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Motivations for Volunteering in a Faith-Based Mentoring Program

Trudy Weatherspoon Willis-Jones
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Trudy Willis-Jones

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the review committee have been made.

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Walden University

2014

Abstract

Motivations for Volunteering in a Faith-Based Mentoring Program

by

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MBA, Andrews University, 1991

BS, Oakwood University, 1981

AS, Atlanta Metropolitan College, 1976

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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December 2014

Abstract

Adolescent males are being suspended or expelled at high rates. Faith-based organizations have developed programs to address these problems by using adult male volunteers to mentor high-risk youth; however, recruiting sufficient mentors is a problem because organizers lack an understanding of the factors that motivate men to volunteer. If this problem can be alleviated, then faith-based organizations will be better able to recruit volunteers to serve students. Guided by the functionalist theory, the purpose of this study was to determine what demographic characteristics and motivating factors discriminated between volunteers and non-volunteers. A causal comparative design was employed and the Volunteer Function Inventory was administered to determine differences between volunteers ($n = 112$) and non-volunteers ($n = 202$) in terms of motivating factors, demographic characteristics, and future intentions to volunteer. In alignment with the functionalist theory, multivariate analysis of variance revealed that volunteers were more motivated by social, value, understanding, and self-enhancement factors than were non-volunteers. Descriptive data analyses indicated that volunteers were older, unmarried, employed full time, and less educated than non-volunteers, and revealed no difference in future intentions to volunteer. Based upon the findings of this study, it is concluded that faith-based organizations recruit and retain adult males as role models who exhibit social, value, understanding, and self-enhancement factors to provide support for adolescent males. It is recommended that faith-based leaders use the Volunteer Function Inventory as a screening tool to identify volunteers who would mentor high risk male students. This practice may enable male at risk students to remain in school, graduate, and lead fulfilling lives, thus resulting in positive social change.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated in loving memory of my son, the late Richard Thal-mon Willis. Richard was born on April 30, 1987, and died at the age of 25 on July 30, 2012, an innocent victim of gun violence. He was studying to become a clinical social worker and pursuing an early childhood education degree. Richard you believed in me, gave me tremendous support, laughter, fun, happiness and love. You were one of a kind. In your death, you gave life as an organ donor. I miss you and had to complete this dissertation for you.

I also dedicate this work in loving memory of my two heroes, Richard Weatherspoon (my father) and Richard Weatherspoon, Jr. (my brother), who believed in me, and thought I could do anything. *I did it!* If only you could have lived long enough for my sons to have known you.

I further dedicate this study on behalf of my oldest, and only remaining son, Roy Mack Willis II. I love you with all my heart. You are a very smart and intelligent young man. This accomplishment is for you. May you always aim high and not give up. Dream! Believe! Trust! Persevere! Thank you for your belief in me, and for all your love.

To my mother, Mrs. Annie B. Weatherspoon: I do this to honor you, Mom. Thanks for your love, belief, confidence, listening ears, and ALL your undying support. For You! I learned a lot from the “sewing” episode. Thank you for being my role-model.

To my twin sister, Judy Weatherspoon Simon: Can you believe it?

To Arthur Jones, my loving husband, who encouraged me to overcome many obstacles and endured this gruesome task along my side. Thank you, Darling.

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I must give thanks to my God for the strength, perseverance, faith, guidance, and belief in a higher power. With God, I believe nothing is impossible. My prayer is that God will allow others to feel His love, and bestow the belief and gratitude I have for you upon others. My God, thank you.

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Section 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

African American adolescent males have the lowest academic performance in the United States. They also have nearly two times the high school dropout rate of European American males (Gregory, Neguera, & Skiba, 2010; Lewis, Simon, Uzzel, Horwitz, & Casserly, 2010). A higher portion of African American adolescent males are being suspended, expelled, and pushed out of school compared to members of other ethnic groups, counteracting educators' effort to raise the graduation rate and academic performance among all students (Advancement Project, 2010). Violence is associated with academic struggles and school dropout (Bonnell & Zizys, 2005). Also, many schools have implemented zero-tolerance policies, causing many children to be removed from the learning environment. Zero tolerance policies mandate that all students attending schools in the United States, from kindergarten through 12th grade, are administered harsh punishments, even if the infractions do not create a threat to safety (Advancement Project, 2010).

Zero tolerance policies continue to be administered throughout the United States where African American adolescent males have the highest numbers of out-of-school suspensions (OSS), in-school suspension (ISS), school expulsions, and harshest disciplinary actions (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Lewis et al., 2010; Perez, 2010). These severe punishments have contributed to African American adolescent males having the highest national dropout rate of any racial or ethnic group in the United States (Lewis et al., 2010; Stillwell, Sable, & Plotts, 2011; Thomas-Whitfield, 2010; U.S. Department of

Education [USDOE], 2011). The overall graduation rate in 2007–2008 for African American men in the United States was only 47%, and 52% in 2009–2010 compared to European Americans whose graduation rate for 2009-2010 was 78 percent (Schott Foundation, 2010; Schott Foundation, 2012). The national dropout rate for 2012 was 8.1%; however, the rate for African Americans was 9.6%, and the total male dropout rate was 9.1% (Education Week, 2014). With the administering of ZTPs, which resulted in the OSS rate increasing for African American males, the high school dropout rate for this ethnic group increased more markedly than the national dropout rate.

Half of the states in the United States during 2010 had graduation rates for African American males below the national average (Chapman, Laird, & KewalRamani, 2010). According to Stillwell et al. (2011) African American students had the lowest graduation rate (63.5%) for the 2008 school year compared to Hispanics (65.9%), European Americans (82%), American Indian/Alaska Natives (64.8%), and Asian/Pacific Islanders (91.8%). An overview of dropout rates revealed that for half a century, 1960 through 2009, African American students had the highest dropout rates compared to European American students (USDOE, 2010). However, in 2008, European American students showed less than a 5% higher dropout rate compared to African Americans in only two states: Idaho (.1%), and South Dakota (.4%) (USDOE, 2011).

The USDOE (2011) recent recalculation of the graduation rate reported a severe drop for African Americans from 81% to 61%. This updated procedure for calculating the graduation rate makes it difficult to compare recent statistics to historical graduation rates. The new method to calculate the graduation rate for high schools throughout the

United States shows signs of improvement that do not exist. With directives from the USDOE, the new method for calculating the high school graduation rate must be used to update the previous method of calculation to depict a more accurate view of the graduation rate. In 2009 – 2010, Asian students in the United States had the highest high school graduation rate of 79%, with European American students at 78%, African American at 52%, while Latino students have the lower graduation rate of 58% (Schott Foundation, 2012). However, in the state of Georgia, the graduation rate in 2011–2012 for African American was 62%, compared to 78% for European Americans. The school year of 2010–2011 was the first year that states were required to use the new graduation calculated rate, so data prior to 2010–2011 are not comparable (Ed Data Express, n.d.).

Researchers for the USDOE collected data that showed that African American men have the highest negative outcome in almost every indicator when compared to their peers (Lewis et al., 2010). Georgia schools ranked in the top 10 national list for Out of School Suspensions (OSS) in 2009 (Thomas-Whitfield, 2010). In addition, Georgia schools administered 2.3 million OSS for high school students, and an additional 96,000 thousand youth were expelled each year from 2002 through 2006 (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2009). Furthermore, in Atlanta, Georgia, the rate of suspension was four times the national average, whereas expulsion rates were twice the national average (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2009). According to the Georgia Appleseed Center for Law & Justice review board (2011), Georgia's public school system disciplinary data revealed (a) for the school year 2009–2010, 8.1% of African American students were administered at least one OSS, (b) some districts administered OSS up to 45%, (c) male students received 75% of the expulsions,

and 66% of the OSS, (d) African American students received three times more OSS than any other racial group, and (e) disparity was found in the administering of discipline toward African Americans. In addition, Thomas-Whitfield (2010) found that for the school year 2008–2009, the Georgia school system administered disciplinary actions to 58.9% of African American students.

This disparity in suspension, expulsion, and school-based arrest impacts school dropout, exacerbating the risk of introducing youth prematurely to the criminal-justice system for behavior that could otherwise be addressed with in-house interventions (Advancement Project, 2010; Karp, 2009; St. George, 2011). One intervention involves connecting with community partners who may intervene effectively with proven and promising dropout-prevention strategies (Georgia Appleseed Center for Law & Justice, 2011; Princiotta & Reyna, 2009). Schools that are considered successful and effective provide opportunities for at-risk students to develop positive relationships with a significant adult as a role model and provide social support that would affect a positive change in, behavior, attitude, and value (C. M. Clark, 2005; Comer & Laird, 1975). School interventions frequently result in positive benefits derived from youth having close caring relationships that ultimately help youth transition successfully through life (DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002; O'Connor, 2006).

Young people who live in risky environments or participate in risky behaviors place themselves at risk of unfortunate situations—violence, substance abuse, school dropout, or pregnancy. These young people often suffer from lack of adequate support (Burt, Resnick, & Novick, 1998, C. Clark, 2004). When individuals believe that others

care, they tend to focus more on positive aspects of their environment rather than negative aspects (C. Clark, 2004). Social support is a major predictor of the physical and mental state of all persons because it impacts the immune system and serves as prevention of depression and anxiety; for adolescents, the lack of social support can strain their emotions (C. Clark, 2004). African American youth are frequently angry and feel powerless and alienated; consequently, they need interventions to deal with these feelings and to develop positive coping strategies (Hoops, Tourse, & Christian, 2002). Successful interventions to help young people become less violent must include strategies that will allow them to establish connections with positive adults and positive peer relationships (Bonnell & Zizys, 2005). Intervention through the use of support groups would allow African American males to discuss issues pertinent only to them, and support groups would allow them to form close relationships (Calloway, 2006; Myers 2009)

Despite research suggesting the need for mentoring programs, the main research focus should be on recruitment because early termination of the mentoring relationship may be harmful to mentee (Garringer, 2004). Mentoring programs are challenged with the task of recruitment and retention of male role models, commensurate with a paucity of research on male recruitment (Garringer, 2004). In an effort to provide mentors, 17.6 million youth were in need or desired to have a mentor, and 14.6 million youth remained unmatched (Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005). The educational system lacked African American male role models to serve as mentors (Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005).

Youth who participated in mentoring (a) developed positive attitudes toward school, (b) increased their participation in extracurricular activities, (c) increased school attendance, (d) increased their motivation to attend college, (e) increased school performance, (f) increased their self-concept, constructive behavior, and interaction with others, (g) lessened their negative behavior, and (h) increased their positive attitude regarding their future (Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002). However, there is a significant mentoring gap: An unmet need for matching youth with mentors (Mentor/The Mentoring Partnership, 2005).

Faith-based organizations (FBOs) have traditionally taken on supportive roles for families (Groff, 2008; T. Moore, 1991) by providing social support (McAdoo & Crawford, 1990; Timmons, 2010; U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2001). However, adult men need to play a prominent role as volunteers in those social programs established for at-risk adolescent males. FBOs have been identified as a viable source of male volunteers, but acquiring and retaining adult male volunteers for these programs is difficult; consequently, a southeastern FBO faces a similar challenge. This study was designed to explore and determine the motivations of adult men to volunteer in a specific Faith Based Organization. The purpose was to determine the motivations to volunteer, using the framework of the six-factor model of motivation.

Problem Statement

The venue for this study was a Faith Based Organization (FBO) located in the Atlanta Public School District in the city of Atlanta, Georgia. Members live in southwest Atlanta, approximately 15 miles from downtown. The Atlanta Public School District lags

behind the nation and the State of Georgia for graduating students on time (Tsoi-A-Fatt, 2009). The members of the FBO are compassionate about the needs of the community, and seek ways to address problems in their community. Members of this organization created community programs specifically to mentor at-risk males who are in jeopardy of not completing school and who may participate in risky behavior. The at-risk mentoring program aims to address the concerns of the surrounding community regarding African American males for the following reasons: (a) they have the lowest academic performance and almost double the high school dropout rate of European American men, (b) they lack positive caring and supportive adult relationships, and (c) they are denied participation in extracurricular activities due to low academic performance.

Students who fail to graduate encounter numerous consequences. For example, State Secretary of Education Cox noted that students who do not acquire a high school diploma:

- are more likely to be without employment, coupled with low wages with no chance of promotion,
- earn \$1 million less than those who acquire a college degree,
- have double the likelihood of living in poverty and having poor health,
- increase the likelihood they will depend on government subsidies,
- decrease their chance of attending college due to illiteracy,
- increase their likelihood of going to jail, and
- increase the likelihood that their offspring will become high school dropouts (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2011).

African American students experience a greater proportion of achievement barriers than their European American counterparts. These barriers include low academic achievement, disengagement from the academic environment, a disproportionately high rate of suspensions and expulsions, and an underrepresentation in college enrollment and completion (Kerpelman, Eryigit, & Stephens, 2008). In addition, African American adolescent males are at-risk from the lack of accessibility to helpful, sensitive, and reliable father-son relationships necessary to steer their perilous path from adolescence to adulthood (Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002; Rhodes, Reddy, Roffman, & Grossman, 2005). Eight and a half million youth lacked supportive, long lasting relationships with caring adults (Carvell, DuBois, Karcher, Keller, & Rhodes, 2009).

Community Faith Based Organizations have traditionally played many important and supportive roles that impact the spirituality of mentors, as well as of those who are under their guidance (Crawford, Wright, & Masten, 2006; McAdoo & Crawford, 1990; Scott & Magnuson, 2006). Faith-based programs improve prosocial behavior for adolescents who have encountered difficult challenges and adverse circumstances in their life (Angell, Dennis, & Dumain, 1998; Crawford et al., 2006). Second, FBOs actively participate in providing services to the community in response to structural changes in individual's homes, in their finances, in employment, and in areas of increased poverty (McAdoo & Crawford, 1990).

Furthermore, integrating spiritual development into children's and youth's programs can ultimately strengthen spirituality and resilience (Scott & Magnuson, 2006). FBOs are supportive, educational partners through the role they adopt when caring for

children after school (McAdoo & Crawford, 1990). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 supported allowing schools and religious organizations to become strong partners in educating all children.

Faith Based Organizations are viable sources for recruiting African American male volunteers to volunteer in at-risk mentoring programs (Jekielek, Moore, Hair, & Scarupa, 2002). Mentoring programs operating through religious organizations have the potential to reach at-risk youth, such as ex-offenders, incarcerated prisoners, and disenfranchised and severely disadvantaged youth, who may be overlooked in other settings (Rhodes & Chan, 2008). In addition, participants have experienced increased positive self-worth (Jekielek, Moore, Hair, & Scarupa, 2002), improved relationships, decrease in violent behavior and drug and alcohol use, teen pregnancies (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2006) and risky behaviors (Keller, 2007).

Faith Based Organizations have a plethora of potential caring adults with personal commitments toward volunteering (Maton & Sto. Domingo, 2006). Despite the number of potential men in the faith-based church there is an insufficient number of men volunteering within the faith-based church (Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005; Rhodes & Chan, 2008). Many mentoring programs struggle to recruit and retain mentors for high-risk youth because organizers lack understanding of the factors that motivate these potential individuals to volunteer (Bauldry & Hartman, 2004).

The positive effect of mentoring intervention programs on at-risk youth residing in high-risk circumstances is well-documented (Rhodes et al., 2005). When boys do not have a caring, positive, male role model for guidance, they seek whoever is present and

often it is not a positive role model (B. R. Johnson, 2001; C. L. Johnson, 2000)

Mentoring programs provide positive adult relationships, support, and guidance for youth who lack adult-to-adolescent interaction (Rhodes, 2002). However, the greatest challenges for mentoring programs reside in recruiting male mentors (Rhodes, 2002). Most mentoring programs confront the dilemma of an insufficient pool of mentor volunteers, as well as (a) recruiting sufficient numbers of committed, reliable, skilled, male volunteers to serve as mentors. (b) providing appropriate training for mentors, and (c) ensuring longer lasting relationships needed for at-risk youth (Garringer, 2004; Herrera et al., 2007).

Program leaders in this organization, hereby referred to as the ABC Society, face challenges in recruiting and retaining volunteers and desire to understand the factors that would motivate African American adult men to volunteer in the mentoring program established for at-risk adolescent males. Understanding these motivating factors impact how members implement recruiting and retention strategies. Program activities have been reduced to fundraising through car washing because there are insufficient numbers of male volunteers to implement other programs. The program is not serving the intended population because the organization lacks male mentors for the one-on-one mentoring program. Participants attending the program are children from affluent homes whose parents are doctors, lawyers, or educators, and are widely known in that organization to be financially sound with the father residing in the home. However, the program lacks a sufficient number of mentors to match with those in need, and those who participated are no longer active within 2 months (hereby referred to as Elder A., personal

communication, November 15, 2010). If a program wants to use volunteers to serve those who are considered to be at-risk, it is important that recruiters understand what motivates individuals to volunteer, and then successfully aligns the benefits of experiences to the individual's motivation (Pauline, 2006).

This study addressed the problem by exploring and determining the psychological factors that would motivate adult men to volunteer. The study was a non-experimental, single-event survey research design, using descriptive statistics. Survey research employs the method of collecting information through questions, which allows researchers to tabulate answers about one or more groups concerning their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, and experiences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This study did not identify any independent or dependent variables because the research design was descriptive and based on a survey. The variables were the motivational reasons for becoming involved and staying involved as a volunteer in a southeastern FBO. I adapted six categories or motivational reasons on the Volunteer Functional Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998) survey. The motivation functions were (a) value, (b) understanding, (c) enhancement, (d) social, (e) career, and (f) protective, and served as variables for this study. Additionally, I gathered variables for age, education, marital status, and employment, as well as the intent for long-term versus short-term volunteering.

I reviewed the literature on mentoring extensively; it was difficult to find any data or studies that specifically focused on what motivates adult men to volunteer for mentoring programs in a faith-based program. These findings have larger implications for research and practice in the field of mentoring.

Nature of the Study

The research questions and hypotheses addressed in this study follow:

1. What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and non-volunteer members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO? I hypothesized that volunteers would differ significantly from non-volunteers by age, marital status, employment status, and educational level.
2. Are there any differences in motivation between volunteer and non-volunteer adult men in the men's auxiliary of a specific FBO? Specifically, I hypothesized significant differences would exist between the motivation profile: the six constructs of the VFI contain six motivational factors: (a) a value factor, (b) an understanding factor, (c) a social factor, (d) a career factor (e) a protective factor, and (f) an enhancement factor (Clary et al., 1998).
3. What are the differences in long-term versus short-term intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO? Specifically, I hypothesized significant differences would exist between the motivation of adult male volunteers with long-term intentions and those with short-term intentions to volunteer.

A more detailed discussion of these hypotheses and how they were tested appears in the methodology section.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to (a) determine what demographics (age, education, marital status, and employment) of adult men differentiated between

volunteers and non-volunteers in a specific FBO, and (b) determine if the motives to volunteer differ significantly between adult male volunteers and non-volunteers in a specific FBO.

Conceptual Framework

The main theory underlying this study centered on functionalist theory. Functionalism theory was founded on the belief that individuals can participate in similar activities, but derive satisfaction based on different psychological needs (Clary et al., 1998). Researchers have used functional analysis to understand how motivation impacts volunteerism (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996). Functional theory was the bridge that allowed Clary and colleagues to develop the VFI instrument. The VFI is comprised of six different functions that explain volunteers' motivations (i.e., values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement). A detailed account of the theories will be presented in the literature review.

Definition of Terms

Career: An individual's pursuit of career opportunities that ensures a particular career path is possible (Clary et al., 1998).

Enhancement: The motivation an individual acquires that contributes to increased self-esteem, a sense of belonging, feeling valued by others, and the ability to form new relationships (Clary et al., 1998).

Motivational functions: The drive or force that explains why individuals possess certain attitudes that cause them to engage in a behavior (Katz, 1960).

Protective: The motivation to be resilient and focused and not let obstacles from personal problems become a distractor (Clary et al., 1998).

Recruitment: The process of adding new individuals to a population or a subpopulation (*Webster's II New Collegiate Dictionary, 1995*). In this study, recruitment refers to the process needed to add adult men volunteers in a mentoring program for a minimum of 1 year.

Social: An individual's desire to satisfy the expectations of those in their close group of acquaintances (Clary et al., 1998).

Understanding: An individual's increased understanding of their surrounding as it relates to the world, diversity, and themselves (Clary et al., 1998).

Values: An individual's behavior, displayed in their action to enhance the lives of others or to benefit society (Clary et al., 1998).

Volunteer: A person who provides unpaid services and performs or gives services freely, offered at one's own initiative (White, 2006).

Volunteering: Prearranged and ongoing commitment (Baumeister & Bushman, 2008).

Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI): A Likert-scale survey consisting of different motivations for volunteerism (Clary et al., 1998).

Volunteer retention: An individual's attitude toward their volunteering experience that causes them to continue to want to volunteer (Skoglund, 2006).

Assumptions, Limitations, Scope and Delimitations

Assumptions

The researcher assumed that the individuals participating would be honest and truthful. Participants in this project took part voluntarily without coercion or reward. The selected sample for this study represented the population.

Limitations

This research study was limited to adult men who held membership in a specific faith-based church in a southeastern state. Thus, the results of this study were not generalized to all men's ministry members outside the FBO. A potential limitation in all survey studies is that the participants may not understand the questions or that the questions may be misleading (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). A random-sampling method was not possible in this study and therefore results were less than those based on random-sampling techniques (McMillan, 2000).

Scope and Delimitation

The scope of this research study was limited solely to Faith Based Organization located in an urban southeastern city. The definition of motivation to volunteer was also narrow because it was limited to one instrument, the VFI. Although the results, which I will make available to other practitioners and researchers, are directly applicable to all community-service departments in that specific FBO, but outside its district, results are limited. The volunteers selected were adult male members of a specific FBO, and were members or eligible to be members of the men's ministry auxiliary. External validity can be affected by the type of research design, and threats to validity may influence a

researcher's ability to generalize to the entire population (Creswell, 2003). This study was designed to describe the factors that motivate adult men who are members of a specific FBO, to volunteer in that venue. This study did not seek to generalize to the entire population, but did attempt to explore factors that could be compared to a similar population at another FBO with the same characteristics.

Significance of the Study

This research study contributes to the body of knowledge needed to address the problem occurring in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia, such that African American adolescent males have the lowest academic performance, and almost double the high school dropout rate of European American males. This study contributes to the body of knowledge by exploring and determining the motivations of adult men to volunteer. The researcher reviewed the literature on mentoring extensively; however, it was difficult to find any data or studies that specifically focused on mentoring adult men and any studies on what motivates adult men to volunteer.

These findings have implications for research and practice in the field of mentoring. Outcomes from this study helped provide information to organizers of the faith-based mentoring program as they restructured their program and aligned the benefits of their experience to individuals' motivations. This research study promotes positive social change by acquiring knowledge to influence access to the recruitment of male volunteers for ethnic-based programs; specifically an FBO in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. It is crucial to provide adolescent men who have difficult times making the right choices with the tools they might need to transition from adolescence to adulthood.

“Boredom, unchallenging class work, academic struggles, excessive absenteeism, personal issues, behavior problems, financial hardships, disinterested staff—Regardless of the reasons, students are leaving school in alarming numbers” (Southeast Comprehensive Center, 2012, p. 1). “Positive relationships are an important factor for children that are at-risk of disciplinary trouble, academic failure, and dropping out” (Dufresne, Hillman, Carson, & Kramer, 2010, p. 18).

African American men have a lower rate of volunteerism, compared to European American men (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). A news release by the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that during 2013, of the total that volunteered, 18.5% of African Americans and 27.1% of European Americans volunteered. In addition, African American men volunteered at a rate of 16.4% and European American men at a rate of 23.6% (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). This shortfall is the primary reason many children in need of a mentor remain on waiting lists and are not afforded the opportunity to develop a caring, adult-mentoring relationship (Lippmann & Rivers, 2008). In addition, current mentoring research often focuses mainly on outcomes for youth; limited research describes why volunteers choose to become mentors (Foster-Bey, Dietz, & Grimm, 2006).

The goal of this research was to develop a greater understanding of the attributes and traits that differentiate adult men who volunteer and who do not volunteer to answer a need to explore and determine the motivations of adult men in the framework of the six-factor model of volunteerism in a specific FBO. In addition, this study answered a need to determine if there were any differences in volunteer motivation among volunteer and

non-volunteer adult male members in the men's ministry auxiliary of a specific FBO. It is vital to the success of a program that depends on volunteered time and expertise to understand the motivation of people to volunteer (Pauline, 2006).

Transition Statement

In this research study, I examined factors that motivate adult men in a specific faith-based mentoring program to volunteer their services. I also examined the differences in volunteer motivation among volunteer and non-volunteer adult male members in a specific FBO. Using a survey questionnaire, I measured volunteer motivation and intention to continue volunteering in the FBO. Several decades ago, Ogbu and Wilson (1990) expressed a need for African American communities to take on the responsibility of teaching children the cultural awareness needed to direct school behavior by using role models to teach participants through mentoring programs. A little over a decade later, Day-Vines, Patton, and Baytops (2003) suggested that schools partner with members of the African American community, including FBOs, to coordinate mentoring programs, to build character, eliminate peer pressure, and address issues associated with self-esteem of African American males. Marin and Brown (2008) stated that schools must share this burden and seek partnerships with community programs and other organizations. DuBois (2007) articulated a need for policies that recognize the need to develop high-quality mentoring programs that provide caring adults for vulnerable youth.

Similarly, researchers provided evidence-based recommendations for decreasing dropout rates by assigning an adult advocate, and using the advocate to help students with

academic and behavioral goals (Southeast Comprehensive Center, 2012). Georgia was not among the 10 most successful states for graduating African American males; Georgia was not among the list (Schott Foundation, 2008). Georgia had the highest dropout rates of students beginning as early as ninth grade, and of the nation's 50 largest cities, Atlanta ranked 45th for graduating students (Swanson, 2009).

This study sought to address the need for high-quality mentoring programs that can provide caring adults for at-risk adolescents, by seeking insights to motives that influence adult men to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998). Individuals choose to volunteer based on their own motive functions (Clary et al., 1998). Understanding the motives of volunteers and their perceived satisfaction can lead to overall improvement in how organizations recruit and retain volunteers (Chacon, Davila, & Vecina, 2007; Clary et al., 1992; Pauline, 2006). However, this study focused solely on understanding the motives of adult men to volunteer, and their long-term and short-term intentions to volunteer at this venue.

“Mentoring is a form of service that positively impacts a community by creating positive relationships. Mentoring contributes to building collaborative partnerships and increasing abilities and capacity. Mentoring engages young people in their community and builds confidence and abilities that increase the likelihood they will become assets to the community” (Blaber & Glazebrook, 2007, p. 16).

This research study is organized in five sections. Section 1 provided a general overview for this study including the problem, purpose, significance, research methods, and research questions. Section 2 provides a detailed description of the literature

pertinent to this study. In Section 3, the researcher described the investigative procedures of a quantitative, descriptive, cross-sectional study, using survey methods to collect data, and statistical analysis to answer the research questions. Section 4 includes the data analysis and results of the research study and Section 5 provides a discussion and recommendations.

Section 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This literature review focuses on three related areas that are relevant to this study: (a) mentoring as an intervention for young African American males, (b) effective recruitment of African American adult men as mentors, and (c) motivation of African American adult men to volunteer, viewed through the lens of volunteer functionality theory. The researcher distilled information from available research that should be helpful to those who seek to strengthen the recruitment and retention portion of a mentoring program, specifically designed for at-risk young African American males. The peer-reviewed articles gathered for this review were categorized into seven sections: (a) zero-tolerance for violent behavior, (b) at-risk African American adolescent males, (c) racial connection, (d) mentoring intervention, (e) mentoring through faith-based intervention, (f) recruitment and retention of African American male mentors, and (g) volunteer functionality theory. I also discuss literature on volunteer motivation theories.

The literature review contains research on the motivation to volunteer as it relates to volunteer functionality theory and how the understanding of these processes may improve the recruitment and retention of adult men who desire to mentor young, African American males. The literature review section includes an extensive, critical review of research on mentoring programs as an intervention, volunteer functionality theory, at-risk African American adolescent males, and retention of volunteers. The literature review concludes with a discussion of theories of motivation and a review of reasons people volunteer. These areas of motivation to volunteer formed the basis of this study, designed

to fill the gap in research that currently is limited to recruitment strategies for adult men in a faith-based nonprofit organization in an urban southeastern city. This section concludes with a summary explaining how the vast body of research guided this study.

In addition, I searched several databases, including the Walden University Library, EBSCO*host*, ERIC, Google Scholar, Sage database, National Center for Education Statistics, and ProQuest Dissertations Online. During the search, the researcher used combinations of the following keyword strings: African American adolescents, at-risk youth, mentoring, volunteer functions survey, mentor recruitment, mentor retention, motivation, ZTP, suspension, expulsion, graduation rates, dropout rates, school disciplinary action, males, faith-based programs, mentoring relationships, and functional analysis. The researcher also reviewed and analyzed the findings yielded by the databases and grouped the information accordingly.

Zero-Tolerance in Schools

The initial purpose for schools implementing the ZTP was to keep schools free of weapons and knives (Skiba, 2000). Push for the implementation of ZTPs came as a result of stakeholders' perceptions that the school systems were not serious about punishing misbehavior, which appeared to affect the learning process for those who were not misbehaving (Boccanfuso & Kuhfeld, 2011). Boccanfuso & Kuhfeld (2011) argued that the responsibility of school administrators should focus on providing a safe environment for students and decreasing negative behaviors of students in the school. This focus has led to the adoption of ZTPs within the United States Public School system, which requires that school administrators assign appropriate punishment for major and minor

violations (Boccanfuso & Kuhfeld, 2011; Skiba, Eckes, & Brown, 2009). ZTPs, according to Boccanfuso and Kuhfeld (2011), have not been examined to determine their effectiveness; other researchers have also expressed concerns as to how the policy is implemented throughout school districts (Skiba et al., 2009). According to the Advance Project (2010), ZTPs were rushed through approval in an attempt to prevent any more tragic school shootings in public school systems, and was adapted from criminal-justice policies; however, rhetoric appears to have defeated commonsense.

Researchers have examined the impact of school suspension rates on dropout rates for African Americans and European Americans (T. Lee, Cornell, Gregory, & Fan, 2011). In a study performed in the Virginia public high schools with a sample of 289 participants, researchers found that higher dropout rates were influenced by higher suspension rates (Lee et al., 2011). Although higher suspension rates have resulted in higher school dropout rates for European Americans than for African Americans, 60% of the participants were European American and distinguished as possessing a higher aggressive attitude toward gang-related violence at school, bullying, teasing, and threats of violence. Furthermore, results revealed that African American students' dropout percentage rates were low due to a low percentage of African Americans attending schools in this predominately European American school district, and was attributed to low support from teachers. Lee et al (2011) argues that dropout rates for African American students, as noted by the authors could have been diminished if dropout-prevention programs were directly implemented and greater emphasis was given to encourage African Americans from dropping out of school.

Lee et al, concluded that ZTPs implemented for student suspension may have a significant negative effect on student completion of high school; as a result, other approaches should be reviewed to prevent and minimize negative behaviors (T. Lee et al., 2011). Boccanfuso and Kuhfeld (2011) suggested several supportive approaches to combat negative behavior that should include behavior-modification programs for at-risk students. An alternative suggested by Boccanfuso and Kuhfeld in addressing the ZTP, would be implementing a character education program. This strategy would decrease undesirable, negative violent behaviors, and “promote positive youth development and skills that benefit students” throughout their educational pursuit (Lines, 2011, para. 4).

Similarly, Losen and Skiba (2010) developed a report to answer two questions regarding suspension in education: the frequency of suspension being used and the relation of suspension to race/ethnicity and gender. They concluded that a high disparity exists in the use of OSS related to race and gender: a 26.2% difference exists by race and a 10-point difference by gender. The report analyzed suspension rates derived from Civil Rights Data Collection in middle schools in 18 of the largest U.S. urban school districts. The frequency of suspension doubled for African American students since ZTP was implemented and African American students’ suspension rates increased from 6% in 1973 to 15% in 2006. In addition, the data shows that the incidence of African American students being suspended tripled compared to their European American counterparts’ (Losen & Skiba, 2010).

Taylor (1992) investigated the perception of school experiences of 20 African American male dropouts from middle grade. The results indicated that the students chose

to drop out of school because they experienced difficulty in adjusting to the school environment, lacked knowledge regarding the importance of school, possessed negative perceptions of the male principal, and perceived the curriculum lacked exposure to learning about their ancestors' historical contributions. The population studied was selected from specific demographics that included low-income, single-parent home, school behavioral problems, and those retained in earlier grades. The results of the study suggested that participants reported being referred to the principal's office because of behavioral problems that included arguing with teachers, tardiness, fighting, joking, clowning around, being disruptive in class, cursing the principal, and not obeying a teacher. Participants perceived the principal to be unfair and prejudiced (Taylor, 1992).

Other findings by Skiba et al. (2009) purported that suspending and expelling students is ineffective in accomplishing the goal of modifying student behavior or creating positive student behavior. Using a meta-analysis, the researchers evaluated the effectiveness of implementing the ZTP for administering suspension and expulsion of students and found a high degree of inconsistency (Skiba et al., 2009).

Prior to this study, Costenbader and Markson (1997) surveyed 620 middle and high school students in two school districts regarding their perception of school suspension; results indicated that participants believed suspension was inadequate to modify behavior. The most common reasons for being suspended included physical aggression attributed to lack of self-control. Of the students suspended, 32% believed it was unhelpful and they probably would be suspended again, whereas 37% reported that the suspension was not helpful at all (Costenbader & Markson, 1997).

No documentation validates suspension and expulsion as contributing to safer schools, improving positive behavior, increasing academic achievement, decreasing dropout rates, diminishing juvenile delinquency, or creating a positive school environment (American Psychological Association [APA], 2006; APA Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Bear, 2008; Skiba, Ritter, Simmons, Peterson, & Miller, 2006). School discipline is a challenging issue for educators (Suvall, 2009). Although zero-tolerance strategies have been implemented, these methods do not address the underlining problems of behavior, and have compounding negative effects that result in students being isolated from their community. Also, school discipline may alienate students from relationships that support positive behavior (Suvall, 2009).

Using suspension as a mechanism for discipline negatively impacts the graduation rate, and increases the dropout rate for students (T. Lee et al., 2011).

Research repeatedly has demonstrated that suspension, expulsion, and other punitive consequences are not the solution to dangerous and disruptive student behaviors. In fact, evidence indicates that dangerous students do not become less dangerous to others when they are excluded from the appropriate school settings; quite often they become more so, (Canter & Wright, 2011, para. 3)

Education is the avenue that leads many out of poverty, so when students are removed from the learning environment continuously, students cannot be expected to be successful in graduation examinations and end-of-course tests (Advanced Project, 2010; T. Lee et al., 2011). In addition to poor academic performance, removing students from the learning environment communicates a message of rejection, thereby causing students to

feel unwanted in school and affecting their perceptions of support from their educators, their administrators, and their peers (APA, 2010; T. Lee et al., 2011). Low academic performance coupled with dropping out of school leads to youth violence (Bonnell & Zizys, 2005).

Failure in peer relationships and academic subjects increases the risk for violence in adolescents and contributes to problem behavior (Dodge, Greenberg, & Malone, 2008). In addition, at-risk students who have the potential for youth violence have continuous absences and suspensions; participate in physical altercations; experience incarceration before the age of 12; violate laws involving drugs, weapons, and vandalism of school property; contemplate dropping out of school; and participate in gang violence (Dodge et al., 2008).

At-Risk Students for Violent Behavior

Violent behavior is progressive and begins at birth with minor conduct problems (Christle, Nelson, & Jolivet, n.d.). Violent behavior progresses from early childhood through adolescence, and deepens at each stage of development when the opportunity to begin a different tributary toward nonviolent behavior is missed (Dodge et al., 2008). Deviant behavior develops in children due to an adverse environment caused by a neighbor or dysfunctional family. The growth of violent behavior in children results from harsh and inconsistent discipline from parents and poor parental supervision, the failure of schools to create successes for the student through academics and peer relations, and school-based policies that push students to the juvenile-justice system. Long-term conduct problems are due to peer social rejection and academic failure (Dodge et al.,

2008). Dodge et al. (2008) built a model on 10 developmental, sequential domains that operate in concert, leading to aggressive violent behavior when one mechanism in that domain fails or lacks intervention.

Risk factors exist in communities, families, educational systems, social groups, and individuals; these factors have various impacts at different stages during a child's development (Christle et al., n.d.). Similarly, antisocial or violent behavior increases depending on the amount of risk factors youth encounter. Extreme risk factors include (a) deficits in mental processes, (b) early involvement in delinquent behavior, (c) youth lacking positive parental social skills, (d) youth with parents lacking parenting and behavior skills, (e) those considered to be living in family poverty, (f) those with minimal school involvement, (g) those dropping out of school, (h) those having access to guns, and (i) those who are exposed to excess media violence (Christle et al., n.d.; Dodge et al., 2008). The level of risk is a variable that can positively or negatively be influenced by parents' ability to monitor their child's exposure to deviant peers. It is critical that interventions be implemented for deviant behavior identified in younger adolescents showing early signs of negative behavior (Christle et al., n.d.).

Protective factors that mitigate at-risk deviant behavior include the existence of a caring relationship with at least one adult, high expectation for achievement and success by educators and family, and opportunities related to career choices with the opportunity to participate (Christle et al., n.d.). Risk factors can have a diminished impact if students experience higher levels of academic success in school and social relations (Dodge et al., 2008). Furthermore, school failure rates for African American males have the potential to

increase, but could be diminished if more opportunities were in place for those students to succeed (Davis 2006). Davis (2006) described how participants reflected on the poor decisions they chose and the social barriers they encountered, concluding that schools and society need to provide more opportunities and strategies for African American males, giving them a second chance to succeed where they have failed. In addition, providing them the opportunity to take advantage of these favorable circumstances would lead to their future success on an ongoing basis. Davis (2006) focused on how African-American male adolescents transitioned throughout their schooling as a way to understand their experiences.

African American males' academic achievement and school success rate could be increased markedly if they were placed in an environment that was consistent, firm, and fair (Blair, 2009). In the Blair (2009) study, many African American male students were exposed to negative risk factors that resulted in negative school experiences. One of the negative risk factor included the lack of a positive role model for these youth. African American males did not need negative school referrals, or need to be removed from the traditional learning environment on a consistent basis; rather, early intervention strategies could be an alternative to OSS for African American adolescents. If society is to see lasting improvements in at-risk children, it is essential that children have positive, caring adult relationships, have safe and secure neighborhoods in which to reside, have academic curriculums that are effective in preparing students to successfully transition to adulthood, and have a healthy childhood development through adolescence (Blair, 2009).

When parents, schools and communities invest in skill building of children from birth throughout their development, they thereby acquire the greatest return to society (America's Promise Alliance, 2012). Therefore when society as a whole, including FBOs, takes responsibility for creating and developing interventions to counteract aggressive and violent behavior, coupled with antisocial behavior of at-risk youth, society may realize a safer and healthier environment for all citizens (Christle et al., n.d.).

Eamon and Altshuler (2004) examined whether the child, parent, or the environment predicted disruptive school behavior. They included 289 African Americans, 183 Hispanic/Latino, and 335 European American, non-Hispanic youths who ranged between the ages of 10 and 12. Findings indicated that older youths who were categorized as African American males and living in a single-parent maternal home showed signs of disruptive school behavior. Other predicting factors for violent behavior were found in the homes of youth who had limited parental nurturing support, limited parental monitoring, reduced academic and educational expectations, and very limited physical discipline. Other variables that predicted youth violence were students' perceptions of the school, student perceptions of grade promotion, and the extent to which students were associated with misbehaved peers and peer pressure; however, of these variables, the factor most predictive of disruptive school behavior was encounters with deviant peers and peer pressure (Eamon & Altshuler, 2004). Regardless of the challenges and risks associated with working with at-risk youth, youth involved in deviant behavior have benefited from mentoring programs (Blechman & Bopp, 2005).

Consequently, African American adolescent males are at-risk from the lack of accessibility to helpful, sensitive, and reliable, father–son relationships necessary to steer their perilous path from adolescence to adulthood (Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2005). Given the statistical data, which indicates that an overwhelming number of African American adolescent males currently reside in single-parent homes, a projected outlook among many research scholars indicates that more children will not possess the adult support needed to develop self-esteem, increased academic performance, and the ability to interact with others (Herrera, Sipe, & McClanahan, 2000; Jekielek, Moore, & Hair, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2005; Tierney & Grossman, 1995; U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Without a strong, supportive system from parents, teachers, and mentors, African American males face the possibility of academic failure (Rainer, 2009).

Bonnell and Zizys (2005) suggested that a successful intervention to help young people become resilient against violence includes constructing strategies that would foster the development of positive relationships. Other strategies to change inappropriate behavior, improve self-concept, and achieve effective discipline for at-risk students should incorporate establishing positive relationships with mentors (Canter & Wright, 2011).

Racial Connection

Mentors must be quite familiar with the mentee’s culture, tradition, beliefs, and background for a relationship to develop between those of different nationalities (Colon & Sanchez, 2005). Otherwise, failure to be adequately prepared for ethnic differences can have an unexpected negative impact on the mentee–mentor relationship, leading to

confrontational interactions (Rhodes, Reddy, Grossman, & Lee, 2002). When mentors are knowledgeable, and have an understanding of mentees' cultural differences, this mixture could have a positive impact on how well the mentee–mentor relationship develops. Cultural differences influence the overall development of mentoring relationships among minorities (Liang, Tracy, Kauh, Taylor, & Williams, 2006).

Despite limited empirical studies on mentoring programs that have had a positive impact on the academic achievement of adolescent African American males, researchers provided data on how race and identification with academics impact grade-point average and standardized achievement-test scores (Gordon, Iwamoto, Ward, Potts, & Boyd, 2009). When instruction is framed through culturally centered modes that include similar experiences, students develop racial identity that reinforces their identity not only to themselves, but also to their communities. Developing racial identity can positively impact attitudes toward education and academic success (Gordon et al., 2009).

Bandy, Moore, and Moore (2011) reviewed the literature and only found three intervention programs that were not culturally centered or adapted to a specific nationality. In addition, these programs only targeted or measured delinquency outcomes. The evaluation of these programs revealed no positive impact on African American males. The experiences of adolescent African American males may seem similar; however, they differ drastically from those of young men of other racial and ethnic groups (Bandy et al., 2011). Adolescents can benefit from those who have similar experiences such as, those who have learned how to avoid problems and become successful, which makes them better able to relate to those who encounter similar

experiences (Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, 2006). However, researchers recognized a gap in the literature and admonished that more studies in this area are needed to influence policy makers to develop and implement solutions that address the high rates of death, incarceration, and unemployment, and low graduation rates for African American males (Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, 2006).

Gender research revealed that mentors are more effective when interaction occurs through similar genders because of gender focus (National Center for Mental Health Promotion and Youth Violence Prevention, 2010). In addition, men are more apt to be activity-focused and goal-oriented; women are more apt to focus on interpersonal aspects of relationships and emotions and female mentors were comfortable forming trusting relationships with female mentees. Males would benefit from having a positive male model in their lives (National Center for Mental Health Promotion and Youth Violence Prevention, 2010).

Although consideration of gender and race is controversial, matching mentees and mentors by ethnicity can impact the strength of the relationship when the matching process is based on cultural awareness, cultural identity, and mentors with similar experiences (National Center for Mental Health Promotion and Youth Violence Prevention, 2010). Because African American youths experience mentoring differently from other youths, mentoring should be more culturally centered (Keating, Tomishima, Foster, & Alessandri, 2002). In the Keating et al. (2002) study, the program focused on increasing the social skills of at-risk behavioral and emotionally unstable adolescents

through one-on-one mentoring activities and group interactions. Participants showed decreases in home and school behavioral problems.

When given the option to choose a mentor, youth are more likely to procure a mentor from the same racial or ethnic background (Colon & Sanchez, 2005) and of the same gender (Chen, Greenberger, Farruggia, Bush, & Dong, 2003). African American males are overrepresented in virtually every measure of academic failure (Dallmann-Jones, 2002; Martin, Martin, Gibson, & Wilkins, 2007). Education happens not only at school, but throughout many venues, and mentors can be effective in many of these settings (McCluskey, Baker, O'Hagan, & Treffinger, 1998). Appropriate behavior and discipline are vital to academic success and to the emotional, social, and moral development of children (Dufresne et al., 2010). Establishing positive relationships for at-risk children is a protective factor for behavior problems, academic failure, and dropping out. Dufresne et al. (2010) sought to determine how schools in Connecticut were successful in reducing disciplinary problems and suspensions. The results indicated that implementing mentoring interventions to develop positive relationships through peer and adult-adolescent mentoring programs positively contributed to the reduction of disciplinary problems.

Mentoring Intervention

Mentoring interventions strive to address factors involving school dropout, school failure, social withdrawal, and youth delinquency and violence. This intervention allows participants to develop prosocial and developmental skills, and build mentoring relationships with caring adults, which improves participants' behaviors (Lerner, Brittan,

& Fay, 2007). Academic benefits accrue from participating in after-school programs; however, these programs do not draw those in dire need for improvement (Gardner, Roth, & Brooks-Gunn, 2009). Findings on school-based mentoring programs revealed a 35.8% positive impact from mentoring. Other studies reported that 2.5% of school-based programs produce extreme negative mentoring outcomes (Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004).

Researchers evaluated 10 mentoring programs and found that because the programs did not implement a strong one-on-one mentor for the mentee, some mentoring relationships did not have a positive effect on academics, attendance, decisions to withdraw from school, behavior, and workforce development (McPartland & Nettles, 1991; Slicker & Palmer, 1993). Even when mentors were compensated, no positive effect resulted; the outcome was the same (Grossman & Garry, 1997). Flay (2002) suggested that mentoring itself is insufficient to address all the challenges that at-risk youth face.

In contrast, Fo and O'Donnell (1975) determined that students' school attendance improved when behavioral-intervention management techniques were employed. Intervention strategies that improved school attendance incorporated weekly contact by paid mentors, matched to mentees based on race, but from a different socioeconomic background. These mentors worked with youth who had behavior-management challenges. Mentors were required to meet with mentees on a weekly basis, document and submit data related to mentees' behavior on a weekly basis, and attend meetings every other week. Training was provided prior to the implementation of the program, and behavior-management training continued on a biweekly basis. Results revealed the

program had a positive effect in reducing truancy when mentoring relationships included reinforcement for positive behavior through a reward system. However, if mentees perceived no recognition for good behavior, truancy was not impacted.

Another study found that programs that offered protective factors for intervention can be effective. An evaluation study of the Ottawa Ontario Recreation Intervention Program revealed that risk factors related to delinquency and violence diminished when participants were provided time for leisure activities, and time to interact with youth and adults (Jones & Offord, 1989). This type of intervention provided a possible deterrent from delinquency and violence. The program's strategy used a structured approach to improve designated skills among participants that included artistic skills, sports, music, and nonathletic sports. Participant demographics included low-income, aged 5 to 15, and living in public housing. Program participants showed lower arrests than those juveniles not registered in the program. The number of security reports declined for participants. While participants were active in the program the results were positive; however, when the intervention was discontinued, crime in the community increased. These observations led researchers to conclude that some prevention programs require ongoing operation to remain effective. Many youth experienced positive academic achievement as a result of being mentored (Jones & Offord, 1989). Youth, who have these positive experiences, have better attendance, and the potential to attend college, and increase positive behavior and outlook toward school (Jekielek, Moore, Hair, & Scarupa, 2002).

School-based or after-school mentoring programs operate on a daily or weekly basis during nonschool hours, and are housed on school premises (Gardner et al., 2009).

An investigation of 11 school-based mentoring programs found that the positive outcome for participants were short lived (Bloom, 2010). These programs, developed for high school dropouts, sought to provide paid or unpaid job training and education. The cost effectiveness of the program did not match the perceived outcome on a long-term basis. As a result, Bloom (2010) recommended that policymakers evaluate programs on an ongoing basis to determine their effectiveness; and “it is critical to identify and disseminate on how best to reengage the most disconnected young people” (p. 105).

Gardner et al. (2009) examined after-school programs that emphasized youth development activities and academics and found only small increases in academic outcomes. In addition, the after-school programs did not draw participants because students have a negative perception about the program, have other commitments, have no reliable transportation, or have no desire to participate. Other researchers (Randolph & Johnson, 2008) concluded that of the eight mentoring programs they evaluated in a school-based setting, outcomes were questionable and suggested that intensive research methods are needed to validate findings.

Duke and Jacobson (2011) noted strategies that worked to increase student achievement, which is one factor that impacts the high school dropout rate. These researchers emphasized obtaining reliable tracking of information about students’ progress, eliminating teaching strategies, focusing more on content “pacing and alignment,” and assisting struggling students (Duke & Jacobson, 2011, p. 36). School mentoring programs focus on education and increasing student achievement; however, with low funding for many school districts, Ullman (2009) reported schools are seeking

partnerships in the community, given the success of a 3-year-old student-leadership program.

Mentoring Through Faith-Based Programs

Although mentoring has become a popular strategy to help youth stay on track, and numerous studies have reported better outcomes resulting from positive mentoring experiences (DuBois & Karcher, 2005; DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005; Rhodes, 2002), researchers found that religion is significant and holds a special place in the lives of many Americans, and can serve as a protective factor against risky behavior (Wallace, Myers, & Osai, 2004). In addition, faith-based congregations possess a wealth of resources that include (a) trained health professionals, (b) physical space for programs, and (c) a network of caring volunteers. By using these resources, this type of venue possesses independence from constraints from outside interest groups making demands to perform, conform, or adhere to their requirements (Wallace et al., 2004). With limited restrictions, many programs ranging from counseling, drug-free education, parenting workshops, mentoring, academic instruction, and motivational sermons can be administered without strict guidelines from interest groups; thereby, allowing programs that are considered protective factors to be preached (Wallace et al., 2004).

Faith-based mentoring programs are not limited to academics and mainly focus on prosocial behavior. African American communities provide resources and services through church programs. Involvement in faith-based mentoring programs provides services to those released from jails and prisons (Kane, 2009), successful offender reentry (Markway & Worsham, 2009), a plethora of caring adults, and emotional and spiritual

development for youths (Rhodes & Chan, 2008). Faith-based mentoring programs reduce recidivism, deter future criminal behavior, and address disparity for African Americans (Timmons, 2010).

Evaluations of a faith-based community mentoring program for delinquency and drug use revealed a positive impact on participants (Irwin, 2002). Another program for mentoring children of prisoners has been highly rated as effective; however, challenges within these types of programs are found in recruitment, retention, matching, and structure (Jucovy, 2003). A study was performed to determine how FBOs could collaborate with the educational system to address programs for at-risk students and their program strengths and weaknesses (Bauldry & Hartman, 2004). One concern was proselytizing, and its effect, but other issues involved matching, recruiting, and retention (Bauldry & Hartman, 2004). One advantage in establishing a partnership with the FBO was their location and access to quality volunteers.

FBOs can have a positive impact on delinquent behavior (i.e., drug-use, bullying, truancy, disrespect in classroom, and low academic achievement) that contributes to the high school dropout rate of African American males (Barry, Sutherland, & Harris, 2006). Researchers investigated how a faith-based prevention model impacted school-age children in the areas of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs; they found that the prevention model had a positive effect on African American male participants (Barry et al., 2006). Jeynes (2010) used Bible literacy as a faith-based prevention model to determine its effect on participants' behavioral and academic achievement, which proved more favorable on academic outcome than behavioral outcome.

In the National Study of Youth and Religion, researchers (McCorquodale, Shepp, & Sterten, 2004) found that many faith-based congregations and communities throughout the United States were ineffective in engaging and educating youth through current methods. Several studies examined youth in the Seventh-day Adventist (SDA) FBO and found youth to be practicing risky behavior. Findings from a study by Crosby, Freed, and Gabriel (2006), revealed that in a population of 2,240 academy students, over half stated they were experiencing crisis problems; 11% feared losing their temper and hurting someone, 9% had suicidal ideation, 7% were affected by divorce, 4% used drugs, 3% had parents using drugs, 5% had siblings using drugs, and 4% used tobacco. They explicitly stated “these findings help to portray the broad range of problems that SDA youth are experiencing” even though the problem is only affecting a small percentage of the population studied (Crosby et al., 2006, p. 89).

Limited studies exist on SDA youth. However, Brantley (1996) interviewed SDA family life counselors and found that, in the SDA population, the number of single-parent households had increased, along with an increase in parent–child conflict, substance abuse, and lack of male role models in the homes. “Fatherhood is vital for the normal functioning of the home, and the absence of such affects their sons’ future, fathering quality” (Depaiva, 1998, p. 167). Among at-risk SDA youth, only 68% experienced caring and supporting teachers (Gillespie & Gillespie, 2004). Of those in a study, 14-year-old youths abused some substance; 31% smoked, 45% used alcohol, and 24% were involved in excessive drinking (Gillespie & Gillespie, 2004). At-risk behavior can be

changed when a meaningful, caring relationship with a person of significance is available who is “an active mentor” (Handysides & Landless, 2012, para. 6).

Muganda (2010) of the youth ministries department of SDA wrote, “If we want to prepare our youth to face the future, we must move beyond the obvious and come up with programs that are ‘issue’ and ‘need-driven’” (para. 2). Muganda challenged the church to change how programs run and to persuade those who work with youth to adapt their programs to societal needs. Many faith-based programs for children of prisoners have proven to be effective, but the challenges these programs face include recruitment, retention, matching, and structure (Jucovy, 2003).

Recruitment and Retention

Lippman and Rivers (2008) suggested that religious organizations contribute vast amounts of mentoring. This venue should yield an abundant number of men for these types of programs. However, mentoring programs face challenges recruiting male mentors (Bogat & Liang, 2005). Minorities volunteer at lower rates than those of other races, which hinders the ability of the program to provide mentors to those in need (Foster-Bey et al., 2006). Miller (2004) suggested that, when soliciting minority men as mentors, organizations use more strategies such as (a) encouraging mentees to recruit mentors, (b) using stories in recruiting brochures from single moms raising boys, (c) providing incentives for mentors, or (d) offering several community service hours.

Miller (2004) collected data through a survey on African American men’s perceptions of barriers to serving as a mentor, the importance of serving as a mentor, and ideas for promoting mentoring. The study was performed in 2007, $n = 576$, and included

African American men involved in a faith-based mentoring program and community-based mentoring program. Specific questions regarding program development were targeted to mentoring-program directors in these faith-based and community-based mentoring programs. The study provided data and information regarding strategies to engage African American men in developing recruitment strategies and shaping training for these men as mentors. The study explored barriers that prevented individuals from getting involved in mentoring programs such as being cognizant that a barrier to recruiting African American adult men to volunteer as mentors is their perception that they too need to be mentored, and the need to advertise through radios, public announcements, billboards, and signage (Miller, 2004). Bogat and Liang (2005) proposed a need to investigate why low numbers of men volunteer for formal mentoring programs.

Most mentoring programs are challenged to acquire a sufficient number of mentors for their program, retain mentors for at least a year, and gain mentors with the understanding and skills needed to provide youth with guidance and support (National Mentoring Partnership, 2003). Even though research has depicted mentoring programs as capable of positively impacting self-esteem, behavior, school connectedness, academic achievement, substance-use violators, violence, and other risky behaviors, challenges with recruitment and retention cause boys to wait approximately 2 years for a mentor (Kelly-Vance & Thompson, 2001). Best practices must be employed to improve mentor recruitment, training, and retention. Such practices include programs measured by recruitment strategies that include benefits, practices, and challenges in mentoring;, practices that use evidence-based training materials; practices that consider the aims of

mentoring; and practices that assess the characteristics of the mentor and mentee when screening. Keller (2007) provided standards and procedures for mentor training that included orientation, volunteer screening, youth assessment, matches, and supervision.

Motivation to volunteer is helpful to explain differences between volunteers and nonvolunteers and can also be used to understand why volunteers continue serving an organization (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Understanding the motives that cause African American men to mentor can help FBOs set up successful recruiting and training programs for such individuals. Ethnicity and gender also have an effect on individuals who becomes mentors. Data presented by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) revealed that European Americans volunteered at a higher rate than African Americans (see Table 1).

Table 1

Volunteer Activities Performed by Race Characteristics

Race	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008
European Americans	53,778	54,432	53,556	54,078	53,078
African Americans	6,316	5,934	5,580	5,712	5,325
Asian	2,524	2,304	2,207	2,060	2,022
Hispanic/Latino	5,635	5,151	4,982	4,873	4,662

Note. Adapted from *Volunteering in the United States—2011*, by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, retrieved February 29, 2014 from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/volun_02222012.pdf

Volunteering among demographic groups for men and women showed that women volunteer at a higher rate than men across all age groups (see Table 2) and educational levels (see Table 3).

Table 2

Volunteer Activities Performed by Gender Characteristics

Gender	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008
Men	27,238	27,354	26,787	26,655	26,268
Women	37,274	36,898	36,004	36,706	35,535
Total	64,513	64,252	62,790	63,361	61,803

Note. Adapted from *Volunteering in the United States—2011*, by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, retrieved February 29, 2014 from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/volun_02222012.pdf

Although men, especially African American men, generally volunteer at lower rates than women and European Americans, African Americans ultimately select mentoring as one of their volunteer activities (Foster-Bey et al., 2006). In addition, Foster-Bey et al. (2006) examined whether socioeconomic level, gender, race, age, and education, impact whether individual volunteered. The findings provided characteristics that predict which volunteers will become engaged in mentoring. The study provided two general categories of predictors: demographic predictors are age, gender, and race/ethnicity, and education was a socioeconomic predictor. Findings that were age predictors for mentoring revealed (a) those aged 20–24 are most likely to mentor, (b) the desire to mentor declines with age, and (c) the greatest number of volunteers were 45 and older. Gender predictors for mentoring suggested that men and women volunteered at the same rate, but it appeared in this study that there were fewer male mentors because women volunteered at higher rates. Race/ethnicity predictors revealed that African Americans volunteered as mentors at higher rates than European Americans or other racial minorities. Also, Hispanics were less likely to be mentors when volunteering than non-Hispanics. Socioeconomic predictors for mentoring revealed that as volunteers'

education level rises, their chances of mentoring increase and most mentors are full-time employees.

Table 3

Volunteer Activities Performed by Education Attainment Characteristics

Educational attainment	Total male civilian noninstitutional population	Total male volunteers	Percentage
Less than a high school diploma	12,293	2,177	7.8
High school graduate, no college	29,747	10,527	14.8
Some college and associate's degree	25,004	15,832	24.5
Bachelor's degree and higher	31,000	27,202	38.2

Note. Adapted from *Volunteering in the United States—2011*, by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, retrieved February 29, 2014 from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/volun_02222012.pdf

Volunteers gain enormous feelings of satisfaction from participating as mentors (Foster-Bey et al., 2006). Mentoring gives volunteers the opportunity to give their effort to the community while making a difference in the lives of others (Foster-Bey et al., 2006). Those who elect to participate as a mentor are provided the opportunity to acquire additional skills through professional development and training, meet new people, and add variety to their work and life experiences (Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005). The implementation of mentoring programs allows adult volunteers to serve as role models for at-risk youth. High-quality adult–youth relationships are critical to the successful development of adolescents (Lerner et al., 2007). African American males require ongoing academic, personal, social, and career-development support to be successful, which could be implemented through mentoring programs (Wyatt, 2000).

An evaluation of after-school mentoring programs for African American males resulted in increasing participants' academic achievement and decreasing negative

behavior (Martin et al., 2007). All youth could benefit from relationships with caring adults (Baber, 2005). A study provided results reported by teachers and parents that a minimum of 6 months mentoring provided a significant decrease in problematic behaviors (Keating et al., 2002). The results were a result of having a caring, adult mentor in youths' lives (Keating et al., 2002). Although finding appropriate volunteers and retaining them can be challenging, it is crucial that ongoing guidance be offered to ensure that the recruitment and the retention aspect of programs are effective (National Center for Mental Health Promotion and Youth Violence Prevention, 2010). Individuals with lower educational credentials engaged in volunteer activities at lower rates than those with more education. Among persons aged 25 years and older, 42.4% of those who graduated from college volunteered, in comparison to 18.2% of high school graduates and 9.8% of those without a high school diploma. Volunteers with some college performed the greatest amount of unpaid service in noninstitutional organizations, as shown in Table 4 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012).

Table 4

Volunteer Activities Performed by Employment Status Characteristics

Employment status	Total volunteers
Civilian labor force	44,974
Employed full time	32,568
Employed part time	9,515
Unemployed	2,891
Not in the labor force	19,539

Note. Adapted from *Volunteering in the United States—2011*, by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, retrieved February 29, 2014 from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/volun_02222012.pdf

Students' academic achievement was impacted significantly through positive and supportive adult–child relationships from birth through age 23 (Englund, Egeland, & Collins, 2008). Englund et al. (2008) examined adult–child relationship factors to determine if there were differences between those who followed “expected pathways versus unexpected pathways toward high school graduation, or dropped out based on academic achievement and behavioral problems” (p. 77). They concluded that students who expected to graduate had high parental involvement in middle school, more parent–child relationship during adolescence, and a high level of social competence. Supportive efforts to assist teachers in creating and maintaining positive relationships with students is a strategy that would prevent students from dropping out of high school. This should be done through in-service professional development and teacher-education programs that focus on teacher–child relationships (Englund et al., 2008).

Teachers' disposition in classroom discipline and management in the classroom has a greater impact on student achievement than other variables, namely assessments, staff relations, or extracurricular involvement (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering 2003). Students are reluctant to seek relationships with teachers and rarely go for assistance unless volunteers recruit those students (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008). Due to a reduction in teachers, social workers, and layoffs, extra funding for programs in the education system is limited. FBOs need to form partnerships and to provide services (Keller, 2007) to counteract the possibility of young people who lack the skills to make positive choices. When students fail to make positive choices, it will ultimately lead to delinquent activities of gang participation, crime, or drugs (Alleyne & Wood, 2011).

Researchers explored whether having a spiritual mentor had an impact on life experiences of several urban African American males as coping tools or strategies to help them achieve positive adaptive outcomes as responsible citizens (Groff, 2008). Results from the study showed that males from this community did develop positive coping skills from being able to relate to their Christian mentor. Another study examined the influence of a youth-mentoring program in an FBO on the everyday lives of African American youth. The study showed that youth who participated in the program were influenced positively by mentors when strong leadership, relevant curriculum, and meaningful relationships were present. Only two leaders provided mentoring to the youth and formed mentoring relationships with the youth. However, when one of the leaders went on sabbatical leave and was replaced with another leader who had a different mentoring style, many of the youth had difficulty establishing a mentoring relationship with the new leader. Participation among the youth decreased, and some youth left the program because they could not adapt to the style of the new mentor. This decrease was attributed to the absence of their attachment with the previous mentor (Groff, 2008).

The demand for volunteers as mentors in the country has increased because of the rapid expansion of mentoring programs (Karcher, 2005). Mentoring programs that do not succeed in correctly matching mentees with mentors, despite having a plethora of talented minorities for these mentoring programs, may create barriers for mentors, causing them to leave the program angry and frustrated (Thomas-Whitfield, 2010).

Volunteer Retention

Volunteer retention is impacted by how effective organizations manage volunteers (Eisner, Grimm, Maynard, & Washburn, 2009). Managing volunteers effectively includes adequately identifying skills; matching those skills with specific tasks; understanding the dollar value of the skills, assets, and talents the volunteer possesses and how those attributes can benefit the organization; investing in appropriate training and professional development for those who volunteer; and providing staff with sufficient training that will enable them to assist those who volunteer (Eisner et al., 2009). One of three volunteers who volunteer in 1 year discontinued volunteering the next year (Corporation for National & Community Service, 2007). Individuals volunteer at various ages. However, those aged 35 to 54 volunteered in the greatest numbers (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012; see Table 5).

Table 5

Volunteer Activities Performed by Age Characteristics

Age	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008
16 to 24 years	8,776	8,578	8,297	8,290	8,239
25 to 34 years	9,513	9,691	9,140	9,511	9,154
35 to 44 years	12, 527	12,566	12,904	12,835	13,016
45 to 54 years	12,777	13,420	13,435	13,703	13,189
55 to 64 years	10,619	10,449	9,830	9,894	9,456
65 years & older	10,301	9,547	9,184	9,129	8,749
Total	64,513	64,252	62,790	63,361	61,803

Note. Adapted from *Volunteering in the United States—2011*, by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012, retrieved February 29, 2014 from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/volun_02222012.pdf

Key findings from a study on volunteer mentors, concluded that (a) mentorship declines with age, (b) minorities volunteer at lower rates, (c) close to 50% of mentoring takes place through religious organizations, (d) mentors work regularly full-time, (e) volunteers aged 20–24 have a higher percentage of volunteering to mentor youth, (f) married adults have a higher probability of volunteering than unmarried adults, (g) as family income increases so does the rate of volunteers, and (h) mentoring increases as a volunteer's education level rises (Foster-Bey et al., 2006).

Volunteer retention rate decreased because organizations lacked adherence to best-practice strategies to effectively manage volunteers. An examination of declining volunteerism in a sexual-assault and domestic-violence program, through observations, interviews, and tutorial seminars, aimed to understand what motivating forces caused participants to discontinue volunteering (Yanay & Yanay, 2008). Volunteers withdrew from volunteering due to unsatisfactory experiences and due to the lack of training provided for mentors. As a result, they left feeling personally inadequate (Yanay & Yanay, 2008).

Retention of volunteers decreased if volunteers were not provided adequate training, were uninformed about the type or target population they would be assisting, provided an organizational culture with which they felt affiliated, and provided clear goals regarding tasks and expectations for volunteers (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008). A possible solution to increase retention would be to allow volunteers to feel they belong and are part of the organization (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008). Improper matching of talents, lack of a reward system, and lack of familiarity with opportunities for

volunteering affects retention (Husbands, McKechnie, & Gagnon, 2008). Volunteer commitment increases commensurate with meaningful opportunities provided in the organization, and the challenges that are provided by the type of assignments that appeals to the volunteer (National & Community Service, 2007).

Limited research exists about what motivates adult men to volunteer their time and energy to caring for at-risk adolescents males in faith-based mentoring programs. Volunteers can be recruited by understanding their motives (Clary et al., 1998). Understanding the motivating factors of individuals who seek to volunteer can assist in creating future programs that appeal to those wishing to donate their skills, talents, and time (Reges, Cifelli, Doesken, & Turner, 2008).

Why People Volunteer

Most people volunteer for reasons related to issues that affect their community (Kotecha, Morrell, & Lee, 2012). These issues include animal welfare, hunger, homelessness, the environment, and the economy. In addition, volunteering provides participants the opportunity to make a difference in others' lives and help with community issues they care about most. Kotecha et al., (2012) sought to determine the impact church attendance and religion had on the decision to volunteer. Findings suggested that religion and volunteering were correlated. When people attend religious settings frequently, their volunteer habits will be influenced significantly. The more a person attends church, the more they are likely to volunteer (Kotecha et al., 2012).

Students volunteer because they are required to complete some form of community service before they receive their diploma (Kirby, Kawashima-Ginsberg, &

Godsay, 2011). In addition, in some states, high schools count community service as credit toward graduation (Kirby et al., 2011). Young people consider volunteering to be a casual affair. In 2011, 18% of youth volunteers did not participate in any school clubs or organizations (Kotecha et al., 2012). In addition, movie and mall goers were more likely to volunteer compared to those who do not go to theaters or shop. In addition, 22% of people are more likely to volunteer if they watch up to three movies a month. Furthermore, 26% of volunteers are people who go to the mall up to three times a month (Kotecha et al., 2012).

Individuals volunteer for different reasons. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012) reported that sex, age, race, education attainment, and employment status each account for about 40% of volunteers who were approached to volunteer by organizations (U.S. Department of Labor, 2014). Groups responsible for asking people to volunteer included employers or bosses (2% of this group), relatives, friends, or coworkers (16%), schools or organizations (23%), and those who decided to volunteer for other reasons (2%) (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012).

Planalp and Trost (2009) performed a study to find the initial reason hospice volunteers volunteered. Of 351 volunteers from three states, volunteers heard about the opportunities through hospice, healthcare contacts, personal contacts, print and electronics sources, and other organizations. Participants began volunteering because they wanted to be of service and had experienced other relatives as patients in hospice. Brown et al. (2011) interviewed 40 older persons who volunteered at Habitat for

Humanity to determine their reason for volunteering. They found that people volunteered to help out physically and financially.

Dolnicar and Randle (2007) performed a study to determine the demographic profile of volunteers. They found: (a) people aged 45 years or older enjoy helping others and are more likely to be retired or work part-time, (b) people who are dedicated to volunteering are those volunteers who possess more than an adequate amount of time and expertise. These volunteers usually volunteer on a regular basis, (c) parents who volunteer for their child's school activities are considered short-term volunteers, (d) people volunteer because they are friends with fellow volunteers, (e) people want to gain knowledge and experience, and (f) people who gained personal satisfaction from volunteering for one or more of the reasons listed above.

Atkintola (2011) examined what motivated people to volunteer as home-based caregivers, using functionality theory to understand volunteer's motivations. Interview participants were 57 caregivers volunteering to help people with HIV/AIDS. The study was conducted in six semirural South African areas to explore motivation to volunteer. The majority of the volunteers reported having more than one motive for volunteering, which is consistent with functional theory. Of the 11 categories of motivation, altruistic concerns for others and community, avoiding idleness, and career benefits were the most frequent motivations. Volunteers viewed volunteering as an opportunity to put their caring skills to good use and develop them further. Some volunteers were motivated by religious considerations, community recognition, or social reasons. Atkintola concluded that care organizations lacked a good understanding of volunteer motives and that there

was a mismatch between organizational goals and volunteer motivations. In addition, volunteers' most pressing motives were not satisfied, due to a lack of funding, which resulted in discontentment among volunteers (Atkintola, 2011).

Extant research is inadequate to understand the reasons adult men volunteer, Warburton and Stirling (2007) noted that individuals from diverse backgrounds may volunteer, but not as a formal recognized volunteer. Knowing the caliber and type of volunteers is helpful in retaining volunteers (Souza & Dhimi, 2008). Happiness with the volunteer's project and position impacts volunteer's retention in the program (Souza & Dhimi, 2008). Stakeholders need to understand what motivates African American men to volunteer as mentors in a faith-based mentoring program for at-risk adolescents. Therefore, this study draws on functional theorizing to understand the motivation to volunteer (Clary et al. 1992, 1998; Snyder 1993).

Theories of Motivation

Theories of motivation are categorized as content theories, cognitive theories, and volunteer motives. First, content theories suggest that motivation derives from the forces in an individual that drives, motivates, directs, or energizes behavior. Content theories are grouped as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's (1972) existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory, motivator-hygiene theory, and McClelland's (1962) learned-needs theory. Second, cognitive theories suggest that motivation is a conscious decision-making process. Major cognitive theories are goal-setting theory, expectancy theory, equity theory, reinforcement theory, and social-learning theory. The researcher present a brief discussion of theories on the psychology of volunteerism. Finally, functional-volunteer

theory, a multifactor theory, will be discussed to understand volunteer motivation, as this theory drove the present study.

Content Theories

Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1954) developed a hierarchy of needs. This theory is based on a hierarchy, such that an individual's lower level needs must be satisfied before upper level needs are met. The hierarchy consists of physiology needs, security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. The lower level begins with physiology needs, including basic needs for survival, such as food and water. The next level in the hierarchy is security needs, which include physical safety, stability, and freedom from emotional distress. Once the physiology and security needs are satisfied, people experience a need to satisfy the desire to have friends, love, and acceptance in their community, known as the belongingness need. The next need to be satisfied is the esteem need, which is associated with acquiring respect from others and self-respect. The final need in the Maslow hierarchy is self-actualization, related to achieving the best one can achieve. Unsatisfied needs motivate behavior (Maslow, 1954).

Humanistic psychologists focus on what is right with a person rather than merely what is wrong; on psychological health rather than merely disorders. Transpersonal psychologists have interest in exploring extreme wellness or well-being. Transpersonal psychologists acknowledge and use religious traditions, insights, and methods in the human-potential and consciousness-expanding movements. Maslow (1968) articulated concepts like self-actualization (the development of one's capacities) for humanistic psychology and expanded this construct with a transpersonal approach that includes self-

transcendence (indicated by a full spiritual awakening and freedom from egocentricity) and the concept of peak experiences. Maslow posited a hierarchy of human needs that range from “deficiency needs” (i.e., the need for safety, nourishment, a sense of belonging, self-esteem, etc.) and being-needs (i.e., the need to engage in meaningful and productive activities and to perform service for others, as well as finding creative expression and spiritual fulfillment).

Alderfer’s erg theory. Alderfer’s (1972) ERG theory extends from Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs. ERG theory categorizes Maslow’s five needs into three groups: existence, relatedness, and growth. Existence is associated with Maslow’s physiological and security needs. Relatedness is comparative to Maslow’s belongingness and esteem needs. Growth is associated with Maslow’s esteem and self-actualization needs. ERG theory differs in that lower level needs do not need to be satisfied before upper level needs become motivational. In this theory, when needs of individuals are constantly unmet in the upper level group, the lower level becomes the major determinant of motivation (Alderfer, 1972).

Motivator-hygiene theory. Motivator-hygiene theory was developed by Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1959) and is closely related to Maslow’s hierarchy needs but focuses more on how individuals are motivated in the workplace. Motivation is not derived from meeting needs on the lower level. The determinants of motivation exist only if higher level needs are met (Herzberg et al., 1959).

McClelland’s learned-needs theory. McClelland’s (1962) learned-needs theory focuses on individuals being motivated from the need for the power to influence others or

one's environment; the need for affiliation, to have social relationships with others; and the need for achievement and responsibility, to set goals that are challenging, and to get feedback regarding performance. Only one of these needs must become stronger than the others in an individual to motivate behavior, which leads to satisfaction (McClelland, 1962).

Cognitive Theories

Goal-setting theory. Locke (1991) and Locke and Latham (2002) were the primary developers of this theory. Two factors are relevant to goal-setting theory: goal commitment and self-efficacy. Goal commitment suggests an individual's determination to achieve a particular goal is the motivating factor that drives them toward accomplishing difficult but not impossible goals. In contrast, self-efficacy is the belief that one can achieve specific and challenging goals; the higher the degree of self-efficacy, the greater the motivation toward the goal (Locke and Latham, 2002).

Expectancy theory. Vroom (1964) suggested that behavior is influenced by the belief that the outcome will be to one's advantage or expectation. This theory focuses on what motivates work behavior. Work behavior or effort is driven by the successful performance an individual anticipates they will receive. The effort or motivation to work depends on what level of performance (expectancy) will result in the expected outcome (instrumentality), and whether these outcomes are worth (valence) the effort. All three—expectancy, instrumentality, and valence—must be present for an individual to be highly motivated to perform (Vroom, 1964).

Equity theory. Motivation is activated when an individual perceives fairness in equity of rewards and efforts. This theory suggests that individuals measure their efforts and rewards in comparison to others in similar situations. This type of comparison is called social comparison. Adams's (1963) theory (i.e., equity theory) is used largely for management in the work environment to motivate employees through the use of a reward system (Adams, 1963).

Reinforcement theory. Reinforcement theory suggests that motivated behavior is influenced by rewarding desired behavior and punishing unwanted behavior. This theory is not only considered a motivational theory, but also a learning theory. The focus is solely on the consequences of behavior, and not cognitive processes. When unwanted behavior is ignored, negative behavior is continued and repeated (Skinner, 1953).

Social-exchange theory. According to social-exchange theory, relationships are reciprocal and require balance (Rolloff, 1981). Social-exchange theory is useful in understanding how individuals feel about relationships with other people, dependent on perceptions of the balance. According to this theory, in deciding what balance exists, humans develop comparisons between give and take. Even in one relationship, exchanges may be different but must be balanced. One could also compare a particular relationship to other relationships. Such comparisons can be misleading. Sometimes, people stay in an unbalanced relationship because they do not believe they can find a more balanced relationship with another person (West & Turner, 2000). Therefore, social-exchange theory helps people understand why they enter into or stay in certain relationships (Rolloff, 1981).

Functional-volunteer theory. Psychologists Clary and Snyder (1999) made significant strides toward deeper research in volunteerism. These psychologists used fundamental theories of volunteering to examine volunteering. Clary and Snyder recommended looking at motivation when querying why individuals volunteer. Viewing motivation through the lens of understanding, one may be able to understand why individuals begin volunteering. Clary and Snyder selected functional theory to answer motivational questions, asking people's motives for volunteering. This theory can improve understanding of the psychology of volunteerism. Individuals may take part in the same volunteer tasks to satisfy different motives. Functional-volunteer theory also helps identify personal and social motives for why individuals choose to volunteer.

In contrast, a theory known in social psychology is symbolic interactionism, purporting that individuals act toward things based on the meanings they link to those things (Blumer, 1986). In addition, if volunteer work is linked to an individual's psychology motives, that determines whether the individual will or will not volunteer. However, society attempts to identify and ascribe value to which volunteering activity is important to community welfare; these ascriptions are difficult when applying functional-volunteer theory. For example, some schools have made it essential to perform volunteer work to graduate because the schools believe that by participating in volunteerism, individuals can integrate prosocial values (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996). When people perform volunteer work because it is required, they are not likely to do it again (Clary et al., 1998). The main concept of functionalist theorizing

is that individuals perform the same action, but receive different levels of satisfaction or serve different functions.

Researchers classified volunteer motivation in three models: a one-dimensional model, a two or three factor model, or a multifactor model (Okun & Barr, 1998). Okun and Barr's study considered these three models of motivation on older volunteers, finding only support for the multifactor model of motivation, including more than three motives for volunteering.

Functional-volunteer theory (Clary et al., 1998) links an individual's reasons for doing something with their subsequent behaviors. Mentoring programs that seek to use effective practices in recruiting strategies could use this theory and the VFI to frame recruiting messages and retention strategies. Allison, Okun, and Dutridge (2002) performed a study to compare the motives of volunteers (in career, esteem, protective, social, understanding, and value), assessed by an open-ended probe and the VFI. After administering the VFI to a sample of 128 volunteers from a nonprofit organization in Arizona, Allison et al. replicated the results of Clary et al. (1998). To determine the most common volunteering motives, the researchers used the VFI with 129 volunteers. Participants answered three research questions relating to the most common motives for volunteering. Researchers sought correlations between scores on the VFI and the open-ended probe scores to determine which method of assessment of volunteering is best. The authors concluded that value motives were most common, followed by esteem and understanding. Career and social motives were least common. The largest discrepancies between the two methods of data collection were for esteem and understanding motives,

with understanding ranked second among the VFI scales and fourth among the open-ended probe, and esteem ranked first among the open-ended probe and third on the VFI.

Mentoring programs are challenged to find sufficient numbers of committed, skilled mentors. Because some programs work to recruit a quantity of individuals rather than seeking quality volunteers, mentors with unfilled expectations leave because the volunteering activity does not provide them satisfaction. Therefore, most programs seek to implement an approach called targeted recruitment (Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005). This approach aims to locate persons who find the experience rewarding by identifying a specific target audience when designing recruitment brochures (2005). The author discussed how the target audience could include current volunteers, college students, entrepreneurs, and retirees (2005). In addition, the writers of Mentoring Partnership recommended identifying age range, income level, educational background, employment positions, hobbies and interests, and other community involvement when targeting specific characteristic of this group.

The functional-volunteer-theory concept is an effective practice for this approach of targeted recruitment. By examining internal motivations that have caused volunteers to take action, links are provided to people's beliefs and subsequent behaviors. The VFI survey can be administered to determine motivations for volunteering in the six main categories of values, career, understanding, enhancement, protective, and social (Clary et al., 1998). The six functions have been well established in research, and these motivations functions are present across gender, class, and race, although slight differences exist among specific demographic groups (Clary et al., 1996).

Clary et al.'s (1998) study promoted volunteer motivation as the basis for functional analysis (Clary & Snyder, 1999) and was developed by functional theorists (e.g., Katz, 1960). According to these authors, the same beliefs, attitudes, and actions could be useful in satisfying a variety of different psychological factors.

Volunteer-Functions Inventory

Clary and Snyder (1999) developed the VFI. The VFI has six motivational functions that are addressed by volunteering.

1. The values function. This function helps individuals express unselfishness, generosity values, and compassionate feelings.
2. The understanding function. This function in volunteering indicates helping others receive the opportunity to learn new skills, knowledge, and about the world in general.
3. The enhancement function. This function is about people who presently experience a positive mental state but are volunteering to enhance their positive mood.
4. The career function. This function can enhance the knowledge of individuals in their careers as individuals volunteer in a similar field.
5. The social function. This function reflects individuals' motivations that relate to their social lives.
6. The protective function. This function states that people are motivated to ensure their self-esteem levels are protected. This function also helps eliminate negative attitudes.

Volunteering may also help people temporarily escape their personal problems from time to time.

Clary et al. (1998) conducted two series of studies. The first study demonstrated the reliability and validity of the VFI. The function of volunteerism is what individuals do to connect volunteer work and their lives to their field of volunteering. In the first study, researchers asked active volunteers about the VFI. This research supported the functional approach of why people volunteer and the reliability and validity of the VFI. The second set of the studies tested hypotheses related to volunteers' satisfaction and commitment. Volunteers whose motives were satisfied remained to do volunteer work in the short-term and long-term and were more likely to be more committed. The VFI is a survey that has been proven to be accurate in predicting the type of volunteer work people will perform, determining the reasons they choose to volunteer, the likelihood they will remain with the program, and how well they value their experience (Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan, 2005).

Section Summary

The literature review revealed the challenges at-risk African American males face with high suspension and low graduation rates, and the lowest academic achievement of any ethnic or racial group in the United States (Lewis et al., 2010; Vanneman, Hamilton, Anderson, & Rahman, 2009). The literature also showed how important it is for at-risk African American adolescents to have a caring relationship with a positive adult. Positive relationships are developed through effective mentoring programs, which have been proven to impact student achievement and promote positive behavior. However,

researchers indicated that mentoring programs face the challenge of recruitment and retention of mentors, especially African American male mentors. Researchers indicated that FBOs have resources of potential adult men who could serve as mentors for those at-risk males lacking a father figure in their life (McAdoo & Crawford, 1990). Researchers collected data specifically regarding the challenges of recruiting and retaining minority mentors (Harnsberry, 2005), but those were specific to colleges, businesses, medical, and other venues and did not pertain to religious or faith-based settings.

Having a positive youth–adult relationship is associated with high academic achievement for at-risk students (Englund et al., 2008). Volunteers are an important resource for many nonprofit organizations (Papadakis, Griffin, & Frater, 2004) that create programs to address needs in their communities. Handysides and Landless (2012) identified a need for adult men to help adolescent boys transition to manhood, especially those who lack a caring adult relationship.

The present study was designed to identify key factors that could motivate adult men to volunteer in a specific FBO for a mentoring program geared toward at-risk adolescent males. In addition, this study sought to determine if there existed any differences between what motivated volunteers and nonvolunteers to participate in a mentoring program for at-risk youth in a faith-based program. The results could be used to develop recruitment strategies for those community programs designed for at-risk youth.

Section 3: Methodology

Introduction

This study was designed to examine what factors motivate adult males to volunteer and continue to volunteer for an extended period of time. This study will help outreach ministry leaders meet the needs of adult male volunteers by understanding what motivates them to participate in a faith-based program, and to assist the mentoring program to recruit and retain committed volunteers for a program designed to mentor at-risk adolescent males.

The review of the literature depicted certain aspects of the problem at-risk African American men face, due to lacking culturally centered mentors. This problem is illuminated in a specific Faith Based Organizations located in the southwest metropolitan area of Atlanta, Georgia, where too few adult males participate in volunteerism (T. Gray, personal communication, November 15, 2012). Prior to the present study, no studies related the factors that motivate adult men to volunteer in an FBO program designed for at-risk adolescents males. In this section, the researcher described the quantitative method of study. This section includes a discussion of the research design, population and sample, sampling method, survey instrument, validity and reliability, data-collection procedures, and data analysis.

Research Design and Approach

This study used a nonexperimental cross-sectional descriptive approach that sought to understand what motivational factors would influence adult males to volunteer in an FBO, and their long-term intentions to volunteer. I used a survey to examine the

motivational factors and long-term intentions of adult males in an FBO. Mills (2003) suggested that the survey methodology was an effective method to ascertain insightful information on an educational topic. A cross-sectional survey design allows participants to complete the survey once (Fink, 2006). In addition, with this approach, researchers have the simplicity of being able to monitor those who participate (Fink, 2006).

A survey design allows rapid responses for participants and analysis for the researcher (Creswell, 2003). Researchers suggested advantages to using surveys include the cost-effectiveness of using a self-reported survey, and standardization, where similar data is gathered and analyzed in a limited amount of time (Creswell, 2003). A survey design allows quantitative data to be expressed in numeric descriptions of trends, attitudes, or perceptions of a population (Creswell, 2003). Survey designs allow researchers to collect data for comparisons, explanations, or descriptions of participants' attitudes, feelings, and thoughts on many topics (Fink, 2006). The researcher used a survey methodology for the current study because it was appropriate for the study goals and because of the economy of the design.

The researcher created the survey to identify the factors that motivate adult males to volunteer. To separate volunteers from nonvolunteers, the survey instructions asked, Are you an active member in the men's ministry auxiliary? If you have participated in the men's ministry auxiliary before and are currently active, please indicate that you are a volunteer by selecting yes. If you have not been a volunteer before in the men's ministry auxiliary, please indicate you are a non-volunteer by selecting no.

The researcher used the survey design because the survey approach to research provides a quantitative or mathematical numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions by studying a specific population. Surveys allow for flexibility of analysis because the design allows the researcher to survey numerous questions on a specific topic. The survey methodology was the best approach for this study because the researcher sought to examine a phenomenon based on self-reported beliefs or behaviors (Neuman, 2006). Another reason for selecting the survey design was because quantitative numeric data can be used to summarize the attitudes and opinions of a group, which was consistent with the goals of this study (Creswell, 2003). A quantitative study was appropriate for the present study because this study sought to obtain data on a large scale (Creswell, 2003). The researcher chose a quantitative, nonexperimental descriptive survey-research design that focused on factors that motivate adult men to volunteer in a specific FBO program.

The researcher chose this method rather than a qualitative approach for several reasons: (a) given the size of the population, time was a consideration, (b) the survey approach is used in quantitative studies, whereas interviews and focus groups are not, and (c) the limited time needed to complete a survey compared to the time it takes to conduct interviews would encourage more participation (Creswell, 1994). The researcher chose the cross-sectional quantitative-survey approach because it is appropriate for collecting data about attitudes, beliefs, or perceptions (Creswell, 2003). Descriptive research focuses on describing a phenomenon, involves variables that are not manipulated, has no control groups and no random assignment (Sousa, Driessnack, & Mendes, 2007).

However, Trochim (2006) viewed nonexperimental research as the weakest approach when considering internal validity or causal assessment.

Qualitative research designs are appropriate for in-depth exploration, which is more beneficial as a form of data collection with focus groups and one-on-one in-depth interviews (Creswell, 2003). A qualitative design focuses on discovering the reasons for intervention outcome (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). Focus groups are not completely representative of the total population being studied. Qualitative data collection does not support collection from a large sample. The researcher did not use a phenomenological study because no defined phenomenon is involved. The researcher rejected the ethnographic design because the variables were not restricted to a particular society, nor is it an empirical study, using observations or testing the impact of a treatment or outcome (Creswell, 2003).

In summary, for this study the researcher used a convenience sampling, administering a survey to compare which factors motivate African American males to volunteer. The survey questions provided the opportunity to acquire insights into adult males' perspectives to address the challenges FBOs have when seeking to recruit this population to volunteer. This type of research design allows participants to respond to a Likert-type scale along a continuum (Borg & Gall, 1989). In addition, the survey approach allows the collection of primary data (Punch, 2005) to compare various perspectives in a quantitative study, and allows the benefits that quantitative research offers in measuring descriptive aspects in a study (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2003).

The study is framed based on Clary et al. (1998) and Clary et al. (1992) identification of a set of six primary functions or motivations that were served through volunteering. The motivations for volunteering functions follow:

1. The value function relates to expressing values through action.
2. The understanding function relates to increasing understanding of the world or oneself.
3. The enhancement function relates to the desire to grow psychologically.
4. The career function relates to furthering one's career.
5. The social function relates to strengthening social relationships.
6. The protective function relates to reducing negative feelings such as guilt.

In addition, the survey collected data to determine African American men's intention to volunteer in the future with this organization. Clary and Snyder (1999) found six motives for volunteering that I analyzed based on age, income, marital status, employment status, and education (see Appendix A). Variables were explored in this study among volunteers and nonvolunteers holding membership in the organization.

The researcher chose a quantitative model because it allows the collection of numerical data. Creswell (1994) suggested using a quantitative-research design and approach when attempting to explain phenomena by collecting numerical data to be analyzed using mathematically based methods. Different types of quantitative research are (a) correlation research, (b) experimental research, (c) causal-comparative research, and (d) survey research (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2006).

Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) explained that (a) a correlation study involves studying relationships among variables in a single group, seeking to identify possible cause and effect; (b) an experimental study tends to manipulate conditions and observes effects; (c) a causal-comparative study seeks to compare groups with different experiences to understand causes or consequences; and (d) survey research involves descriptive or inferential study to describe characteristics of a group through questionnaires, tests, or interviews. Because in this study the researcher sought to describe a phenomenon that exists in a specific group in an FBO, the researcher selected the survey-research approach and found it to be most suitable for data collection in this study.

A quantitative study can be descriptive or inferential. Consistent with Sukamolson (n.d.), a descriptive approach seeks to answer questions that (a) quantify results, (b) conduct participant segmentation, (c) study numerical changes, or (d) quantify answers. Using an inferential approach, researchers seek to explain rather than describe a phenomenon (Sukamolson, n.d.). This study sought to describe factors that exist in a group at a given point in time therefore the researcher selected a quantitative, descriptive, cross-sectional study. The researcher collected data using the VFI and entered the results into SPSS for statistical analysis.

Target Population and Selection of Participants

The target population for this research was the adult men attending a specific FBO. The organization is located in a metropolitan city in the southern United States. At the time of study, the organization had a total of 3,000 members; however, not all were

active participants in community programs or supportive title contributors. Organization members had a mixture of educational degrees beyond high school. I selected participants who were adult male members of the FBO who had reached 21 years of age. The population for the study consisted of men who attended the FBO. The organization considers all men baptized in the FBO to be potential candidates for recruitment to the men's ministry auxiliary. At the time of this study, 500 adult males were members who could be surveyed to ascertain what factors would motivate them to participate in the men's ministry auxiliary program designated to mentor at-risk youth. The group consisted of volunteers and nonvolunteers members.

This Faith Based Organization was selected for two reasons: (a) the researcher has an established relationship with this organization, and acquiring access to and the trust of participants was not an obstacle, and (b) the organization was experiencing recruitment challenges and retention problems in a community program established to address the needs of at-risk adolescents. This situation provided a unique opportunity to gain insights into what factors would motivate adult men to volunteer.

With current budgets and programs established to address the needs of the community, there was a need to have committed volunteers from this organization so programs could be successful. The researcher was a current member of the organization and was familiar with single parents' unmet desire to have a positive adult male mentor for their at-risk males in this organization.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

According to Creswell (2003), an appropriate sample size for this study may be determined by the use of “power analysis” (p. 166). For this study, the researcher used published tables to determine sample size (Israel, 2009). A confidence level of 95% and $p = .05$ for a population of 500 at $\pm 5\%$ would be 222 (Israel, 2009). In quantitative studies, the larger the sample size, the better the results (Creswell, 2003). The researcher used a convenience nonprobability sample type to select participants for the study (Creswell, 2003; Fink, 2006). Nonprobability sampling is used when researchers choose participants based on their availability and willingness to participate (Fink, 2006). Researchers use nonprobability sampling when they are interested in determining an approximation of the truth, at the least cost, and in the time required (Trochim, 2006). The researcher desired to use a convenience sample because I used members of an already-formed group session of participants in the study (Creswell, 2003). Convenience sampling is a sampling technique that does not involve a random sample from the population. The sample for the study consisted of baptized male members of the men’s ministry in the FBO.

A convenience sample was justifiable to prevent sampling bias, to ensure the ability to obtain a true account of adult male members in this organization or those men who attend on a continuous basis, for lack of a concrete list of the population in which the researcher was interested, and to preserve confidentiality or privacy. The sample was derived from a group of adult men attending a monthly meeting at the FBO.

Instrumentation and Materials

The VFI instrument is an appropriate tool to assess issues with recruitment (Garringer, 2004). Clary and Snyder (1999) developed functional theory to depict the various types of motivational factors that projects and explains motivation to volunteer. Clary et al. (1992) developed the VFI to assess six functions for volunteering: values, understanding, career, social, esteem, and protective. According to researchers, the functional-theory approach to understanding motivation to volunteer is the most prominent theory for understanding intent to volunteer (Davila & Diaz-Morales, 2009; Greenslade & White, 2005).

The VFI survey can be used to identify what motivates individuals to volunteer. Since its development, subsequent research validated the accuracy of the survey in predicting the level of satisfaction volunteers receive from volunteerism and their preference for type of volunteering (Clary et al., 1996). The VFI tool has been established as a dynamic tool in ascertaining why individuals volunteer, their level of satisfaction, and their intent to continue.

Clary et al. (1996) found that the six motivating factors suggested on the VFI instrument exist and are not limited to one particular individual; they exist across gender, class, and race. Studies have ranked the motivational factors in order of values, enhancement, and social, followed by understanding, protective, and career. In addition, researchers acknowledged that an observation of the value function appears to predict motivation to volunteer, but the actual volunteer activity selected is driven from the other

functions on the VFI: career, understanding, social, enhancement, and protective (Clary et al., 1996).

For the current study, the researcher used the VFI survey tool after obtaining permission for its use from one of the authors, Snyder of the University of Minnesota (see Appendix B). The VFI is a 7-item Likert-type scale instrument comprised of 30 questions that assess the six different motives to volunteer. Scaled scores range from not at all important (1) to extremely important (7). Each scale was treated as an interval scale and the researcher calculated mean scores for participants. In addition, the researcher asked one scaled question about participants' intentions to volunteer in the organization. Demographic data collected through the survey included age, marital status, employment status, and educational level.

Clary et al. (1998) conducted six studies to develop the VFI and establish its validity and reliability. They completed factor analyses to identify and confirm the six independent factors comprising the VFI. They assessed internal consistency by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each factor on the VFI scales: social, .83; enhancement, .84; values, .80; career, .89; understanding, .81; and protective, .81 (Clary, et al., 1998). Validity indicates that the survey measures what it purports to measure (Creswell, 2003). The survey instrument was validated for content validity by employing the test-retest method and measures of internal consistency. Test-retest reliability was obtained with alphas significant at the .001 level. The VFI has been tested for internal consistency in several studies, where its internal validity was determined to be $\geq .80$ (Clary et al., 1992, 1998; Dunlap, 2002; Schrock, 1998). The VFI has an established

reliability of .82 to .85 (Allison et al., 2002; Clary et al., 1998; Schrock, Meyer, Ascher, & Snyder, 2000). It has been used in numerous studies (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998, 1996; Greenslade, & White, 2005; Omoto, & Snyder, 1995; Skoglund, 2006; Taniguchi, 2006).

Completed responses on the VFI are located in a password protected Excel with accessible only to the dissertation committee chairperson and me. No one besides the research team and me has access to the completed surveys. The hardcopy completed questionnaires are filed and kept in a locked cabinet located in my home office. A detailed description of data that comprise each variable is presented in Tables 6 and 7, which summarize the scales of measurement. Operationalization for each variable is described in Table 7.

Table 6

Variable Scale Showing Summary of Scales Measurement

Variable	Scale		Where generated
	Nominal	Interval	
Age	No	Yes	Survey
Income	No	Yes	Survey
Marital status	Yes	No	Survey
Employment status	Yes	No	Survey
Education level	Yes	No	Survey
Nonvolunteer	Yes	No	survey
Volunteer	Yes	No	Survey
Six constructs	No	Yes	VFI

Data Collection and Analysis

The researcher distributed the survey during a men's conference, along with an envelope and a consent form explaining the research project (see Appendix C). The researcher asked participants if they were interested in participating and offered the choice of not completing the survey. There were no penalties or repercussions for not participating. The researcher anticipated a response rate of 50% or higher; the actual response rate was 62.8%. The researcher anticipated that because the questionnaires were targeted to a specific group, the response rates would be higher and there would be fewer recipients for whom the survey would not be appropriate. However, the researcher considered that if the response rate was too low, additional surveys will be handed out at the next regular, weekly meeting to those who were absent. If it was necessary to distribute additional surveys at the meetings subsequent to the first regular weekly meeting, the researcher would have reminded participants not to complete a second survey if they had already completed one survey. There were no follow-up requirements. However, the researcher would notify participants of the results if they requested to do so.

Table 7

Variables, Research Questions, and Items on the Survey

Variable name	Research question	Scoring on survey
Independent variable 1: Volunteers and nonvolunteers	<i>Descriptive Research Question 1:</i> What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members in a specific faith-based organization?	See Questions A–E on the survey.
Dependent variable Dependent variable 1: six motivational factors	<i>Descriptive Research Question 2:</i> Are there any differences in motivation between volunteer and nonvolunteer adult male members in a specific faith-based organization?	Questions: 1–30: VFI Career, 1,10,15, 21, 28 VFI Social, 2, 4, 6, 17, 23 VFI Values, 3, 8, 16, 19, 22 VFI Understanding, 12, 14, 18, 25, 30 VFI Enhancement,5, 13, 26, 27, 29 VFI Protection- 7, 9, 11, 20, 24
Dependent variable 1: long-term intentions	<i>Descriptive Research Question 3:</i> What is the long-term intention verses short-term intentions of adult male volunteers in a specific faith-based organization?	Question: 48.

Note. VFI = Volunteer Functional Inventory.

The researcher distributed the survey to all adult men attending the male's ministry program. The researcher invited all men present to participate without excluding any participants by race. The researcher provided instructions to return completed surveys to the designated ministry mailbox located in the pastoral conference room. The researcher gave complete instructions during the monthly meeting at the facility (see Appendix C). Confidentiality was maintained throughout the data-collection process. To alleviate any form of coercion, the researcher told participants the purpose and significance of the study.

The researcher was introduced by the coordinator. The researcher read the consent form and showed participants where the concealed box was located. The survey

instrument included disclosures for consent. However, the researcher used implied consent, and participants did not need to sign the letter of consent. Instead, their completion of the survey indicated their consent. The researcher analyzed data received from the returned questionnaires with the SPSS statistical package (Version 22.0). The researcher performed descriptive statistical analyses to check for outliers and invalid data and excluded invalid data from the analysis.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The researcher tested the following hypotheses, derived from the research questions:

1. What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members of the men's ministry auxiliary in a specific FBO? Specifically, volunteers differed significantly from nonvolunteers by age, marital status, employment status, and educational level. The researcher employed independent *t*-tests and chi-square tests to test if there was a significant relationship between demographics and volunteerism. In addition, the researcher provided descriptive data, and, where appropriate, mean, range, and standard deviation for each variable.
2. Are there any differences in motivation between volunteer and nonvolunteer adult males in the men's ministry auxiliary of a specific FBO? Specifically, the researcher assessed significant differences between motivation profiles—the six constructs in the VFI—which include values, understanding, enhancement, social, career, and protective factors of African American adult

male volunteers and nonvolunteers. This hypothesis was tested using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANCOVA; SPSS 21). The inferential technique used to determine the statistical significance of these mean differences was a MANOVA. The researcher performed the MANOVA to determine if volunteers and nonvolunteers differed in scores on the six functions of motivation to volunteer scales. Prior to examining the results from the MANOVA, I performed Mauchly's test of sphericity. If the results were not statistically significant and did not adhere to the assumptions necessary for the validity of the unadjusted MANOVA results, the Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment would have been applied to all subsequent tests for the MANOVA. In addition, the researcher presented descriptive data for each of the questions and factors in Table 8. These data include mean scores, ranges, and standard deviations.

3. Are there any differences between long-term intentions and short-term intentions of adult male volunteers in the men's ministry auxiliary of a specific FBO? Specifically, there will be significant differences between the motivational profile of adult male volunteers with long-term intentions versus short-term intentions. A chi-square test was performed to compare those who were currently volunteering and those who were not as to whether they would be volunteering at the current organization or not volunteering at all one year in the future.

Table 8

Construct Development

Variables	Question related to function
Values function	3 3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
	8 I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.
	16 I feel compassion toward people in need.
	19 I feel it is important to help others.
	22 I can do something for a cause that is important to me.
Understanding function	12 I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.
	14 Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
	18 Volunteering lets me learn through direct “hands on” experience.
	25 I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.
	30 I can explore my own strengths.
Social function	2 My friends volunteer.
	4 People I’m close to want me to volunteer.
	6 People I know share an interest in community service.
	17 Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.
	23 Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.
Career function	1 Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I’d like to work.
	10 I can make new contacts that might help my business career.
	15 Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.
	21 Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.
	28 Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.
Protective function	7 No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.
	9 By volunteering, I feel less lonely.
	11 Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.
	20 Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.
	24 Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.
Enhancement function	5 5. Volunteering makes me feel important.
	13 Volunteering increases my self-esteem.
	26 Volunteering makes me feel needed.
	27 Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
	29 Volunteering is a way to make new friends.
Long-term intention	48 One year from now, will you be (please circle your best guess as of today: A Volunteering at this organization. B Volunteering at another organization. C Not volunteering at all.

Ethical Procedures

The researcher requested and obtained permission from the ministerial administrator of the FBO before I conducted any research (see Appendix D). The researcher administered surveys to participants after I received permission from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB 12-17-13-0112543). The researcher instructed participants not include any identifying information and informed them, through an implied consent form, that all results were anonymous. The researcher anticipated no risks or discomforts with the survey; the researcher gave participants the option of answering only those items they felt comfortable answering and advised that they had the right to discontinue their participation at any time. Participating in this study was voluntary. Anonymity was maintained. The researcher did not collect male ministry member names, home addresses, and birthdates. I gave participants the option of returning a blank survey. The completed responses on the VFI are kept in a password protected Excel spreadsheet accessible only to the dissertation committee chairperson and me. Only the research team and the researcher have access to the completed surveys. The researcher filed the hardcopy of completed questionnaires and keep them in a locked cabinet located in my home office.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher was the sole investigator for this study. As a doctoral student in Walden University's Department of Education, Teacher Leadership, the researcher had successfully completed courses in primary research assessment (quantitative and qualitative). Participants came from the FBO where the researcher is also a member.

Creswell (2003) explained that it is possible for researchers to investigate at a familiar site; however, researchers must use multiple strategies to maintain validity and assure confidence in the results of the study. Glass and Hopkins (1984) encouraged researchers to be cautious when conducting research in known settings. To limit bias, the researcher assured and explained to participants that they had an option to participate and at no time were they forced to be part of the study. The coordinator introduced me at the monthly men's meeting. The researcher read the consent form and showed participants where the concealed box was located, assuring confidentiality and anonymity. The researcher encouraged participants to participate and thanked them in advance. The researcher remained in the room throughout the entire completion of the survey.

Section Summary

In this section the researcher presented the research design and methodology used in this study. The researcher discussed the use of the entire membership of the male ministry of the FBO. The researcher paid particular attention to the VFI, which was the instrument used for the collection of data in this study. The researcher presented the validity and reliability of this instrument through summaries of past studies employing the VFI. The researcher presented the collection of data and analysis methodology for this study. In the following section, the researcher presented and analyzed the data collected from the questionnaires.

Section 4: Results

Introduction

The problem addressed in this study was the underrepresentation of men and young people among those who volunteer (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). The issue addressed was determining what motivates adult males to volunteer in a mentoring program established for at-risk adolescent males. If a program is going to serve those that are considered to be at risk, it is important to understand what motivates individuals to volunteer, enabling organizers to successfully align the benefits of experience to an individual's motivation (Pauline, 2006).

The purpose of this investigation was to determine what characteristics (age, education, marital status, and employment) of adult males differentiate volunteers and nonvolunteers in a specific FBO, and to determine if the motives to volunteer differ significantly between adult male volunteers and nonvolunteers in a specific FBO. The primary research questions for this study were developed to investigate this:

1. What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?
2. Are there any differences in motivation between volunteers and nonvolunteers of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?
3. What are the differences in long-term versus short term intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?

This section contains the results from the analyses performed to achieve the purpose of this study. Initially, I present the results from the descriptive statistical

analyses. Then, I present the results from the inferential analyses performed to examine differences in motivational factors as a function of volunteering. The section ends with a summary.

Research Question 1

The first research question of this study was, “What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members of the men’s auxiliary in a specific FBO?” Table 9 contains a summary of the demographic and background characteristics of the sample. The most common age groups were between 55 and 64 years old (28.7%) and between 45 and 54 years old (27.1%; see Table 10). Most participants (64.3%) were not currently volunteers, indicating that there is room for growth in the percentage that volunteer in this organization. The most common level of educational attainment was a bachelor’s degree (37.3%) with a substantial percentage of the participants having a master’s degree (15.9%), a trade school degree (10.5%), or a doctorate (10.2%). The majority of participants were married (56.1%) and employed full-time (57.6%). The average age of participants was 43.47 years with a standard deviation of 12.92.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic and Background Variables (N = 314)

	Frequency	Percentage
Age group		
18 to 24	10	3.2
25 to 34	55	17.5
35 to 44	49	15.6
45 to 54	85	27.1
55 to 64	90	28.7
65 or older	24	7.6
Missing	1	.3
Currently volunteer		
No	202	64.3
Yes	112	35.7
Educational attainment		
Some high school	8	2.5
High school graduate	26	8.3
Some college credit	7	2.2
Trade school	33	10.5
Associate's degree	22	7.0
Bachelor's degree	117	37.3
Master's degree	50	15.9
Professional degree	19	6.1
Doctorate	32	10.2
Marital status		
Divorced	15	4.8
Married	176	56.1
Separated	15	4.8
Single	88	28.0
Widowed	8	2.5
Other/missing	12	3.8
Employment status		
Employed full time	181	57.6
Employed part time	18	5.7
Retired	37	11.8
Self-employed	51	16.2
Unemployed	27	8.6
Age	43.47	12.92

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Age as a Function of Volunteering (N = 313)

	Volunteering (n = 112)		Not volunteering (n = 201)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Age	47.77	12.89	41.07	12.33

The second analysis consisted of a chi-square test performed to determine if the marital status of the participants related to whether they were currently volunteering. Table 11 shows the crosstabulation of marital status and volunteering group. Among volunteers, more were divorced (13.4% compared to 0.0% among nonvolunteers), more were single (36.6% compared to 25.9% among nonvolunteers), and fewer were married (50.0% compared to 62.7% among nonvolunteers). The results from the chi-square test showed a significant relationship between volunteerism and marital status ($\chi^2(4) = 44.52$, $p < .001$). The phi coefficient was .38 indicating that marital status had a very strong relationship to volunteerism. Table 11 shows the marital status data for those who currently volunteered and those who did not (see Figure 1).

Table 11

Crosstabulation of Volunteering Status and Marital Status (N = 314)

	Divorced		Married		Separated		Single		Widowed	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
Volunteering	15	13.4	56	50.0	0	0.0	41	36.6	0	0.0
Not volunteering	0	0.0	126	62.7	15	7.5	52	25.9	8	4.0
Total Sample	15	4.8	182	58.1	15	4.8	93	29.7	8	2.6

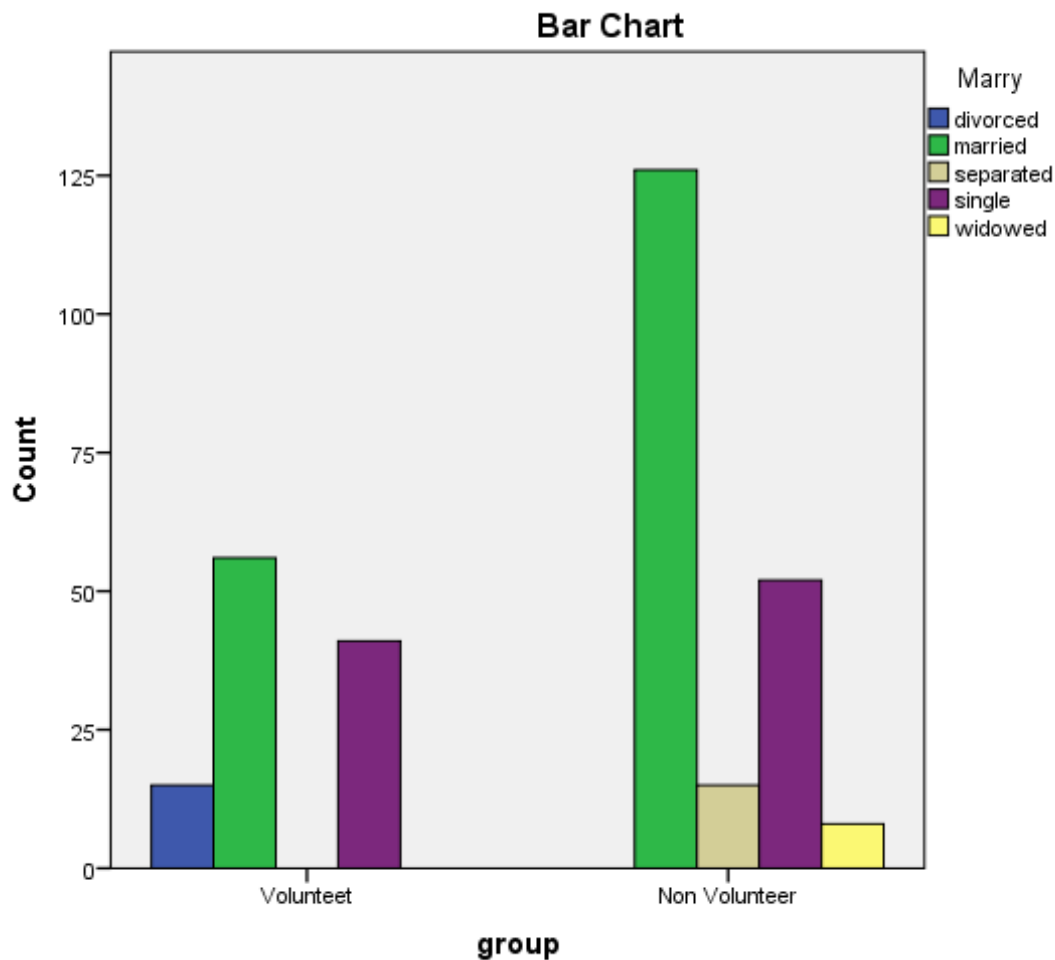


Figure 1. The number of participants in each marital-status group as a function of volunteering status.

The next analysis compared volunteering status and employment status. Table 12 shows the crosstabulation of volunteering status and employment status. A total of 78.6% of volunteers were employed full time (compared to 46.0% of nonvolunteers), whereas nonvolunteers were more likely to be self-employed (22.3% compared to 5.4% of volunteers) or unemployed (13.4% compared to 0.0% of volunteers). I identified significant relationship between volunteerism and employment status ($\chi^2(4) = 47.18$, $p < .001$ with employment status having a very strong relationship ($\phi = .39$) to

volunteerism. Figure 2 shows the breakdown of employment status for those who were currently volunteering and those who were not.

Table 12

Crosstabulation of Volunteering Status and Employment Status

Category	Employed full time		Employed part time		Retired		Self-employed		Unemployed	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%
Volunteering	88	78.6	10	8.9	8	7.1	6	5.4	0	0.0
Not volunteering	93	46.0	8	4.0	29	14.4	45	22.3	27	13.4
Total sample	181	57.6	18	5.7	37	11.8	51	16.2	27	8.6

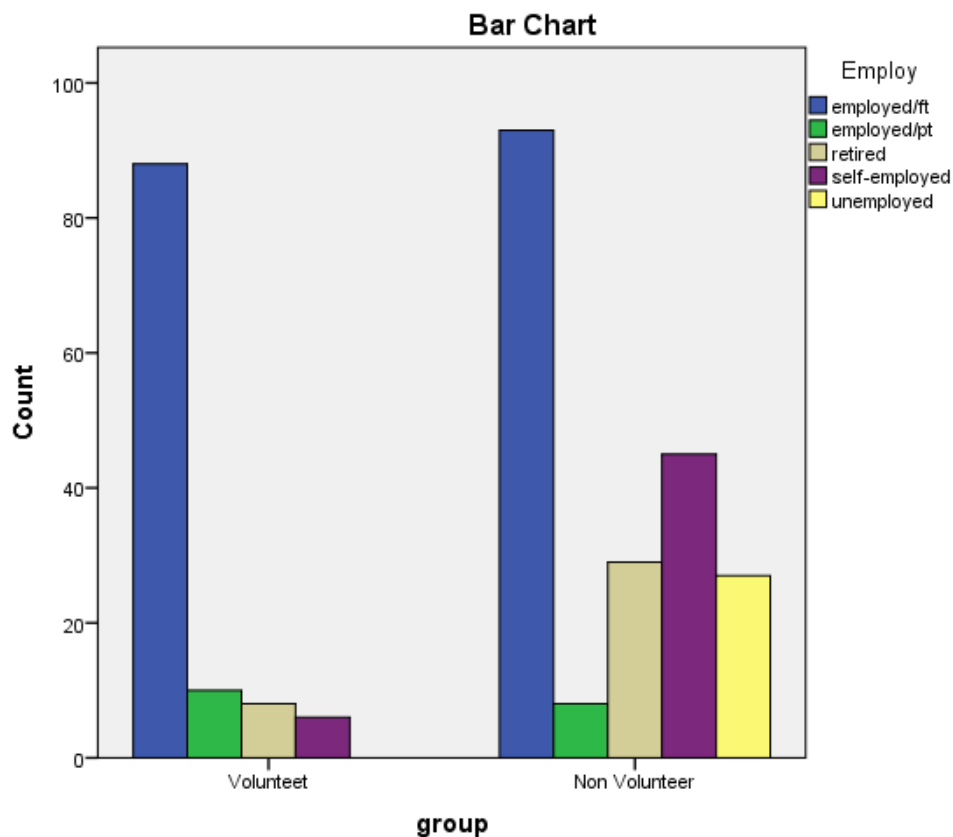


Figure 2. The number of participants in each employment group as a function of volunteering status.

The final comparison for the first research question was between volunteering status and educational attainment. Table 13 shows this crosstabulation. Those who volunteered were more likely to be high school graduates (14.3% compared to 5.0% of nonvolunteers) and trade school graduates (14.3% compared to 8.4% of nonvolunteers) and less likely to have associate's degrees ($n < 5$ compared to 10.9% of nonvolunteers) or professional degrees ($n < 5$ compared to 9.4% of nonvolunteers). I identified a significant relationship between volunteerism and educational status, $\chi^2(8) = 54.92, p < .001$ in that educational status had a very strong relationship ($\phi = .42$) to volunteerism. Figure 3 shows the analysis of educational attainment for those who were currently volunteering and those who were not.

Table 13

Crosstabulation of Volunteering Status and Educational Attainment

Educational attainment	Volunteering		Not volunteering	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%
Some high school	8	7.1	<5	$n < 5$
High school	16	14.3	10	5.0
Some college credit	< 5	$n < 5$	7	3.5
Associate's degree	< 5	$n < 5$	22	10.9
Bachelor's degree	41	36.6	76	37.6
Master's degree	23	20.5	27	13.4
Doctorate	8	7.1	24	11.9
Trade	16	14.3	17	8.4

Based on these results, I drew four conclusions for the first research question. First, the age of the volunteers was higher than that of the nonvolunteers. Second, volunteers were more likely to be divorced or single and less likely to be married than

nonvolunteers. Third, volunteers were more likely to be employed full time and less likely to be self-employed or unemployed than nonvolunteers. Fourth, volunteers were more likely to be high school or trade-school graduates and less likely to have associate's degrees or professional degrees than nonvolunteers.

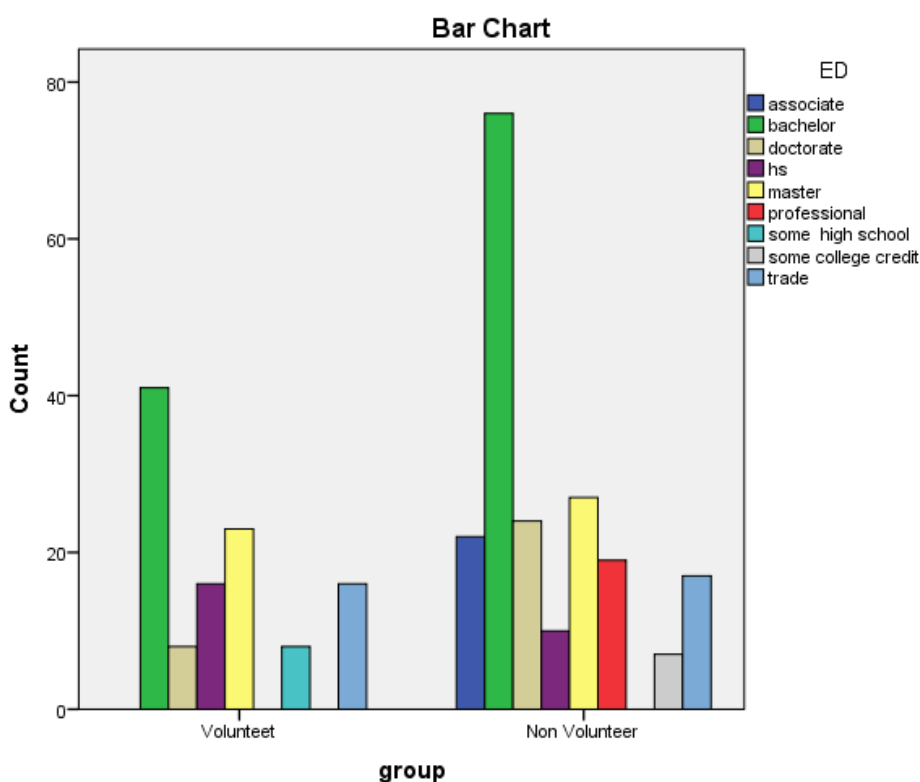


Figure 3. Number of participants in each education group as a function of volunteering status.

Research Question 2

The second research question was, Are there any differences in motivation between volunteers and nonvolunteers for adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?

Descriptive Analysis

The value function relates to expressing values through action. Career function relates to furthering one's career. The understanding function relates to increasing understanding of the world or one's self. The enhancement function relates to the desire to grow psychologically. The social function relates to strengthening social relationships. The protective function relates to reducing negative feelings such as guilt (Clary, et al, 1998). The highest means were for the Value scale ($M = 27.82$, $SD = 6.93$) and the Understand scale ($M = 24.87$, $SD = 6.83$). The lowest means were for the Protect scale ($M = 18.25$, $SD = 6.83$) and for the Career scale ($M = 20.35$, $SD = 8.69$), although the Career, Social, and Enhance scales had similar means (see Table 14).

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for Motives for Volunteering Scales (N = 314)

	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Career	5	60	20.35	8.69
Social	5	34	20.67	6.58
Value	5	35	27.82	6.93
Understand	5	35	24.87	6.83
Enhance	5	35	20.44	7.60
Protect	5	33	18.25	6.83

Table 15 shows the means for each of the six motivation-to-volunteer scales as a function of volunteering status (volunteers and nonvolunteers). As shown in Table 15, volunteers had higher scores on most motivational-factor scales. The differences between the volunteers and nonvolunteers was slight for the Career scale and the Protect scale but

larger for the Social, Value, Understand, and Enhance scales. I address the statistical significance of these differences in the analyses that follow.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Motivations to Volunteer as a Function of Volunteering

($N = 314$)

Motivational factors	Volunteering ($n = 112$)		Not volunteering ($n = 202$)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Career	20.06	8.02	20.51	9.06
Social	22.23	6.93	19.80	6.22
Value	29.90	5.09	26.67	7.53
Understand	26.46	6.32	24.00	6.96
Enhance	22.55	6.56	19.27	7.89
Protect	18.56	6.21	18.08	7.17

The inferential technique used to determine the statistical significance of these mean differences was a MANOVA. I performed the MANOVA to determine if the volunteers and nonvolunteers differed in scores on the six function of motivation-to-volunteer scales. Prior to examining the results from the MANOVA, I performed Mauchly's test of sphericity. The result was statistically significant, $\chi^2(2) = 249.37$, $p < .001$, indicating that the assumption of sphericity was violated. This indicated that the variances and covariances did not adhere to the assumptions necessary for the validity of the unadjusted MANOVA results. Therefore, I applied the Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment to all subsequent tests for the MANOVA.

Table 16 shows the results from the MANOVA. The main effect for group was statistically significant, $F(1, 312) = 9.59$, $p = .002$. This indicated a difference overall

between volunteers and nonvolunteers on motivational factors. Also a statistically significant main effect exists for motivational factors, $F(3.72, 1161.03) = 132.56$, $p < .001$, indicating that the scores for the six motivational factors were not equivalent. The interaction between factors and group was also statistically significant, $F(3.72, 1161.03) = 5.79$, $p < .001$, indicating that the difference between volunteers and nonvolunteers was not the same for all six motivational factors.

Table 16

Results from Multivariate Analysis of Variance (N = 314)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	p
Motivation factors	19551.57	3.721	5254.03	132.56	< .001
Factors by group	853.18	3.721	229.27	5.79	< .001
Error (factors)	46017.04	1161.031	39.64		
Group	1570.54	1.000	1570.54	9.59	.002
Error (group)	51078.12	312.000	163.71		

Note. All statistics were computed using the Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment.

Given that the interaction between factor and group was statistically significant, I performed individual between-subjects tests for each of the six motivational factors to determine where the differences lay between volunteers and nonvolunteers. The differences were statistically significant for Social ($F[1, 312] = 10.16$, $p = .002$, adjusted $R^2 = .03$), Value ($F[1, 312] = 16.40$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .05$), Understand ($F[1, 312] = 9.61$, $p = .002$, adjusted $R^2 = .03$), and Enhance ($F[1, 312] = 14.04$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .04$). Table 17 shows that in each case, the mean for volunteers was higher than the mean score for nonvolunteers. For the other two motivational factor scales, the difference was not statistically significant. Specifically, there were no differences between

volunteers and nonvolunteers on the Career scale ($F[1, 312] = .20, p = .659$, adjusted $R^2 = .00$) or the Protect scale ($F[1, 312] = .35, p = .553$, adjusted $R^2 = .00$). Figure 4 shows these differences graphically.

Table 17

Crosstabulation of Volunteering Status and Future Volunteering Plans (N = 314)

Volunteering status	Will be volunteering at the current organization		Will not be volunteering	
	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%
Volunteering	106	94.6	6	5.4
Not volunteering	182	90.1	20	9.9
Total Sample	288	91.7	26	8.3

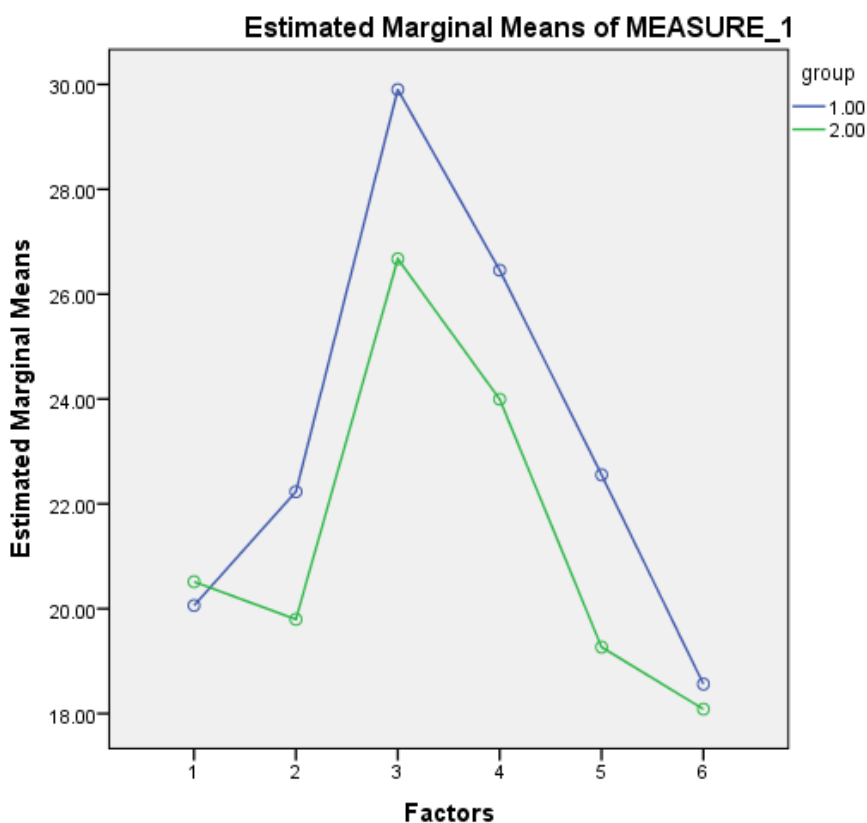


Figure 4. Profile plot of mean motivational factor scores as a function of group. For the motivational factors, 1 = Career, 2 = Social, 3 = Value, 4 = Understand, 5 = Enhance, 6 = Protect. For group, 1 = volunteers, 2 = nonvolunteers.

Research Question 3

The third and final research question of this study was, What are the differences in long-term versus short-term intentions of adult male members of a men's auxiliary in a specific FBO? I performed a chi-square test comparing those who were currently volunteering and those who were not as to whether they would be volunteering at the current organization or not volunteering at all 1 year in the future. Table 17 shows the crosstabulation of group and future volunteering plans. Among those who were currently volunteering, 94.6% planned to be volunteering with the organization 1 year in the future. Among those who were not currently volunteering, 90.1% planned to be volunteering

with the organization 1 year in the future. This difference was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 1.96, p = .162$. Therefore, the answer to the third research question of this study was that there were no differences in long-term versus short-term intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO. Figure 5 shows that nearly all participants in both groups planned to be volunteering with the organization 1 year in the future.

Summary of Findings

This section contained a presentation of the results from this study. I addressed the three research questions. I developed the first and third research questions to provide background information on volunteers and nonvolunteers in this study (for the first research question) as well as to examine an issue unexplored in past research (the difference between short-term and long-term volunteering plans in the third research question). I developed the second research question, in contrast, based on functionalist-motivation theory (Clary et al., 1992), enabling results to be compared to past studies.

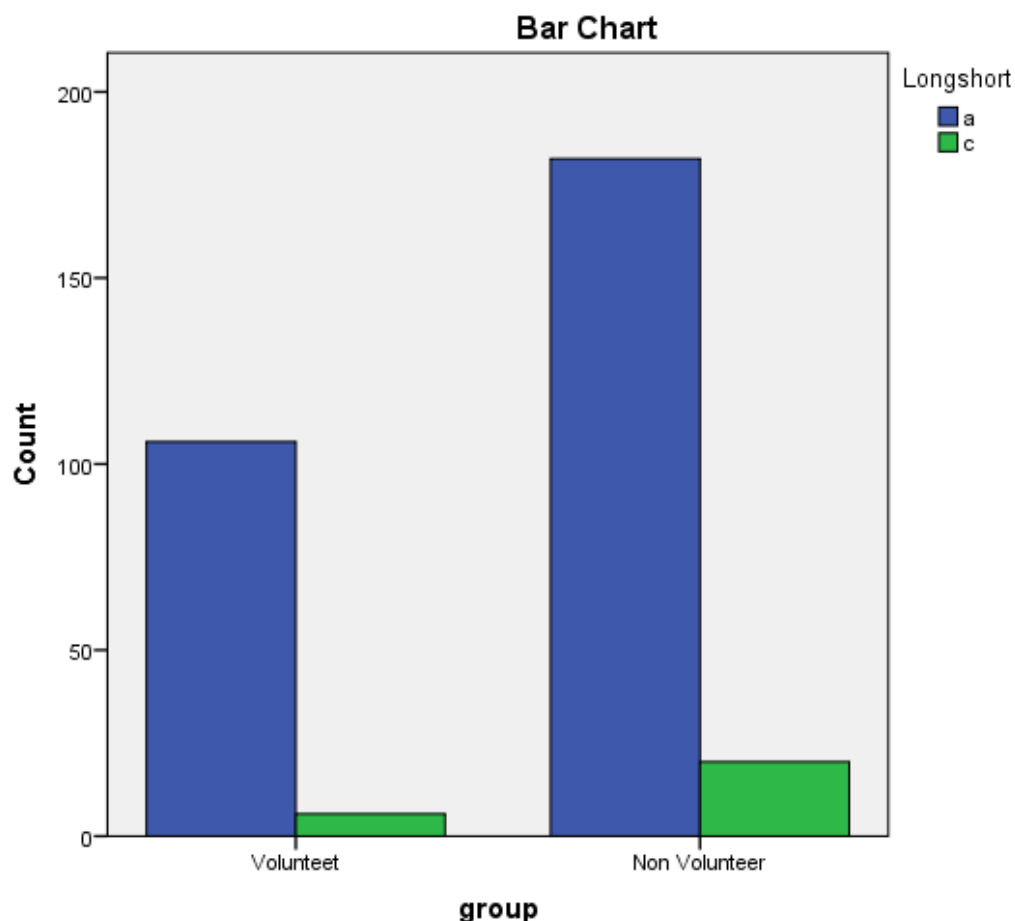


Figure 5. Number of participants who planned to be volunteering at the organization one year in the future.

The symbol “a” indicates that an individual planned to be volunteering at the organization 1 year in the future whereas the symbol “c” indicates the individual did not plan to be volunteering at the organization 1 year in the future.

The first research question of this study was, What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members of the men’s auxiliary in a specific FBO? Results showed that most participants were between 45 and 64 years old (averaging 43.47 years of age), were not currently volunteers, had bachelor’s or master’s degrees, were married, and were employed full time. Several differences existed in the demographic and background characteristics of volunteers and nonvolunteers:

(a) volunteers were older than nonvolunteers, (b) volunteers were more likely to be divorced or single and less likely to be married than nonvolunteers, (c) volunteers were more likely to be employed full time and less likely to be self-employed or unemployed than nonvolunteers, and (d) volunteers were more likely to be high school or trade-school graduates and less likely to have associate's degrees or professional degrees than nonvolunteers.

The second research question was, Are there any differences in motivation between volunteers and nonvolunteers for adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO? Results showed that volunteers had higher motivation scores for the Social, Value, Understand, and Enhance scales. I found no statistically significant difference between volunteers and nonvolunteers on the Career and Protection scales. Identifying differences on some scales but not on other scales supports past research in this area (Clary et al., 1992, 1998). Specifically, Clary et al. (1992) and Clary et al. (1998) noted that functionalist theory was founded on the belief that individuals can participate in similar activities, but derive satisfaction based on different psychological needs. Applied to the area of volunteering, this means that understanding what motivates individuals to volunteer varies (Clary et al., 1992, 1998), and this was supported in the current study.

The third research question of this study was, What are the differences in long-term and short-term intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO? Results showed no differences in long-term versus short-term intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO. In the next section, I discuss

these results in the context of past research in this area and offer recommendations for future research and policy.

Section 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This study was developed in response to the lack of appropriate role models and mentors for African American male adolescents. This lack of role models causes these adolescents to struggle and produces a lack of positive, caring, supportive adult relationships (Carvell et al., 2009; Jekielek, Moore, Hair, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2005). This contributes to African American males being nearly twice as likely to drop out of high school as their European American peers (Kerpelman et al., 2008). According to the report Alliance for Excellent Education (2011), failure to graduate from high school results in higher likelihood of subsequent unemployment, lower wages, smaller chances for work advancement, substantially lower lifetime earnings, increases in poverty rates, poorer health, increased government dependency, lower college attendance rates, and higher incarceration rates. In addition, high school drop-outs are more likely to themselves have children who do not graduate from high school, transmitting the problem inter-generationally.

In an attempt to address this problem, mentoring programs have been created to provide positive support through role models for African American adolescents (Crawford et al., 2006; McAdoo & Crawford, 1990; Scott & Magnuson, 2006). Many of these programs are run through Faith Based Organizations (FBO) and are successful in helping adolescents who have encountered difficult life circumstances (Angell et al., 1998; Crawford et al., 2006; McAdoo & Crawford, 1990). One example is the mentoring program at the local setting that was the target of this study. For such mentoring

programs to function effectively, the nature and motivations of the volunteers who serve as mentors must be understood (Jekielek, Moore, Hair, 2002; Rhodes & Chan, 2008). In fact, one of the greatest challenges for mentoring programs is in recruiting male mentors (Rhodes, 2002). Currently, an insufficient number of volunteers exist for this program. Prior to this study, organizers had not surveyed the potential volunteers' regarding factors that would motivate them to volunteer. Researchers have noted that recruitment and retention of volunteers are negatively impacted because of the lack of understanding of factors that motivate adult males' to volunteer (Bauldry & Hartmann, 2004; O'Conner, 2006; Rhodes & Chan, 2008).

Understanding these motivating factors will impact how recruiting strategies are implemented and could increase the number of available mentors for adolescent males (Pauline, 2006). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to (a) determine what characteristics (age, education, marital status, and employment) of adult men differentiate between volunteers and nonvolunteers in a specific Faith Based Organization, and (b) to determine if the motives to volunteer differ significantly between adult male volunteers and nonvolunteers in a specific FBO. The key findings from this study follow:

1. Volunteers were older than nonvolunteers.
2. Volunteers were more likely to be divorced or single and less likely to be married than nonvolunteers.
3. Volunteers were more likely to be employed full-time and less likely to be self-employed or unemployed than nonvolunteers.

4. Volunteers were more likely to be high school or trade-school graduates and less likely to have associate's degrees or professional degrees than nonvolunteers.
5. Volunteers had higher motivation scores for the Social, Value, Understand, and Enhance scales (but no differences were observed on the Career and Protection scales).
6. There were no differences in long-term versus short-term volunteering intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO.

Interpretation of Findings

This section reviews and interprets the study results in the context of past research and the theoretical framework for this study. The first research question was, "What are the demographic characteristics of adult male volunteer and nonvolunteer members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?" The study results show demographic and background differences between the volunteers and nonvolunteers in this sample.

The second research question was, "Are there any differences in motivation between volunteers and nonvolunteers for adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO?" The results for the second research question were most directly related to the theoretical framework of functionalist theory and showed that the motivations to volunteer were different between those who were currently volunteering and those who were not currently volunteering.

Supporters of functionalist-motivation theory have hypothesized that individuals derive satisfaction based on different psychological needs. This study tested this hypothesis on volunteering behaviors to explore the applicability of functionalist theory

to these types of behaviors. The results were consistent with conclusions of Clary et al. (1992) and Clary et al. (1998) in that there were differences between volunteers and those who were not currently volunteering in some motivational areas but not others. Results from the analyses performed for the second research question indicated that those who were currently volunteering were more motivated by several factors, including:

- the desire to satisfy the expectations of friends and close others;
- to express humanitarian and prosocial values through action;
- to gain greater understanding of the world, the diverse people in it, and ultimately, themselves; and
- to boost self-esteem, to feel important and needed by others, and to form relationships.

However, no differences emerged based on motivation to explore career options and increase the likelihood that a particular career path can be pursued, to distract oneself from personal problems, or to work through problems in the context of service. These differences were based on the functionalist-motivational model of Clary et al. (1992) and were supportive of that model.

The third research question was, “What are the differences in long-term versus short-term intentions of adult male members of the men’s auxiliary in a specific FBO?” The results for the third research question showed that the future volunteering plans of those who currently volunteer did not differ from those who were not currently volunteers, suggesting that moving individuals from the nonvolunteer category to the volunteer category may not be particularly difficult.

To answer Research Question 1, the findings show that volunteers were more likely to be older, unmarried, employed full time but not self-employed, and less educated than nonvolunteers. The finding that there were statistically significant demographic and background differences between volunteers and nonvolunteers introduces the possibility of targeted efforts to increase the number of mentors. Based on the findings for the first research question, targeting younger, married, self-employed or unemployed and more educated individuals may be fruitful because it appears fewer individuals with these characteristics engage in mentoring.

Mentors and nonmentors answers to Research Question 2 differed in regards to the factors that would motivate them to become volunteers. Specifically, those who were currently volunteering were more motivated by the desire:

- to satisfy the expectations of friends and close others (based on the difference in Social scale scores)
- to express humanitarian and prosocial values through action (based on the differences in the Value scale scores)
- to gain greater understanding of the world, the diverse people in it, and ultimately, themselves (based on the differences in the Understanding scale)
- to boost self-esteem, to feel important and needed by others to form relationships (based on the differences in the Enhancement scale; Clary et al., 1998).

No differences emerged based on motivation to explore career options and increase the likelihood that a particular career path can be pursued, or to distract oneself from personal problems or to work through problems in the context of service.

Mentoring-program administrators could attempt to draw nonvolunteers into mentoring programs by communicating with them about some of the factors that motivate volunteers (i.e., those related to the Social, Value, Understanding, and Enhancement scales).

The theoretical framework for this study was functionalist theory (Clary et al., 1998). This theory was founded on the belief that individuals can participate in similar activities, but derive satisfaction based on different psychological needs (Clary et al., 1998). Applied to the area of volunteering, this means that understanding what motivates individuals to volunteer varies (Clary et al., 1992, 1998), and this justified the current study. The functionalist theory was supported by the results from the current study because there were statistically significant differences in the factors that would cause an individual to volunteer between those who were currently volunteering in the mentoring program and those who were not currently volunteering in the mentoring program.

To address Research Question 3, no differences emerged between volunteers and nonvolunteers in long-term versus short-term volunteering intentions of adult male members of the men's auxiliary in a specific FBO. This result indicates that the status of an individual as a volunteer or a nonvolunteer is flexible in that whether someone was currently volunteering was not predictive of whether they would be volunteering in the future. Knowing that an individual is currently a volunteer says little about whether they will be one in the future, and similarly knowing that an individual is not currently a volunteer says little about whether they may become one. This also highlights the importance of retention of volunteers. If current volunteers can be retained and those

currently not volunteering can be convinced to do so, the total number of volunteers will increase. Thus, using some of the information provided by the current study (i.e., the demographic and motivational differences between volunteers and nonvolunteers) in an attempt to convince nonvolunteers to become volunteers has a high likelihood of success, because these attempts will be based on empirical evidence.

Implications for Social Change

This research study contributes to the body of knowledge needed to address the problem occurring in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia where African American adolescent males have the lowest academic performance, and almost double the high school dropout rate of European American males (Carvell, 2009; Jekielek, Moore, Hair, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2005). Mentoring programs that provide a significant adult who serves as a role model for adolescent males and provides social support can have a positive effect and lead to positive changes in behaviors, attitudes, and values (C. M. Clark, 2005; Comer & Laird, 1975). These changes can lead to helping these adolescents transition successfully through life (DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Jekielek, Moore, Hair, 2002; Mentor/The National Mentoring Partnership, 2005). Despite the current shortages of volunteers, particularly among men (Bussell & Forbes, 2002), if the motivations of men to volunteer in mentoring programs can be better understood, the number of volunteers could be increased (Pauline, 2006); this was the goal of the current study.

In extensively reviewing the literature on mentoring, it was difficult to find any data or studies that specifically focused on what motivated adult males to volunteer. These findings have larger implications for research and practice in the field of

mentoring. Outcomes from this study may provide helpful information to organizers of the faith-based mentoring program as they begin restructuring the program and aligning the benefits of the experience to individuals' motivations. As discussed in the next section, the results from the current study indicated that organizers of faith-based mentoring programs may experience success if they (a) target younger, married, self-employed or unemployed and more educated individuals because they were underrepresented among volunteers, (b) match recruitment messages and volunteering activities to volunteers' functional motives (assessed with the VFI assessment survey), and (c) emphasize the social, value, understand, and enhance functions of volunteering. If these recommendations are followed, the results from this study may promote positive social change by increasing the number of volunteers.

The study is significant because the growing population of single-parent homes, and adolescent males who have no caring adult male role model, create an environment for adolescents to participate in delinquent activities because they lack support and structure (Alleyne & Wood, 2011; Harris et al., 2006). Volunteers are necessary, and many organizations could not exist without them (Phillips & Phillips, 2011). It is imperative for these programs to function successfully; identifying quality and sustaining volunteer involvement in programs is essential (Souza & Dhimi, 2008). Changing lives for the betterment of society by promoting positive, constructive ways for adolescents to behave could alleviate the high cost of housing delinquent youth in the penal system. Results from the current study could be used to increase the number of volunteers for mentoring programs for adolescent African American males through an increased

understanding of the motivations of men to volunteer in these programs. The next section contains specific recommendations for action resulting from the outcomes of this study.

Recommendations for Action

Considering the findings of the study, the researcher offered the organizer of the men's ministry in the Faith Based Organization a set of recommendations to improve volunteer recruitment and retention. Based on the findings for the first research question, the researcher recommended organizers of FBOs target younger, married, self-employed or unemployed, and more educated individuals because they were underrepresented among volunteers. A goal of this study was to determine if volunteers differed from nonvolunteers in demographic characteristics, but an exploration of precisely why these demographic differences existed was not part of this study. It may be the case, for example, that married individuals were less likely to volunteer because they are more occupied with family duties, although determining such mechanisms was beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, the researcher recommended that more volunteering activities be developed to include family members so that married men would be more able to contribute.

In addition, leaders in the FBO should consider activities and recruitment messages that are aligned with volunteers' functional motives. Each volunteer is driven by their unique motivation of interests, emotional state, and situation for joining a volunteer program (USDOE, 2006). Organizers of volunteering programs for adolescent males could attempt to match recruitment messages and volunteering activities to potential volunteers' functional motives, which would be assessed with the VFI

assessment survey. Individuals with any level of interest in volunteering could be given the VFI and their motivations to volunteer could be used to craft specific volunteering activities they would find rewarding. For example, a potential volunteer who scored well on the Enhancement scale (indicating a desire to grow and develop psychologically through involvement in volunteering; Clary et al., 1998) might be assigned to work directly with mentees, whereas an individual who scored well on the Social scale (indicating a desire to strengthen one's social relationship; Clary et al., 1998) might be assigned to a community-outreach role. Taking this approach would result in recruitment and retention strategies that are effective in meeting the needs of the organization and the individuals who are willing to volunteer to support and benefit those at-risk.

For the results from this study to be useful, they must be disseminated to church leaders. A summary of the results will be provided to the leaders at the church from which the sample for this study was drawn. In addition, through the publication of this study, scheduled conference presentations and other presentations based on the results from this study, the results will be disseminated to leaders, organizers, and faith-based administrators so they may be used to enhance the recruitment and retention of volunteers.

Recommendations for Further Study

Based on this study, many opportunities emerge for additional research to understand what attracts and retains volunteers in an FBO. Given the limitations of the current study, the researcher offered several recommendations for future research. For example, future research can explore volunteer motivation using a mixed-methods design

consisting of quantitative (as in the current study) and qualitative approaches. Using a qualitative approach, open-ended questions could be used (either through interviews or surveys) to determine unique reasons for volunteering behaviors that did not focus solely on the six factors present in the VFI. Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches will provide richness and detail to the existing literature.

A second recommendation for future research is that the results from this study be replicated in other types of volunteer organizations. In the current study, an FBO was examined and the relevant volunteering program was one of mentoring African American adolescents in a major metropolitan area. It may be the case that the results from this study generalize to other types of organizations and to other types of volunteering programs, or it may be the case that the results from this study are specific to FBOs or to specific types of volunteer programs. Researchers could explore the generalizability of the results from this study by replicating the research procedures in various contexts.

A third recommendation for further study is that follow-up studies should be performed to examine the efficacy of the recommendations for action provided above. For example, a study could be performed in which family-oriented volunteering activities could be developed to encourage married men, who were shown in this study to be less likely to volunteer than other men. Whether this increased the percentage of married men who volunteered could be determined in this way. Also, matching potential volunteers' motivations for volunteering to various volunteering activities could also be implemented and tested in future studies.

Conclusions

The primary findings from this study were that (a) demographic differences exist between volunteers and nonvolunteers, with volunteers more likely to be older, unmarried, employed full time but not self-employed, and less educated than nonvolunteers; (b) volunteers had higher motivations to volunteer based on the social, value, understanding, and enhancement constructs described in this section than nonvolunteers; and (c) there were no differences in long-term versus short-term volunteering intentions between current volunteers and those who were not currently volunteering. Based on these findings, the implications for social change were discussed in this section including the potential to help African American adolescents in the metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia area and elsewhere by providing more mentors. More mentoring volunteers could help African American adolescents because many African American adolescents lack appropriate role models, mentors, and positive, caring, supportive adult relationships (Carvell, 2009; Jekielek, Moore, Hair, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2005). Providing these role models and mentors could help close the academic achievement gap between African American and European American adolescents and help mitigate the negative consequences associated with a failure to graduate from high school such as higher unemployment rates, lower wages, higher levels of poverty, increased government dependency, and higher incarceration rates (Alleyne & Wood, 2011; Graduation Counts, 2006; Harris et al., 2007; Kerpelman et al., 2008).

Based on the findings from this study, I developed and provided several recommendations for action in this section including matching volunteer recruitment

strategies and volunteers' activities to the functional motives of individual volunteers (and the use of a functional-motives-for-volunteering scale such as the VFI to perform this matching); developing direct recruitment and retention strategies to encourage those individuals found in this study to be less likely to volunteer (i.e., younger, married, self-employed or unemployed, and more educated individuals); and emphasizing the social, value, understand, and enhance functions of volunteering. In addition, the researcher recommended that future researchers perform mixed-method studies and attempt to replicate the results from this study with other types of organizations and other types of volunteering programs to determine the extent to which the results are generalizable.

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Appendix A: Survey—Volunteerism Questionnaire

Dear Participants,

This survey instrument was designed to compare perceptions of factors motivating males to volunteer in a faith-based organization. Responding to the survey is voluntary. Your responses will remain anonymous and strictly confidential. This survey is for research purposes only. As soon as you complete the survey please place it in the self-addressed envelope and place it in the survey box located in office conference room by pastor's study.

A. Are you presently involved as a mentor in the men's ministry mentoring program?

Yes

No

If no, what volunteer auxiliary do you presently volunteer in at this organization?

family ministries ___ elder ___ deacon ___ pathfinders _____
encounter _____ other _____

B. Age: What is your age category? (Please select one)

12–17 years old

18–24 years old

- 25–34 years old
- 35–44 years old
- 45–54 years old
- 55–64 years old
- 65–74 years old
- 75 years or older

C. Education: What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

If currently enrolled, highest degree received.

- No schooling completed
- Nursery school to 8th grade
- Some high school, no diploma
- High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
- Some college credit, no degree
- Trade/technical/vocational training

- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Professional degree
- Doctorate degree

D. Marital Status: What is your marital status?

- Single, never married
- Married
- Widowed
- Divorced
- Separated

E. Employment Status: What is your current employment status? (check all that apply)

- Employed for wages – full-time
- Self-employed

- Unemployed
- Employed for wages – part-time
- A homemaker
- A student
- Military
- Retired
- Unable to work

The remaining items on this survey relate to what might or might not influence you to participate as a volunteer and mentor, specifically within a faith-based organization.

VOLUNTEERISM QUESTIONNAIRE

Your organization is involved in a project related to volunteer's reasons and experiences with volunteering. On the following pages are items that concern your experiences as a volunteer with this organization. The set of questions, **Reasons for Volunteering**, presents 30 reasons that people volunteer at this organization. You do not need to put your name on the questionnaire. Answer each question as best as you can.

Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate how important or accurate each of the following possible reasons for volunteering is for you in doing volunteer work at this organization. Record your answer in the space next to each item.

Rating

not at all important/ accurate for you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely important/ accurate for you
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Reasons for Volunteering

1. Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I'd like to work.

not at all important/ accurate for you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely important/ accurate for you
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--

2. My friends volunteer.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

2. People I know share an interest in community service.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

3. Volunteering makes me feel important.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

4. People I know share an interest in community service

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

5. No matter how bad I've been feeling volunteering helps me forget about it.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

6. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

7. By volunteering, I feel less lonely.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

8. I can make new contacts that might help my business career.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

9. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more
fortunate than others.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

10. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

11. Volunteering increase my self-esteem.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

16. I feel compassion toward people in need.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

18. Volunteering lets me learn through direct “hands on” experience.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

19. I feel it is important to help others.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

21. Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

28. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

30. I can explore my own strengths.

not at all important/ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 extremely important/
accurate for you accurate for you

VOLUNTEERING OUTCOMES

Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the amount of agreement or disagreement you personally feel with each statement. Please be as accurate and honest as possible, so we can better understand this organization.

Rating

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

31. In volunteering with this organization, I made new contacts that might help my business or career.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

32. People I know best know that I am volunteering at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

33. People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

34. From volunteering at this organization, I feel better about myself.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

35. Volunteering at this organization allows me the opportunity to escape some of my own troubles.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

36. I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

37. As a volunteer in this organization, I have been able to explore possible career options.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

38. My friends found out that I am volunteering at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

39. Through volunteering here, I am doing something for a cause that I believe in.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

40. My self-esteem is enhanced by performing volunteer work in this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

41. By volunteering at this organization, I have been able to work through some of my own personal problems.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

42. I have been able to learn more about the cause for which I am working by volunteering with this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

43. I am enjoying my volunteer experience.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

44. My volunteer experience has been personally fulfilling.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

45. This experience of volunteering with this organization has been a worthwhile one.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

46. I have been able to make an important contribution by volunteering at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

47. I have accomplished a great deal of “good” through my volunteer work at this organization.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

48. One year from now, will you be (please circle your best guess as of today):

- A. volunteering at this organization.
- B. volunteering at another organization
- C. not volunteering at all.

Volunteer # ____

SCORING SHEET

VFI Career Item 1 10 15 21 28

Response ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ = _____

(SUM)

VFI Social Item 2 4 6 17 23

Response ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ = _____

(SUM)

VFI Values Item 3 8 16 19 22

Response ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ + ____ = _____

(SUM)

VFI Understd Item 12 14 18 25 30

Response ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = _____

(SUM)

VFI Enhance Item 5 13 26 27 29

Response ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = _____

(SUM)

VFI Protect Item 7 9 11 20 24

Response ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = _____

(SUM)

Outcomes Career (Add items 31 and 37) ___ + ___ =

Outcomes Social (Add items 32 and 38) ___ + ___ =

Outcomes Values (Add items 33 and 39) ___ + ___ =

Outcomes Enhance (Add items 34 and 40) ___ + ___ =

Outcomes Protect (Add items 35 and 41) ___ + ___ =

Outcomes Understd (Add items 36 and 42) ___ + ___ =

□

Satisfaction Items 43 44 45 46 47

Response ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = _____

Long-term Intentions (item 48) _____

Volunteering Outcomes

C = Career

Sc = Social

V = Values

E = Enhancement

P = Protective

U = Understanding

St = Satisfaction

48. One year from now, will you be (please circle your best guess as of today):
- A. volunteering at this organization.
 - B. volunteering at another organization.
 - C. not volunteering at all

Appendix B: Letter to Developers of the VFI Scale

Dear Sir,

I am a graduate student at Walden University completing my doctorate in education with an emphasis in Teacher Leadership. My study seeks to describe what functions motivate African American men to volunteer in a specific faith-based organization for at-risk youth. I am seeking permission to use the “Volunteer Function Inventory” tool for my study. However, I would only use Part 1 of the survey and question #48. How do I acquire permission to use the VFI survey in my study? Is there a cost per survey, or will I be able to make copies. I anticipate surveying approximately 100 participants. Your prompt response to this request is appreciated.

If there is anything that is required, please do not hesitate to inform me.

My Regards,

Trudy Willis-Jones

Walden University

Trudy.willis-jones@waldenu.edu

770 912-7068

Subject : Re: Volunteer Function Inventory survey – Permission
Date : Wed, May 02, 2012 07:19 PM CDT
From : Mark Snyder <msnyder@umn.edu>
To : Trudy Willis-Jones <trudy.willis-jones@waldenu.edu>

Attachment :  VFI_Items_and_Scoring.doc

Dear Trudy,

We are happy to grant you permission to use the VFI in your doctoral research at Walden University. To aid you, I am including a document that includes a complete listing of the VFI items and instructions for administration and scoring.

Best wishes,

Mark Snyder

Mark Snyder

McKnight Presidential Chair in Psychology

Director, Center for the Study of the Individual and Society

University of Minnesota

75 East River Road

Minneapolis, MN 55455

(612) 625-1507 (voice)

(612) 626-2079 (fax)

msnyder@umn.edu (e-mail)

Appendix C: Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research study of the motivational factors for Men to volunteer. The researcher is inviting men who attend various programs within this faith-based organization to be in the study. This form is part of a process called “informed consent” to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Trudy Willis-Jones, who is a doctoral student at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to determine what factors motivate men to volunteer in a specific faith-based organization for at-risk youth.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to: fill out a survey that will take approximately 15-30 minutes.

Here are some sample questions to which you would be asked to state your level of agreement: “Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I’d like to work.” “My friends volunteer.”

“I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.”

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

This study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at [REDACTED] Outreach Center will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during or after the study. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as fatigue. Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or wellbeing. This research study may promote positive social change by creating knowledge that has the potential to influence access to the recruitment of male volunteers for ethnic based programs; specifically a faith- based organization in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. It is crucial to provide adolescent males who have difficult time making the right choices the tools that might be needed to transition from adolescent to adulthood. The results could be used to develop recruitment strategies for those community programs designed for at-risk youth.

Payment: No payment will be provided for your participation.

Privacy: Any information you provide will be kept anonymous. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in

the study reports. Data will be kept secure. The completed responses will be kept in a password protected Excel spreadsheet accessible only to the researcher, her dissertation chairperson, and the dissertation committee. No access to the completed surveys will be allowed to anyone except the committee members. The hardcopy completed questionnaires will be filed and kept in a locked cabinet. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions: You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via trudy.willis-jones@waldenu.edu

If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 3121210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 12-17-13-0112543 and it expires on December 16, 2014.

You may keep a copy of this consent form.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. In order to protect your privacy signatures are not being collected. Instead your completion of this survey will indicate your consent, if you choose to participate.

Appendix D: Invitation to Participate Letter

Dear Participant,

I am a student at Walden University pursuing a doctorate in Teacher Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled “What are the Motivational Factors for African American Men to Volunteer: A descriptive quantitative study.” The purpose of the research is to determine what factors motivate African American men to volunteer in a specific faith-based organization for at-risk youth.

Your participation will involve filling out a survey that will take approximately 10-15 minutes. The survey is designed to determine the factor(s) that motivates, African American men to perform volunteer mentoring for at-risk African American male youth. Your identity will be completely anonymous. The results of this study may be published but your name and individual survey will not be shared with anyone within the organization nor will your organization be identified.

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit to yourself. In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you.

As a doctoral study this research project is under the direction of Dr. Derek Schroll and can be contacted at derek.schroll@waldenu.edu should you have any questions. In addition I can be contact with any questions at trudy.willis-jones@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely

Trudy Willis-Jones
Doctoral Student

Derek Schroll
Walden University

Appendix E: Letter Requesting Permission for Site Study

Walden University 12-17-13-0112543

This has been approved by the
Institutional Review Board of

as acceptable documentation of the
informed consent process and is valid
for one year after the stamped date.

Letter of Cooperation from Community Research Partner

December 7, 2013

Berean Outreach Center
Pastor Russell

Dear Trudy Willis-Jones,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled "What are the motivational factors for men to volunteer: A descriptive quantitative study" within the Berean Outreach Center. As part of this study, I authorize you to solicit participants, obtain informed consent, provide instructions, distribute surveys, and collect surveys during a men's meeting at the Berean Outreach Center. I also authorize you to include the results in your dissertation, conference presentations, or other publications.

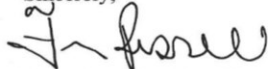
Individuals' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

We understand that our organization's responsibilities include: introducing you during a men's meeting at the Berean Outreach Center and providing you with the opportunity to engage in the necessary activities to conduct this study (solicit participants, obtain informed consent, provide instructions, distribute surveys, and collect surveys). We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the research team without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,



Pastor Fredrick Russell
farussell@aol.com

Curriculum Vitae

Trudy W. Willis-Jones

EDUCATION:

Ed.D., Teacher Leadership
Walden University
Minneapolis, Minnesota (2014)

MBA – Business Administration
Richard Russell College, Andrews University
Berrien Springs, MI 29105

BS., Accounting and Business Administration
Oakwood University
Huntsville, AL 39106

EMPLOYMENT:

2005 – PRESENT

Clayton County Public School System

Leadership

Additional Certifications: Teacher

Endorsement; Teacher Support Specialist; Business Education; SP ED General Curriculum (P-12) Consultative; SP ED Language Arts Cognitive Level; SP ED Math Cognitive Level (P-5, 4-8); SP ED Science Cognitive Level; SP ED Social Science Cognitive Level (P-5, 4-8); National Bookkeeping Certification.

Additional Certifications: Teacher Leadership Endorsement; Teacher Support Specialist; Business Education; SP ED General Curriculum (P-12) Consultative; SP ED Language Arts Cognitive Level; SP ED Math Cognitive Level (P-5, 4-8); SP ED Science Cognitive Level; SP ED Social Science Cognitive Level (P-5, 4-8); National Bookkeeping Certification.

OTHER:

1981 – 2005

Numerous positions in accounting, tax, write-up, bookkeeping, and management.