new volunteers.
Receiving and giving negative feedback were elements that raised discussions. Some felt that the negative feedback should be more constructive and it should be clearer how the volunteers should improve their behaviour that created the need for negative feedback. They also thought that giving negative feedback for other volunteers is very hard because they were afraid that it would scare people away.

### 7.2.5 Personal thoughts

The last theme for the volunteers was mainly discussing their own ideas of volunteer work and leadership and also of possible new ideas that had come up during the interviews. To lead the discussion, interviewees were asked to think about differences in leadership of volunteers and the leadership of paid staff. The majority agreed that it is easier to lead paid staff because they can be commanded, but with volunteers one has to be softer and be able to motivate them.

One interviewee pointed out that volunteering needs to be fun and the tasks should be well organised and clearly structured to make it easier for the volunteers to act. She also thought that it is important not to force anyone to take any responsibilities, the will needs to come from the volunteers themselves. One other volunteer also thought that many times the task is created after the volunteer has joined the organisation and because of that it is easier to work as paid staff, oneself immediately knows what is expected from him of her.

One improvement idea for the organisation C from the volunteers was that they should focus more at going through the events and campaigns and analyse what went wrong and what went well, so that they could then improve on it the next time.
7.3 Comparing the results between coordinators and volunteers

By using the match-point method in the research, it was a meaning to analyse and compare the answers of the volunteers and coordinators in order to find out if they seemed to agree and think of the organisations’ volunteer operations in the same way.

The coordinators and the volunteers agreed on many levels. The coordinators were aware of what motivates the volunteers and they analysed the efficiency very similarly. The answers to the questions under theme leadership matched well among the interviewees. The volunteers were aware of the rules and regulations, their own responsibilities and rights and agreed on their possibilities to affect the operations. They also felt that they had the possibility to share their ideas and to receive support. The coordinators’ answers supported these ideas.

All in all, it could be stated that inside the organisations that were used in the research, the volunteer operations might not be as efficient as they could, but the volunteers and management, or at least the coordinators interviewed, seemed to be on the same page in their opinions about the successfulness and possible improvement areas and this will most certainly help to improve the organisations’ volunteer operations.

8 FINAL THOUGHTS OF LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTEERS AND OF THE RESEARCH

In this last chapter of the report, the research outcomes will be analysed and further research ideas will be suggested. The methods used and the limitations of the study will be discussed. The writer will also study the personal learning outcomes of this process.
8.1 What was learned from the research?

As it already came up in Chapter 2, volunteers are a great asset to non-profit organisations that are operating both in Finland and worldwide. The coordinators interviewed in the research all agreed that volunteers were a vital condition to their organisation’s existence. The organisations used in the research operate in many levels and offer value to the society through their help. Organisation A as a labour union does not only support the workers in its own operational area, but also supports charitable organisations around the world to create better living conditions. Organisation B is offering support for many governmental operations in Finland and also around the world through its operations, and organisations Cs’ value for the movement supporting environmental values is clear. They all need volunteers to perform, so it can be stated that volunteering does make the world a better place.

Even though to this day, human motivation is not fully understood and new theories are created all the time, knowing some basics of human motivation offers tools for leaders both in profit-based organisations and in non-profit organisations. Understanding what motivates people helps leaders to create operations and tasks that motivate the volunteers and keep them interested. This is very important because the volunteers’ commitment cannot be bought with money. When looking at the study of Yeung (presented in Chapter 5.2), many of the motives she found volunteers had can be divided also according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Elements such as self-actualisation and socialising exist both in Yeung’s study and also in Maslow’s’ theory. The motivators Herzberg presented in his theory seemed to be working also for volunteers as discussed in Chapter 5.3. One of the interviewees in the research stated that inspiring is the key verb while leading volunteers; if compared to McGregor’s motivation theory, theory Y is comparable to volunteers. While giving the trust and self-confidence, they will perform well.

When considering the expectancy theory and its relation to leading volunteers, it is clear that the volunteers also need a goal for their work. The majority of the volunteers who participated in the interviews volunteered for a cause, to have an impact on something. As one of the interviewees answered, she would not
perform if she would not feel that her work was meaningful for the organisation. Because she expected that her work had a meaning, she kept on volunteering. The organisations should then remember to communicate their mission and their success to the volunteers, because the volunteers expect to have an impact, and it will motivate them to know that they are making one.

The leadership styles presented in Chapter 4 offer a good overlook for persons leading volunteers. Leadership should not be copied straight from books, but as with the motivational theories, it is useful to have basic knowledge of leadership while leading volunteers. It also came up in the interviews that this kind of knowledge was wished for. What seemed to be a common idea between the interviewees was that the use of authority with volunteers was demanding. Sometimes they wished they could use it, because it would be easier to force and to command people to perform, but they agreed that using too much authority would just increase the turnover of volunteers.

All the leadership styles presented in Chapter 4 have their pros and cons, but when considering the results from the research and the knowledge presented in Chapter 5, the methods relying only on authority and hard discipline might not be the most suitable ones while leading volunteers. As many of the interviewees stated, the will needs to come from the volunteers and the leaders duty is to inspire and motivate, the leadership methods such democratic, transformational and trust leadership could be stated to work the best. Charismatic leadership can also be considered, but as some of the interviews said, volunteer operations can very easily personalise around one active volunteer and with the negative sides of charismatic leadership taken into consideration, this method should be avoided.

The leadership of volunteers was discussed in Chapter 5.1 and the need for volunteer leadership is supported by many sources. According to Hänninen, as cited in Chapter 5.1, volunteers themselves want more people focused leadership, and her findings are highly related to the findings of this study. According to her, volunteers need to be encouraged; they need to know when they have performed well and to understand their value for the organisation. In
the study implemented for this report, the need for acknowledgment and positive feedback was clear and leaders in volunteer organisations should not underestimate the power of a simple thank you.

Other findings in this research support the knowledge presented in Chapter 5. The need for support and guidance was discussed in Chapter 5.1 and it also came up in the interviews. Some volunteers need more support than others; the level needed varying because of personal differences and operation forms. This supports the idea of situational leadership and realising that people require different leadership will also support motivating the volunteers with lots of experience and a low need for support.

In Chapter 5.2 Yeung’s octagon model of volunteers’ motivations was presented. This model offers a very good look into what motivates the volunteers. The research conducted for this report consisted of a really small sample size of volunteers: only six persons. What supports both Yeung’s model and the successfulness of the interviews is that all the elements that Yeung presented in her model existed in this research also. The volunteers interviewed in this research mentioned together all the elements from getting new knowledge, getting new social networks, being able to help others and receiving a balance to working life. If all the elements could be found in such a small sample size as in this research, Yeung’s model can be stated to be very useful for people leading volunteers.

How volunteers can be motivated was discussed in Chapter 5.3. The interviewees all emphasised the most simple method, feedback. The lack of feedback came up with the majority of the volunteers interviewed, who also mentioned the way negative feedback was given. The volunteers wished for more feedback so that they would better know how they have performed and also to know that their work had a meaning for the organisation. They also wished that negative feedback would be more constructive.

Another good way to motivate the volunteers that was supported by the results of the research, was offering social events for the volunteers. In Chapter 5.4 it is
written that meeting other volunteers has a great impact on volunteers’ motivations and the interviewees’ answers relate to these theories. Offering social events where the volunteers could share their ideas and experiences is an effective and easy way for the organisations to motivate their volunteers. Many other methods also help to motivate the volunteers as it has been presented in this report, and the key for the leaders is to know what motivates their volunteers and use this information to create motivating tasks and volunteer operations.

Recruiting more volunteers and analysing their performance created a gap between the literature in this report and the opinions of the persons interviewed. In Chapter 5.4 Worth’s opinions are cited and he states that organisations should have selective volunteer operations and recruit volunteers as if they would be recruiting paid staff. The opinion of all the persons interviewed about this, was that everybody who has a will to volunteer needs to get a chance to volunteer. Turning down volunteers would be against the values of the organisations. The key for successful recruiting, in the opinions of the interviewees, was to tailor something suitable for every volunteer. The idea of creating tasks that match volunteers’ level of commitment and knowledge was also supported by the theoretical background in this report.

Successful ways for recruiting according to the results of the research included word-of-mouth marketing and actively marketing the volunteer operations in events held by the organisations. As also Yeung found out, many are willing to volunteer if only being asked to do so, so organisations should really focus on telling people about their operations and encouraging their existing volunteers to speak of their volunteering.

The organisations used in this research were different in size, operational forms and missions, and comparing their efficiency with each other would not offer any valuable information. Still the successfullness and the reasons behind them can be studied. Organisation B had a wide range of operations, offered training in all the operational areas and also in leadership. This seemed to work successfully and the volunteers interviewed from organisation B were very
satisfied with their voluntary work. Organisation C was very small compared to the two other organisations, but the training program they were now planning will surely improve their volunteer operations. All in all it could be stated that the organisations do have successful volunteer operations, but for all of them there are still areas where they could improve.

The volunteers interviewed were for the most part really active and spend a lot of their spare time on volunteering. Most of them did not find this burdening in general, only occasionally. They seemed to feel getting a lot from volunteering, from new friends to new knowledge useful in their personal lives or in their career building. The feeling of success was common for all of them and they valued it as a motivator. Using this information is valuable for the organisations while planning their volunteer operations and in motivating their volunteers.

The leadership of volunteers is a complex subject, as complex as all the different volunteers are. Organisations should not underestimate the need for volunteer leadership. Tailoring their operations so that they offer something for all their different volunteers is useful and rewarding, to both the volunteers and the organisations.

8.2 Limitations of the study

In the theoretical part of this report, some of the literature used can be considered old and not offering new knowledge to the reader. The aim was to present basic knowledge of the topics motivation and leadership, so that the reader could more easily understand the theories presented in the later chapters. Also the topic and the aim of the study varied some during the process and this creates some inconsistency in the literature. The process should have been better planned from the beginning to make the theoretical part more useful.

The study itself suffers from some limitations. The writer's lack of knowledge in performing a qualitative study might decrease the value of the study. A
qualitative method still offers many positive aspects and helps the researcher during the process. The questions used in the interviews were quickly realised to leave some aspects outside from the research, but the qualitative method leaves room for discussion during the interviews and so the new aspect that came up during the interviews could be used. If the research had been conducted in a quantitative form, many of the topics that came up during the interviews would have stayed unknown.

The sample size is often in qualitative researches small, and does not offer a thorough image of the whole study area. In this case it was done also in just one regional area, but as it also came up during the interviews the organisations’ operation vary some between regions and this was made clear while analysing the results. When compared the results to the theories presented in the theoretical part of this report, the knowledge gathered through the research was comparable and coherent to it. Also the organisations chosen for the research varied in their operation forms, and this makes the results more widely usable. So even with all the limitations, the research does give a good idea of the leadership and volunteering inside Finnish organisations.

8.3 Personal learning outcomes

This process has given for the writer many new experiences and increased the knowledge of volunteer leadership. The thesis should work as a proof of the knowledge the student has gathered through his or hers studies, but it is also a learning process itself, teaching the student self-management, time management, communication skills and offering a very deep dive n the subject of the thesis. The writer feels she has gained professional knowledge of motivation, leadership and especially on how these two topics are related to volunteers and volunteer operations. The subject has become more interesting to the writer during the process and will definitely follow her in her future career plans.
The process itself has also given many learning outcomes. The qualitative research was the first the writer had done, and it was a valuable lesson. Time management and self-discipline were needed often during the process and it is not easy to be fully responsible of a process on one’s own. The writer feels that the experiences and the knowledge she has gained from this process will help her in future working life and that this thesis is a good sample of her know-how.

8.4 Further research ideas

No research is ever ready, and during the process of this research, many possible future research ideas came up. During the interviews subjects such as volunteers’ need for support and self-management raised discussions. In the future these topics could be covered more throughout. For organisations themselves, it could be useful to analyse the possible stress areas of their volunteer operations in order to be able to offer better support for their volunteers.

While this report states that leadership of volunteers is needed, in the future a more specific report could be made. This report could offer specific methods to improve leadership of volunteers and methods for organisations to analyse the efficiency of their volunteer operations.

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Wilson, F. M. 2010. Organizational behavior and work – a critical introduction. USA. Oxford University Press.


Question form for the coordinators

The interviews will be anonymously handled, and no personal information of the interviewee or the organisation will be published. Personal information is only asked, to make the analysing of the data more convenient. The final research and its result are published in the database theseus.fi. If requested, the report can be sent to interviewees’ emails after it has been published.

Name:
Organisation:
Title:

Theme 1. Backgrounds of the organisations volunteer operations

In which operations or areas does the organisation use voluntary workforce?

How many (approximately) volunteer does your organisation have?

What is the significance of volunteers for the organisation?

Theme 2. Leadership and recruiting of volunteers

Does the organisation have a plan, rules or guiding for its voluntary operations? If no, why? If yes, what kind, what do they concern and who creates them?

How does the organisation conduct the recruitment process of volunteers? Can anyone willing participate, or is the program selective? Explain.

How do you experience the recruitment process? Easy, hard? Why?

Does the organisation organise training for the persons that are responsible of the volunteer, in e.g. the field of leadership? If no, why? If yes, what kind, to whom, how often and what is the content of these trainings?

Does the organisation organise training for the volunteers? If no, why? If yes, what kind, to whom, how often and what is the content of these trainings?

Are the volunteer been offered a possibility to communicate their opinions or affect the organisations operation models?

Do the volunteers have a possibility to share their experiences, e.g. troubles with the organisation management?

Does the organisation evaluate the effectiveness and success of the volunteer operations? If no, why? If yes, how and how often?

How effective do you personally find the volunteer operations of the organisation?
**Theme 3. Motivation and encouraging**

What do you think motivates the volunteers to act?

What kind of compensations or encouraging methods does the organisation use in order to motivate the volunteers?

In what level is the turnover rate of the volunteers in the organisation? What do you think is the reason for this?

**Theme 4. Personal thoughts**

What kind of ideas does the leadership of volunteer rise in you?

What have you learned in you position about leadership of volunteers?

What do you think the organisation could do better in leading the volunteers? E.g. recruitment and motivating.
Appendix 2 1 (2)

**Question form for the volunteers**

The interviews will be anonymously handled, and no personal information of the interviewee or the organisation will be published. Personal information is only asked, to make the analysing of the data more convenient. The final research and its result are published in the database theseus.fi. If requested, the report can be sent to interviewees’ emails after it has been published.

**Theme 1. Personal information**

Name:
Organisation:
Nature of assignments:

Describe your assignments in the organisation you volunteer in:

How long have you been doing voluntary work? In this organisation and others.

Are you actively taking apart in other organisation volunteer operations?

**Theme 2. Motivation**

Why are you volunteering?

What do you feel gaining from volunteering?

Describe your assignments with adjectives:

Of which of your assignments do you like the most?

How much time do you spend for volunteering during e.g. a week?

How do you see volunteering in your life after 5-10 years?

Have you considered quitting volunteering? Why?

**Theme 3. Leadership and recruitment**

How did you start volunteering? (Where you asked to join, did you participate into a recruitment process etc.?)

Does your organisation have rules or guides for volunteers? What kinds?

Do you know what you are and are not allowed to do? Do you know to whom to turn to while with questions?

Have you participated to trainings? What kinds? Did you find the useful?
What kind of training do you wish for? What not?

Do you feel like you have the possibility to affect the organisation's operations and methods? Does the organisation listen to your ideas?

Do you receive support, advice or guidance when you need it? In what areas have you had to ask for help or support?

Do you ever suffer from stress or the feeling of hurry because of the volunteering? Why? Why do you think you could treat it?

**Theme 4. Compensations**

When do you know you have done well?

What is the most encouraging in volunteering?

What is your work's significance for the organisation? Describe with your own words.

Do you receive some kind of rewards from your work?

What kind of compensations of encouragement would you wish for?

**Theme 5. Personal thoughts**

What kind of ideas or feelings does the organisation's leadership of volunteers rise in you?

How could the organisation in your opinion improve its voluntary operations and leadership?