The Effect of Motivational Practices on Volunteer Motivation to Volunteer and Perform: Lessons from Volunteer Organizations in Kenya

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ABSTRACT
The study assesses whether organizations’ motivational practices affect volunteer motivation and levels of performance. This study was guided by the following two research questions: first, what motivation practices exist in Volunteer Involving Organizations and whether such affect volunteers’ motivation to volunteer again? Second, do motivational practices improve the performance of volunteers? Findings on the motivational practices that exist in Volunteer Involving Organizations indicated that volunteers highly value social action and feeling useful and productive at the volunteer placement as key to what would motivate them to volunteer. Further the study shows that providing feedback, rewarding and recognizing effort motivates volunteers to perform better. The study concludes that motivation practices in Volunteer Involving Organizations need to be relevant and valuable to volunteers and be of value to the organization.

Key Words: Volunteer, Motivation, performance, Volunteer Involving Organization

INTRODUCTION
Elding, Tobias and Walker (2006) state that a key task of management is that of motivating the organizations workforce to work more effectively towards its objectives. This is mainly done by having the organization offer its workforce rewards for satisfactory performance. Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) have defined motivation as those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed. According to Allison, Okun and Dutridge (2002), who cite Clary and Snyder, 1999; there exists various theories of motivation. Psychologists embrace the functional approach of motivation, which details the functions served by actions. These actions, which could include volunteering, can serve various functions
such as a conscious desire of an individual. Allison, Okun and Duttridge, further contrast this view with the sociologists (e.g., Geen, 1995), who embrace a symbolic approach to motivation, which symbolize accounts generated in order to rationalize or even excuse actions, and therefore has subjective meanings attached to individual behaviour.

It has been argued that volunteers are the most important group of customers for a voluntary organization (see for example, Wright, Larsen and Higgs, 1995). However, when organizations notice the drop in motivation and output from the volunteers and instead of looking at the real issues concerning the volunteers’ drop in productivity or lack of motivation, they are quick to blame factors such as the volunteers’ skills and expertise. According to People in Aid, (2007), international and local Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been facing major issues related to high turnover and poor performance among staff members and volunteers. They further assert that these issues are mostly linked to the challenges of motivating employees in these types of organizations. People in Aid further state that problems of low morale and low motivation exist in several NGO’s but the depths of these issues vary in these NGOs. Clearly, understanding the extent to which motivational practices used by volunteer organizations affect volunteers’ need to volunteer and perform in developing countries’ contexts can help managers in such organizations implement more effective motivational practices.

In this paper we concentrate on Kenya. The aim of this paper is to assess the extent to which organization’s motivational practices affect volunteers’ need to volunteer and their performance. Organizations working with volunteers still face various challenges in motivating their volunteers (Hager and Brudney, 2004). These challenges include identifying the various motivation factors of volunteers and putting in place motivation strategies that match these, maintaining the level of motivation at an all time high, lack of resources, and lack of management support to implement motivation strategies to volunteers having unrealistic motivations that organizations are unable to manage resulting in organizations ignoring to look into volunteer motivation all together. If an organization does not look at motivating their volunteers, chances are that retaining
volunteers would be difficult would not perform up to expected levels (Galit, et al., 2008). This in turn would force organizations to go back to the recruitment of volunteers, which is an expensive and time consuming exercise (Hager and Brudney, 2004; Hashim, 2003).

**Reward Systems in Volunteer Organizations and Performance**

Fisher (2003) asserts that the search for the links between job satisfaction and job performance has fascinated organizational scholars for decades. This has included the 1930s Human Relations Movement, to other early scholars such as Herzberg who had the sensation that improving employee morale would result in higher productivity. However, this notion changed when employees that really performed were expected to be more satisfied as a result of the greater rewards that they received, but this again failed to show strong relationship between performance and greater rewards.

Kinni (1998) contends that money is the primary motivator for employees. However, according to VSO’s (2003) volunteers’ motivation should not be that of financial gain. Volunteers do not receive a salary as employees do at the end of the month. Therefore, organizations need to design various motivation systems for those who work for them, unlike other employees. Hence it can be argued that human beings carry out volunteer activities for various reasons. The basis for reward systems are operand conditioning principles which state that employees will engage in behaviour for which they are rewarded and avoid behaviour for which they are punished. Thus if employees are rewarded for not making errors, they are more likely to produce high quality work. If employees are punished for the amount of work done, they might place less emphasis on quality and try to increase quantity. Finally, if they are not rewarded for any behaviour, they will search for behaviours that will be rewarded. Reward systems in organizations are at the disposal of the managers in order to attract, retain and motivate employees in the desired direction. Even though volunteers do not receive monetary dues for work done, they need to be motivated to be involved in volunteer activities that enable them to meet some, if not all of their basic needs (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007).
Poor performance by volunteers is expensive to any organization using this type of employees. Apart from monetary costs, it costs an organization far more to involve volunteers within the organization. Areas that can prove to be expensive include staff time through supervision efforts, training costs, to variables such as office space for volunteers. When an organization incurs such costs and in turn, the volunteer does not perform up to satisfactory levels, it is easy to conclude that the cost of having the volunteer far outweighs the benefits of having the volunteer in the organization (VSO Jitolee, 2006). However, many volunteer managers do not take their time to look into ways of motivating their volunteers. There are many reasons that may be attributed to this kind of attitude. It could be viewed as a non-essential task, as probably the volunteers will be leaving the organization soon, or managers could have the attitude that since one has offered to volunteer, motivation should not be an issue.

According to Kritner and Kinicki (2007), most managers fall short when it comes to nurturing and supporting their employees to perform better. There are two distinct modes in which managers get results from employees referred to as grind-it-out mode and high-performance mode. In the grind-it-out mode, employees aim for predetermined results, hard grinding effort and exhausted and relieved when it is over. The organizations use various pressures and incentives to enforce conformity to organization sanctioned methods believing that this is either the best or the only way to sustain results over time. The consequences of such policies are highly visible through employee exhaustion and burnout (Etzion, Eden, & Lapidot 1998). On the other hand, the high-performance mode aims for better than expected results, easy and flowing and energized employees when it is all over. The organization is able to achieve much higher and more sustainable performance with less effort and less stress. Harrison (2000) states that an issue that is closely linked with performance is that of performance gaps, which can be defined as the difference between what people are doing now, and what you would want them to do.

Content theories of motivation indicate that needs influence motivation (Kreitner and Kinicki 2007). Employees are human beings and so are volunteers, who give their expertise and time willingly without being coerced. Because of the human factor, it is
arguable that volunteers needs influence their motivation. Those that volunteer have different reasons for volunteering, which include gaining experience, giving back to society and learning something new. Arguably then, organizations might not focus on developing motivation strategies for volunteers. With this lacking, organizations might notice changes in behaviour of volunteers that may include, low motivation levels, less contribution to ones role, and lack of commitment to the organization. This in turn affects the progress of the organization in achieving its goals.

People in Aid (2007), argue that financial incentives are no longer enough to motivate employees and volunteers. As a result, several organizations are focusing on non-financial incentives to enhance employee and volunteer motivation. However, various studies conducted in this area have mainly focused on developed countries in the West (see for example Yany and Yany, 2008). This study focuses on developing countries mainly Kenya to determine the effect of organizational motivational practices on volunteers’ to volunteer and performance.

We are not aware of sufficient literature to guide us in predicting specific effects between organizational motivational practices on volunteer performance in an African context. Nevertheless, we might expect main effects to characterize effects of motivational practices on volunteer performance as noted earlier in this paper. Therefore this study is guided by two research questions:

Research question 1: which motivational practices exist in Volunteer Involving Organizations and what is their effect on volunteer motivation to volunteer again?
Research question 2: to what extent do organizational motivation practices affect volunteer performance?

Kenyan Context

Kenya is a developing country situated in the Eastern region of Africa bordering the Indian Ocean, between Somalia and Tanzania. The name Kenya came into official use in 1920 after the then East African protectorate was renamed by its British colonisers. It is held that modern Kenya was created by the coming of the railway. The country gained
independence from Britain on 12 December 1963 and was led by founding president and liberation struggle icon Jomo Kenyatta until his death in 1978. It is said to be a ‘democracy’ because it holds elections every five years, and several political parties have been represented in parliament since 1992. However, the country is expected to be more democratic having passed a new constitution on the 4th of August 2010. It has a total area of 580,367 sq km, a land mass of 569,140 sq km and water of 11,227 sq km, the Equator cuts across the country. Almost two thirds of it is arid, or semi-arid resulting in a limited area of arable land concentrated in the coastal region and the highlands in the south-western quarter of Kenya of approximately 8.01% (2005 estimates). The country has a total population of 40,046,566 (2010 estimates) comprising 43 ethnic groups commonly known as tribes. All these tribes are believed to have come to this part of Africa from other parts and as they spread out they left behind their kinsmen who, with time developed their own languages and cultures. Originally Kenya’s African people came from the Aboriginal, Hamitic, Negroid and Nilotic races (Grundy, 1968). Consequently, one finds similarities amongst tribes in different regions in terms of language and culture. Alongside African Kenyans, is a good number of Arabs, Indians and Europeans. English is the official language and Swahili the national language.

Post election violence in early 2008, coupled with the effects of the global financial crisis on remittance and exports, reduced estimated GDP growth to 2% and lower in 2008/2009. However, the economy seems to gain momentum as growth in 2010 is reported to be 4.5% and is expected to grow further (Economic Survey, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Measures

For this study the target population consisted of volunteers and volunteer managers in volunteer involving organizations in Nairobi, Kenya. The total number of volunteers within the population was 408, while the total number of volunteer managers within the target population was 15. The target population for volunteers that were active is
drawn from three Volunteer Involving Organizations that is National Volunteer Network Trust (NAVNET), (25); Ungana-Young Friends of AMREF, (162); SOS Youth Centre, (20). The sample for the volunteer managers was drawn from ten VIO’s, who have one volunteer manager each. These organizations are: NAVNET, Ufadhili, SOS Youth Centre, Ungana-Young Friends of AMREF, Youth Alive Kenya, Skills Share International, Kenya Red Cross, Progressive Volunteers, MS Kenya, and St. John’s Ambulance. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the volunteer managers, as they are informative. A sample size of 100 volunteers was selected from 207 volunteers that were active at the time in three Volunteer Involving Organizations using simple random sampling. A sample size of 10 volunteer managers out of 15 from Volunteer Involving Organizations known as the Volunteer Involving Organizations network was selected. Data from volunteers was collected using questionnaires that were developed by the researchers guided by the research questions. The questionnaire had three sections. The first section of the questionnaire focused on demographic information, the second section focused on various motivation practices, and the third section focused on the effect of motivation practices on volunteer performance. Questionnaires that were structured and divided into three sections were used to collect data from the volunteer managers. The first section focused on demographic information, the second section focused on the type of motivation systems that exist in their organizations, the third section focused on how effective motivation practices link with volunteer motivation to volunteer again.

The questionnaires were pre-tested with 2 volunteers from the intended research target population. In addition, one volunteer manager was chosen to pre-test the tool for managers. The volunteers for the pre-test randomly selected from NAVNET and SOS Youth Centre. The volunteers that participated in the pre-test did not participate in the actual research. The purpose of pre-testing was to determine suitability, check understanding and ensure accuracy of the data collection method. The questionnaires were sent to the respondents via email and/or were made available at their respective organizations.
Analytic Strategy

Questionnaires were coded and edited to ensure completeness. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Microsoft Excel was used to process the data. The findings are presented in tables and figures for ease of understanding.

RESULTS

The researchers sought to find out which motivational practices exist in Volunteer Involving Organizations and their influence on volunteer motivation to volunteer again.

The first part of the analysis focused on another twelve motivational practices that the researcher identified to exist in VIO’s. These included social action, family inclusion, affiliation with a cause or group, skill development and future employment prospects, academic leverage, involvement in decision-making, rewards/recognition, feeling useful and productive, and sustained post-volunteering correspondence. These practices were divided into two clusters of six each. The first cluster looked at social action, family inclusion, making friends, affiliation with group or cause, skill development and future employment prospects. The second cluster looked at academic leverage, mutual decision-making, rewards/recognition, feeling useful and productive, and sustained post-volunteering correspondence.

The second part of the analysis focuses on the volunteers’ performance and how organizations’ motivational practices affect their performance. The researchers explored twelve motivational factors and their effect on volunteer performance. These included celebrating success, strong performance culture, clear job expectations and methods of evaluation, feedback, incentives, relevant skills, unclear roles, good organizational culture, team reward systems, sense of competence, conducive environment, and written role description. These have been put into two clusters for easier analysis. First cluster explored celebrating success, strong performance culture, clear job expectation and methods of evaluation, feedback, incentives, and relevant skills. The second cluster
explored unclear roles, good organizational culture, team reward systems, sense of competence, conducive environment and written role descriptions.

**Motivational Practices’ Effect on Volunteer Motivation to Volunteer**

This part presents results on the effect of organizational motivation practices on volunteer motivation to volunteer.

Table 1: Motivational Practices and motivation to volunteer-Cluster 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Motivational Practices and Frequency in Percentages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the responses of volunteers’ motivation to volunteer in relation to organizational motivation practices. The results indicate that 59 per cent strongly agree and 35 per cent agree, that is 94 per cent that volunteers would be motivated to volunteer if their volunteering would lead to social action, such as helping someone in need, whereas 4 per cent strongly disagree and 2 per cent are neutral. On the practice of involving the family in the volunteering experience, the responses were not clear cut because 35 per cent agreed that they would be motivated to volunteer if their families were involved. Twenty three percent (23%) were neutral, 12 per cent strongly disagreed and 10 per cent disagreed. Regarding the third motivational practice, having an opportunity to volunteer with a cause or group that they are affiliated to results indicate that 44 per cent strongly agreed and the same percentage agreed totalling to 88% of those agreeing, whereas 8 per cent were neutral, 2 per cent disagreed.
The findings for skill development as a motivational practice to volunteering shows that a total of 86 per cent (46% strongly agree and 40% agree) would volunteer if the opportunity resulted in the volunteers developing their skills, whereas 11 per cent were neutral and 3 per cent disagreed and none strongly disagreed. Table 1a also report that 44 per cent strongly agree, 35 per cent agree that they would be motivated to volunteer if the placement would offer an opportunity for employment in the future, while 17 per cent were neutral, 2 per cent disagreed and 2 per cent strongly disagreed with this motivational practice. The last motivational practice in this cluster was whether making friends would be a motivator for volunteering in the future which shows that 41 per cent agreed and 39 per cent strongly agreed totalling to 80 per cent of those agreeing while 16 per cent were neutral, 1 per cent strongly disagreed and 3 per cent disagreed leading the researchers to conclude that most of the motivational practices in this cluster could motivate volunteers to volunteer.

Motivational Practices and Volunteers’ Motivation to Volunteer—Cluster 2

Figure 1 shows the responses of volunteers’ motivation to volunteer as relates to organizational motivation practices.
One of the other factors explored in this cluster is whether academic leverage can motivate volunteers to volunteer. Results indicate that 39 per cent strongly agree and 32 per cent agree giving a total of 71 per cent that are for such a motivational practice, 15 per cent neutral, 4 per cent strongly disagreeing, and 10 per cent disagreeing that gaining academic credits would motivate them to volunteer. The findings also indicated that 42 per cent agreed and 40 per cent strongly agreed that they would be motivated to volunteer again if they were involved in decision-making whereas, 11 per cent were neutral, 1 per cent strongly disagrees, and 6 per cent disagree that involvement in decision-making would motivate them to volunteer. On exploring the factor on rewards and recognition as a motivational practice, 45 per cent strongly agree, 40 per cent agree that they would be motivated to volunteer if their efforts were recognised and were rewarded which is a
strong 85 per cent for the motivational practice while 10 per cent, 2 per cent strongly disagreed and 2 per cent disagreed.

Whether management focussed on fulfilling emerging and unmet needs would motivate volunteers to volunteer again shows that most 82 per cent are in support of this motivational practice because 46 per cent strongly agreed and 36 per cent agreed whereas 14 per cent were neutral, 1 per cent strongly disagreed, and 3 per cent disagreed. Figure 1 further reports that 49 per cent strongly agreed and 37 per cent of the volunteers agreed that they would be motivated to volunteer if the placement enabled them to feel useful and productive, while only 14 per cent were neutral and none disagreed nor strongly disagreed. The findings also show that 46 per cent strongly agreed and 36 per cent agreed, that is 82 per cent agreeing with this motivational practice of sustained post volunteering correspondence from the organization would motivate them to volunteer again while 14 per cent were neutral, 3 per cent disagreed, and 1 per cent strongly disagreed. Again these findings led us to conclude that all the motivational practices in place in cluster 2 would motivate volunteers to volunteer again.

Motivation and Volunteer Performance-Cluster 1
Figure 2 provides a graphical illustration of the effect of motivational factors on volunteer performance.
The findings indicate that 50 per cent agree, 42 per cent strongly agree that they would be motivated to perform if volunteer success was celebrated, whereas 1 per cent strongly disagrees, and 2 per cent disagree while 5 per cent are neutral. On exploring the effect of strong performance culture in the organization on performance, 44 per cent strongly agree, and 43 per cent agree (87%) that this factor would motivate them to perform. On the converse, 11 per cent were neutral, 1 per cent disagrees, and another 1 per cent strongly disagrees that an organizations performance culture would motivate them to perform. The findings also show that 55 per cent of the volunteers strongly agree, and 35% agree that clear job expectation and methods of evaluation would motivate them to perform, whereas 7 per cent are neutral, 1 per cent disagrees, and 2 per cent strongly disagree. The study further reports that feedback plays a significant role in improving volunteer performance, since 58 per cent of the respondents strongly agree, 34 per cent agree, with a minority of 1 per cent strongly disagree and 7 per cent are neutral.

The other three factors in this cluster also report positive results regarding the effect of motivational factors in volunteer performance. Most volunteers agree that incentives are likely to motivate them to perform i.e., 79 per cent. This is broken down to include 46%
agree, 33 per cent strongly agree. Eighteen percent (18%) were neutral, and 1 per cent strongly disagrees, and 2 per cent disagree about the role of incentives in motivation. The findings also indicate that 48 per cent strongly agree, and 36 per cent agree that organizational support would motivate volunteer performance. Thirteen percent (13%) were neutral on this factor, 2 per cent disagree that organizational support would not motivate them to perform better at their role. On analyzing the factor on relevant skills and performance, it emerged that 47 per cent agree, and 37 per cent strongly agree that if they had the necessary skills for the volunteering opportunity they would be motivated to perform better, whereas 15 per cent were neutral and 1 per cent strongly disagree.

Motivation and Volunteer Performance-Cluster 2

Figure 3 illustrates six more of the motivational factors that may motivate the volunteers to perform.
Figure 3: Motivation and volunteer performance-Cluster 2

The findings illustrated in figure 3 shows that 45 per cent of the volunteers agree, 33 per cent agree strongly totalling to 78 per cent of volunteers who think that they become de-motivated to perform when their roles are unclear. Thirteen percent (13%) of the volunteers are neutral indicating that they are not sure about the role of unclear roles on their performance. While 9 per cent disagree that unclear roles would de-motivate. On analysing the effect of organizational culture on performance, 52 per cent strongly agree, and a further 39 per cent agree making up a total of 91 per cent of volunteers who think that a good organizational culture is essential in motivating volunteer performance. Six percent (6%) of the volunteers sampled were neutral on organizational culture and performance while 3 per cent disagree implying that a good organizational culture was not important and would not motivate them to perform. The findings on team reward systems revealed that 27 per cent strongly agree and 25 per cent agree making up 52 per cent of volunteers who think that such a system would de-motivate hence, lowering volunteer performance. On the flip side 20 per cent disagree and 14 per cent strongly disagree that being rewarded as a team would de-motivate them therefore not affect their performance, while 14 per cent of the volunteers were neutral.

The other motivational factors researched also show a positive effect of volunteer performance. The results show that 48 per cent agree, and a further 40 per cent strongly agree that when the volunteers have a sense of competence they would be motivated to perform. Only 4 per cent disagree, while 8 per cent are neutral. The study also revealed that 47 per cent strongly agree that an environment that is conducive would motivate them to perform better. This was reinforced further by 46 per cent of the volunteers that agree totalling to 93 per cent of those supporting the need for an environment that is conducive to boost performance. Six percent (6%) were neutral and 1 per cent disagrees with this factor’s role in boosting volunteer performance. The findings also show that 42 per cent strongly agree and 40 per cent agrees that they need a written role description for them to feel motivated to perform. Fifteen percent (15%) were neutral implying that they
would be motivated to perform with or without a written role description. On the other hand, 3 per cent disagree that they do not need a written role description to be motivated to perform.

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of organizational motivation practices on volunteer motivation to volunteer and perform. Findings of the study indicate that organizational motivation practices if well managed would motivate volunteers to volunteer and there are factors that are essential if their performance is to improve. We would argue that volunteers are not necessary motivated by the very factors that motivate salaried employees since they normally offer their services for free. In this context it is reasonable to infer that certain factors predict volunteer’s motivation to volunteer and perform, though we accept that simple descriptive statistics cannot conclusively prove this.

**Motivation practices on volunteers’ motivation to volunteer**

The findings from the research indicate that volunteers would be motivated to volunteer if their volunteering would lead to social action if they felt useful and productive at the volunteer placement. This compares favourably with Bussel and Forbes (2001) research which reported that the desire to help other people was the most frequently stated reason for volunteering among the Guide Association. They further assert that the strongest motivating factor to volunteer for older volunteers was the need to feel useful or productive and if they would volunteer as a family unit as this creates family togetherness. Gomez and Gunderson (2003) argue that in order to reduce the demands on family when one volunteers for example with spouse. They further report that people volunteer to satisfy important psychological and social goals, which could be driven by altruistic or egoistic motives. This study supports this argument since more than half of the respondents felt that volunteering with their families would be a big motivator for them to volunteer. However volunteer managers made no indication that family volunteering, volunteering leading to social action or ensuring volunteers feel useful and
productive are motivational practices employed by VIO’s. Some organizations maintain that it is their sole responsibility to motivate volunteers which is contrary to McKenna’s (2000) argument that when people are motivated, they are responding to situations that are a function of factors within and outside of them. This shows that ensuring that volunteers are properly motivated is a function of motivational practices put in place by the organization and volunteer needs (Skoglund, 2006).

The findings from this research indicated that volunteers agree that if the management focused on fulfilling their emerging and unmet needs and sustaining post-volunteering correspondence, they would be motivated to volunteer. The volunteer managers made no mention of fulfilling volunteers emerging and unmet needs like regular communication as a motivational practice they employ, or one they think is valued or is a reason for volunteer’s need to volunteer with their organizations. It is important that managers devise programmes and practices aimed at satisfying employees’ emerging and unmet needs.

Maslow’s classical motivation theory points to the importance of social needs such as love and recognition to be important motivation factors. This was consistent with this study’s findings which show that a majority of the volunteers agree that being affiliated with a group or a cause would motivate them to volunteer. Volunteer managers also reported that an aspect of their organizations motivational practices focus on creating a sense of belonging and facilitating networking activities for volunteers in order to satisfy the need to belong. These findings compare favourably with McClelland’s Need Theory that links the relationship between needs and behaviour (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007).

Three other factors that positively motivated volunteers to volunteer namely: recognizing effort and rewarding the same through monetary and non-monetary means; involvement in the organization’s decision making process; and opportunity to develop skills. The findings from the data collected from the volunteer managers also indicate that volunteer managers implement reward and recognition systems. One of the strategies volunteer managers use is awarding medals and appointing volunteers into senior positions. This
perspective is supported by McNerney’s (1996) research that found out that employees could be motivated by either increasing their pay or by simply recognizing their efforts. Involving employees in decision making makes them to improve their sense of motivation as reported by Anderman and Leake (2005) research that looked into the ABCs of motivation and reported that involving students in classroom decision-making increases their motivation mainly in classroom settings. The findings also indicate that volunteer managers felt that continuous training and professional development to be one of the most valued motivational practices by volunteers. This compares favourably to the findings from Skemp-Artlt and Toupence (2007) research that expounded on motivators such as achievement and advancement. It is evident from the results that all the factors assessed were found to be positive motivators to volunteer in spite of the fact that managers in participating organizations do not implement the same.

Motivation and performance

By using close-ended questions for the volunteers and open-ended questions for the volunteer managers, the researchers sought to find out how motivation can improve the performance of volunteers.

The research findings indicate that a majority of the volunteers strongly agreed that receiving feedback on their performance as important and this would consequently motivate the volunteers to perform. Volunteer managers also believe that poor support and supervision, which then affects feedback opportunities, to be a factor that contributes to poor performance by the volunteers. These findings compare favourably with the Family Planning Programmes (2002) research that found out that employees need feedback on their performance as they need to know how they are doing in regard to expectations from their employers. This in turn affects their motivation to perform (see for example Arco, 2008).

The research findings indicated that majority of the volunteers strongly agreed that clear job expectations and methods of evaluation would motivate them to perform. The findings are in agreement with Capco (2005), who argue that if employees are blaming
one another when things are going wrong, it could be for reasons like unclear defined roles. Capco is also clear on the need to develop performance standards for employees. When job expectations, performance standards and performance evaluation methods are outlined, this encourages volunteers, which in turn sees productivity and efficiency improve. Majority of the volunteer managers also noted that mismatched expectations for example mismatched expectations on the role to be a factor that leads to poor performance whereas the presence of a volunteer policy and adherence to its guidelines motivates volunteers to perform. A section of a volunteer policy would address the importance of clear job descriptions and methods of evaluating the volunteer.

Concerning organizational culture, the research findings indicate that majority of the volunteers strongly agreed that a good organizational culture would motivate them to perform better. Risher (2007) noted that an organization with a strong organizational culture motivates employees to perform because they know what is expected of them. However, the volunteer managers in this study did not indicate that organizational culture to be a key factor that affects volunteers’ performance, or as a factor that contributes to poor performance.

The research findings indicated that volunteers agree that if their successes were celebrated by the organization, they would be motivated to perform. These findings are closely linked with those from the volunteer managers that indicated that reward and recognition strategies play an important role in motivating volunteers to perform. Further volunteer managers indicated that reference letters could also increase performance levels. Reference letters could be seen as an example of recognition mechanisms. These findings are in agreement with Kreitner and Kinicki (2007), who emphasize the importance of reward systems in supporting job performance among employees. Rewards and recognition mechanisms boost volunteers’ motivation to keep performing at their optimum.
CONCLUSION

Motivation is a key ingredient that encourages volunteerism to take place. This is mainly because unlike employees who receive monetary and other forms of payments for work performed volunteers do not receive monetary or other forms of payments for services rendered. The research findings did indicate that Volunteer Involving Organizations do have different types of non-monetary systems in place that look into increasing or maintaining the motivation levels among their volunteers. However, VIO’s need to ensure that motivational practices implemented are those that will be valuable, relevant and motivating for the volunteers and be of value to the VIO’s. These could include maintaining regular communication between the volunteer and the organization, creating a sense of belonging or the opportunity to be affiliated with a group or cause, rewards and recognition systems and the opportunity for volunteers to be involved in decision making. Volunteer Involving Organizations should not institutionalize ‘one-size fits all’ type of motivational practices that addresses their volunteer’s motivational needs. They should put in place different types of motivation practices for the different audiences of volunteers. This can be accomplished by having the VIO’s enquire from their volunteers on the motivational practices that they would find useful and relevant and institutionalize the same. However, organizations need to strike a balance between that which volunteers find useful and that, which will be beneficial and affordable to the organizations.

REFERENCES


