

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING AND RETENTION IN A
VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATION

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING AND RETENTION IN A
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VITA

Jeffrey David Montgomery, son of Joseph and Betty Montgomery, was born in Washington Court House, Ohio. He graduated from Washington High School. He graduated from Eastern Illinois University with a bachelor degree in Social Studies, and then with a master's degree in Educational Psychology and Counseling. In 1994, he retired from the United States Air Force and became the Associate Director of Development and an Assistant Professor at Martin Methodist College in Pulaski, Tennessee. In 1995, he went to work at the national headquarters of the Civil Air Patrol in Montgomery, Alabama, as an Aerospace Education Program Manager. He married Laura Keller Montgomery in 1985, and they have three children, Sarah, Annie, and Matthew.

DISSERTATION ABSTRACT
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING AND RETENTION IN A
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The purpose of the study was to provide information that would lead to a better understanding of retention and thereby improve the retention rate of Civil Air Patrol cadets. The research problem of the study was to identify the selected training factors that impact on retention within the CAP cadet program. Three questionnaires were developed to ascertain the training and retention attitudes of current cadets, former cadets, and the adult leaders who train the cadets.

Data were analyzed with SPSS 12.0 using the following statistical procedures: Descriptive, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, t-test, and Chi-Square.

There was a significant difference between the retention of cadets living in rural areas versus cadets living in urban or suburban areas. Analysis showed that cadets living in rural areas were more likely to remain in CAP.

There was a significant difference in age between the current and former cadets; however, this can be explained in that many of the former cadets who responded to the survey had aged beyond the cadet age limitation.

There was a significant difference between the current and former cadets in terms of the reasons they joined CAP. More former cadets than expected joined because of friends, whereas less current cadets joined for that reason.

There was a significant difference among current and former cadets with their satisfaction with flying training. Many more former cadets were less satisfied with flying training than the current cadets.

This research study indicated that the number one reason for joining CAP was flying training. The research also indicated that the two primary reasons for leaving CAP were ineffective leadership and insufficient training.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING
AND RETENTION IN A VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATION

I. NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction and Background

The Civil Air Patrol (CAP) was conceived in December 1941, immediately after the bombing of Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. Aviation enthusiasts, in their small airplanes, patrolled both coastlines of the United States in search of enemy submarines. These search missions developed into bombing missions and continued until World War II was over.

On July 1, 1946, Public Law 476 incorporated the Civil Air Patrol. The purposes of the Civil Air Patrol organization were to provide encouragement and assistance to American citizens in the development of aviation and to provide aviation education and training to CAP members.

These two purposes expanded into the present-day mission of CAP. The mission of CAP is divided into three branches: aerospace education, cadet programs, and emergency services (CAPR 20-1).

The Aerospace Education branch provides CAP members and communities throughout the United States with information, services, and support to promote the understanding of aviation and space programs. The Cadet Program Branch develops the potential of youth through aerospace education, flying, leadership, moral leadership, and physical fitness training. The Emergency Services Branch searches for downed aircraft and directs rescue missions in coordination with the Air Force and civilian agencies. This branch further supplements the Red Cross during natural disasters.

Civil Air Patrol is divided into eight geographical regions across the country. Each region is comprised of several states, and each state is organized into a wing of the Civil Air Patrol. Each wing is further delineated into squadrons. A squadron is the lowest level of organization in CAP and is also referred to as a unit. Every state in the United States, Puerto Rico, and Washington D.C. has CAP squadrons, with over 1,700 squadrons in CAP.

CAP members are divided into two age-dependent groups. The first group is entitled the Cadet Programs and encompasses over 26,000 youth between the ages of 12 and 21. Any CAP member between the ages of 12 and 21 must

belong to a cadet unit. The second group is designated as the Senior Programs. This program is reserved for all members over the age of 21. The Senior Programs consist of over 35,000 members.

Despite an extensive nationwide organization of volunteers, the retention rate of first-year cadets in the cadet program is 30% (Membership Status Report, 1998). During the 1990s, the CAP cadet program averaged approximately 11,500 new cadets every year. During that time, however, only 30% (3,500 cadets) stayed beyond the first year (Report 1990-1998).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to provide information that would lead to a better understanding of retention and thereby improve the retention rate of CAP cadets. The findings of this study could lead to a more effective means of conducting training in the Civil Air Patrol. Further, the results will be beneficial to the organization and to the volunteers who provide training to the cadets. Additionally, the results could be used by other non-profit organizations as they analyze critical membership and retention issues within their companies.

Training and retention have been studied thoroughly in the collegiate arena and in the business world but not in the non-profit volunteer world. This study will provide additional insight into that area of research.

Statement of the Problem

CAP has over 26,000 youth in its cadet program; yet in the first year of membership, 70% of the cadets become attrition casualties. Over the last ten years, CAP recruited an average of 11,500 new cadets every year. Only 3,500 (30%), however, stayed in the program after the first year (Report 1998).

Most units meet weekly, and the recurring theme at these weekly meetings is training. Cadets across the country are expected to participate in selected training. Adult volunteers within the particular units conduct the training. The adult volunteers not only lead the training but also determine the training schedules. The volunteers, therefore, choose the type and the amount of training that occurs.

Five major training areas exist within the cadet program of CAP: aerospace education, flying, leadership, moral leadership, and physical fitness. This study will focus on the first year of membership within the cadet

program and will determine if training impacts the retention of these cadets. Thus, the research problem of this study is to identify the selected training factors that impact on retention within the CAP cadet program.

Because the adult volunteers are the interactive ingredient in CAP training, investigating their motivation, involvement, and behavior adds another dimension and additional credence to this study.

Research Questions

1. Is there a significant difference between the selected characteristics based on the demographic profile of cadets who remain in CAP and the demographic profile of those cadets who leave the program? If so, what differences exist?
2. Is there a significant difference between the selected training factors and retention in CAP? If so, what is the relationship?
3. Is there a significant difference between the selected motivational factors and their role in retention?

Specifically:

- a. What selected motivational factors, as identified in research, impact on the retention of cadets in CAP?

b. What selected motivational factors, as identified in research, impact on the retention of adult volunteers in CAP?

Definition of Terms

Civil Air Patrol (CAP) - A private, non-profit, all-volunteer organization that is the official auxiliary of the United States Air Force. CAP provides encouragement and support to American citizens in the development of aviation and aerospace education and provides emergency search and rescue missions for downed aircraft.

Cadet - A boy or girl, between the ages of 12 and 21, who is a member of the cadet program of Civil Air Patrol.

Civil Air Patrol Cadet Program - A program to develop the potential of youth through aerospace education, flying, leadership, moral leadership, and physical fitness training. The cadet program consists of over 26,000 members between the ages of 12 and 21.

Volunteer - A member of CAP involved with the cadet program by leading or administering training.

Training - Information or activity used for the purpose of increasing the knowledge or skills of the cadets in the cadet program. The training may be conducted by adults or may be delegated to other cadets. Sometimes, the

individual cadet will study independently to accomplish the training.

Retention - The continuing involvement and participation of members of CAP in the organization. Retention is verified by annual membership renewal.

Civil Air Patrol Region - One of eight geographic areas, each consisting of several states, which divides CAP for organizational structure.

Civil Air Patrol Wing - A geographical state. Each state is classified as a CAP wing.

Civil Air Patrol Squadron - A community-level organization consisting of a minimum of 15 members. Each wing is subdivided into the community-level squadrons. This level of CAP meets on a routine basis, usually weekly.

Unit - Synonymous with the term squadron.

Youth - Any CAP member between the age of 12 and 21.

Adult - Any CAP member above the age of 21.

Aerospace Education Training - A category of cadet training in the cadet program that emphasizes increasing cadet knowledge and understanding of aerospace.

Flying Training - A category of cadet training that provides a flight orientation program for cadets. Cadets receive aircraft orientation and limited flying time.

Leadership - A category of cadet training that studies the concept and different methods and styles of leadership.

Moral Leadership - A category of cadet training that focuses on moral standards and values.

Physical Fitness - A category of training that establishes a conditioning program for the cadets.

Significance of the Study

Historically, CAP has a 30% retention rate. This rate has been maintained for many years with little documented evidence of efforts to contravene this rate. This study attempts to analyze information that may lead to a better understanding of the retention of cadets in Civil Air Patrol.

Even though CAP is a private, non-profit, all-volunteer organization, it receives funding from the Department of Defense (DOD). The DOD, by way of the Air Force, appropriates \$20 to \$30 million annually to CAP. So, CAP is accountable to the Air Force and the DOD for how it spends its money.

An important aspect of this accountability is in the area of missions. It is incumbent on CAP to perform its missions to the utmost of its abilities. CAP needs cadets to perform the missions. Therefore, retaining qualified and

trained cadets is of paramount importance to fulfilling the organization's missions.

Since CAP missions are dictated by Congress and by public law, CAP is also accountable to American citizens and taxpayers. Training and retention within this organization are important because of this accountability factor.

This study is also important because analyzing the retention will provide a means to understanding the satisfaction level of the members of the cadet program. A method of measuring this satisfaction is through training; all cadets are exposed to training within the organization.

This study can demonstrate the readiness and success of the program and help justify the millions of dollars that are spent by the Air Force and DOD. Likewise, this study can be a tool to ascertain if taxpayers' money is being spent wisely and if the training is making an impact on the cadets.

Methods and Procedures

This study used a quantitative research approach. This approach seeks explanations, then generalizes those explanations. The intent of the research is to determine if there is a relationship between the variables involved in

the study and develop generalizations from those relationships for other people and places within the entire cadet program.

Training is the first major independent variable and is divided into five training categories: aerospace, flying, leadership, moral leadership, and physical fitness. The second major independent variable is volunteerism. The motivational factors of the volunteers will be examined through retention and participation. The demographic predictors for the cadets are age, gender, location of cadet unit, length of time in CAP, and amount of training received.

The dependent variable for this study is retention. The impact, if any, that training has on the cadets will be measured by retention rate.

The quantitative approach will also be a non-experiment and a correlation design. The correlation design will investigate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. With the correlation design, no attempt will be made to manipulate the variables. Any relationship between the variables will be expressed numerically.

The correlation design is straightforward. It identifies the variables and asks questions about the relationship between them. The numbers are observable, measurable, and objective and can be readily used.

The general population consists of 26,000 current cadets and thousands of former cadets. Several parameters that define the sample will be taken from this population. The sample will come only from the cadet program. The sample will include both current and former cadets, and it will include both boys and girls from every region of CAP. The estimated sample size will be 400 to 500.

A stratified random sampling procedure will be used to identify subgroups by age in the proportion that they exist in the population. Age is a prime example of a stratified subgroup for this study. A cadet's age may be an important factor. A stratified sample will ensure the desired distribution among the selected subgroups.

In addition to being stratified, this study will also use a proportional sampling of location. With the population of the cadets spread across the country, the proportional sampling will indicate the greatest concentration of cadets and will ensure fair locality representation.

Limitations

Limitations are the conditions beyond the researcher's control that may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study and their applications to other situations. In this study, limitations will include the data collected on the cadet questionnaire and the truthfulness of the responses. This study is also limited to the population responding to the questionnaire, which may not be representative of the total population.

Delimitations

Delimitations are restrictions deliberately imposed on the study by the investigator. This study is concerned with the retention rate of the cadet program of CAP. It is not interested in the retention of the senior program of CAP. Also, this study will not address the retention of CAP members beyond the first two years of membership. After two years of membership, retention increases dramatically. Therefore, this study is only concerned with the first two years of membership.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents pertinent research as it relates to volunteers and training and the potential impact they have on retention in a volunteer non-profit setting. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section looks at volunteers and volunteerism, while the second section discusses what motivates volunteers. The third section studies the impact training has on organizations and volunteers, particularly in the non-profit arena. Finally, the fourth section presents research on retention and why people choose to stay or leave an organization.

The research problem of this study was to identify the selected training factors that impact on retention within a volunteer organization. The volunteer organization in this study is the Civil Air Patrol. In order to understand how volunteers, training, and retention relate in this organization, the volunteers of CAP must be studied. They are the variable, throughout the

organization, that interacts with the training and retention concepts within Civil Air Patrol.

Documented research on the volunteers of CAP does not exist. However, there is a wealth of research on volunteers in general and specifically on volunteers within non-profit organizations.

Volunteerism

A volunteer is defined as someone who chooses to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit and gain beyond one's basic obligations (Ellis & Noyes, 1990). Ilsley (1989) defines a volunteer as someone who chooses to commit to a cause or to others in a deliberate spirit of service. This service is offered in response to one or more perceived social needs, often within an organizational context, in return for more intrinsic benefits. Henderson (1981) defined a volunteer as "someone who contributes services without financial gain to a functional sub-community or cause" (p.31).

Volunteerism is anything relating to volunteers and volunteering. Ilsley (1990) wrote that volunteerism stems from emotional commitment rather than rational choice. Lohmann (1992) wrote that volunteerism is often associated

with lack of pay or remuneration and refers to people doing something they are not required to do.

Volunteerism has existed for centuries in many parts of the world. The United States is no exception; volunteers founded the United States. Individuals and groups of volunteers had a dramatic impact on the culture of the United States. People became involved not for financial gain but for the good of the community and the society as a whole (Ellis & Noyes, 1990).

In the 1800s, Alexis de Tocqueville wrote that voluntary organizations seemed to be a fundamental characteristic of American life (de Tocqueville, 1956). Eduard Lindeman, an American adult educator, also stated that volunteers are to democracy what blood is to an organism. They keep democracy alive (Ilsley & Feeney, 1978). Another educator, John Dewey, described volunteerism as a component of a pragmatic philosophy and a keystone of democracy (Ilsley, 1990).

De Tocqueville described volunteerism as part of the American heritage (Lohmann, 1992) and the basis of civil society in America (de Tocqueville, 1956). The roots of volunteerism run deep in American culture.

A 1991 U.S. survey found that 94.2 million Americans volunteered their time in some manner. Of these individuals, 25.2 million dedicated at least 5 hours per week of their time to voluntary work (Independent Sector, 1992). These numbers suggest that volunteers are a potentially valuable resource for organizations; however, few organizations commit available resources toward the development of a strong and productive volunteer workforce. Among the reasons behind this lack of commitment by organizations are consistent experiences of rapid turnover among volunteers and perceptions of insufficient control over these individuals as workers (Smith, 1981).

In a similar study, O'Connell and O'Connell (1988) reported that some 93 million Americans were involved in some type of volunteer activity. More recently, O'Connell (1994) reported that a 1992 survey conducted by the Independent Sector found that 51% of adults volunteered and that at least 14% contributed at least 5 hours a week to their chosen organization. Other estimates indicate that at least half of the American adult population volunteers annually in the non-profit sector (Unger, 1991).

A more recent Independent Sector survey showed a rise in the number of Americans volunteering in 1999 to 109

million (56% of the adult population). This number translates to the highest percentage of volunteers recorded since the Independent Sector surveys began (Sitrin, 2000). This same data, however, indicates that although the number of volunteers has increased, the average number of hours volunteered by individuals has decreased (Sitrin, 2000).

Questions that arise about volunteer work as continued, sustained, non-spontaneous help are fundamentally motivational in nature (Clary & Snyder, 1991). Studying why people volunteer is basically a study of motivation and motivational theories. Many reasons exist to explain why people volunteer and why they are motivated to volunteer. Also, many motivational theories exist that are widely accepted by experts in various fields.

Motivational Theories

One theory of motivation is Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs. Maslow believed that people are motivated to meet a present need and once that need is satisfied they move on to a higher level need and attempt to satisfy it (Owens, 1991). Maslow's hierarchy beginning with the lowest level:

1. Physiological needs. These needs are the basic

necessities of life, such as food, water and shelter.

2. Safety and security needs. These are the next higher step of needs. Security means different things to different people. It could mean a high income to ensure freedom for some, or for others it could simply mean having a job, thereby maintaining job security.
3. Social affiliation. When the first two levels are met, person then seeks to fulfill his or her social needs. A person looks to belong and seeks approval from others. Once physiological and security needs are met, this category becomes the motivation for meeting an individual's needs.
4. Esteem. After satisfying belonging and acceptance needs, a person needs to be recognized and respected.
5. Self-actualization. In Maslow's view, this level is the highest level need. It is the desire to become everything one is capable of becoming (Owens, 1991).

Maslow's theory was a general theory and not developed to explain the motivation of people in the workplace.

However, Maslow's work was widely accepted, in part, because so many others used his ideas in their own work.

For instance, Douglas McGregor heavily relied on Maslow's work when he developed his Theory X and Theory Y.

McGregor's theories were more a description of assumptions about how people view others than it was a motivational theory. He used some of Maslow's ideas, however, and interpreted them for the workplace (Owens, 1991).

McGregor's theories were a statement about the culture of an organization and the assumptions people make about others in organizational settings. Theory X people dislike work and avoid it whenever they can. They must be closely supervised or they will not achieve organizational objectives. They do not like responsibility and value job security above all other factors (Owens, 1991).

According to McGregor (1960), Theory Y individuals exercise initiative and self-direction and are committed to the organization. The average employee seeks opportunities at work to display his or her skills and abilities.

Lyman Porter reformulated Maslow's ideas into a hierarchy for managers. Porter dropped the physiological needs and began with the security needs. Porter believed that few managers in America were motivated by hunger and thirst (Owens, 1991). Porter's hierarchy moves next to affiliation, then self-esteem, autonomy, and finally self-actualization.

Porter included an additional level in his hierarchy, that of autonomy. Autonomy refers to an individual's need to participate in making decisions that affect him or her in job-related goals (Owens, 1991).

Frederick Herzberg studied motivation as a two-factor theory. One factor led to job satisfaction, which he termed a motivational factor. The other theory blocked motivation and could lead to job dissatisfaction and was labeled a maintenance factor. Herzberg believed that achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion, and personal growth motivate people and are, therefore, associated with job satisfaction. He labeled these motivating factors or motivators (Owens, 1991).

Herzberg believed that salary, type of supervision, working conditions, attitudes, policies, and the work climate could be sources of dissatisfaction (Owens, 1991). He initially referred to these conditions as hygiene factors, but they are more frequently labeled maintenance factors. Herzberg's theory suggested that people could not be motivated through maintenance factors. Maintenance factors could reduce or eliminate dissatisfaction but could not motivate (Owens, 1991).

Another aspect of this theory is that job satisfaction is related to intrinsic factors, such as achievement and recognition; and dissatisfaction is related to extrinsic factors, such as salary and working conditions. Herzberg's theory was widely accepted and used by managers of organizations. Though some advocate abandoning this theory in favor of newer expectancy theories, it remains a powerful explanation of motivation in the workplace (Owens, 1991).

According to Owens (1991), Victor Vroom developed the most widely used expectancy model. His work focused especially on the motivation of employees in organizations. Vroom's theory states that an employee experiences motivations in varying degrees and will choose to respond based on the strongest motivational forces. Additionally, an employee is motivated by expected events and the likely outcomes of dealing with them.

David McClelland and John Atkinson developed the three needs model. They identified three needs that affect people's work behavior: the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Each of these needs may be present in an individual at different levels.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) also describe four distinct elements that affect work-related behavior. These elements are (1) the motives and needs a person brings to a situation; (2) the job or task to be done; (3) the personal strengths, weaknesses, and leadership style of the manager; and (4) the climate of the organization.

The climate of the organization is a primary focus of this research study. Litwin and Stringer list nine factors that determine organizational climate:

- (1) Structure. This factor takes into consideration the feeling employees have about rules and regulations and the workplace atmosphere.
- (2) Responsibility. This factor refers to the employee's sense of ownership and empowerment.
- (3) Reward. This factor includes the feeling that a job well done will be rewarded. This factor looks to see if the reward structure is fair to everyone.
- (4) Risk. This factor is similar to responsibility and considers the attitude of management toward risk taking.
- (5) Warmth. This factor encompasses how relationships are valued and the significance of each individual.

- (6) Support. This factor includes the perception that managers and others give assistance when necessary. It also describes the relationships between employees.
- (7) Standards. This factor addresses the goals and expectations of the job.
- (8) Conflict. This factor is the feeling that feedback and differences of opinions are welcomed.
- (9) Identity. This factor gives employees the sense of being on a team and the feeling that they are part of something that matters.

The climate or atmosphere of any workplace affects the motivation and satisfaction level of the workers and is a major influence on the availability of the volunteer to work (Wilson, 1983). Litwin and Stringer (1968) found that motivation was aroused by different kinds of organizational climate. Locke said that differences between motivational theories can be mediated when it is understood that different theories pertain to different aspects of the motivation sequence. Locke's hierarchical sequence is as follows:

- (1) needs, (2) values and motives, (3) goals and intentions, (4) self-efficacy, (5) performance, (6) rewards, and (7) satisfaction (Locke, 1991). Locke believed

that values were the link between needs and action. What people value will determine their actions.

The organization, of course, is one of the elements of volunteerism. The organization is the place where the volunteering occurs. How that organization conducts itself, in part, determines how long a volunteer will stay active with that organization. Ilesley (1989) believed that the mission of a volunteer begins with a strong commitment to the organization. The volunteer experience hinges on the mutual satisfaction of meeting volunteer and organizational needs.

Studying motivational theories lays the foundation for analyzing volunteers and is, therefore, important to this research. Many variables are involved that influence volunteers whether the volunteers are studied collectively or as individuals or whether they are studied in the workplace, school setting, or in the non-profit arena. Specifically, what are the factors that influence volunteers? Further, are there factors that consistently motivate people to volunteer?

Some theorists, like Maslow or Porter, think that satisfying individual needs motivates behavior. Other theorists, such as Herzberg, think that motivation is based

on job satisfaction. Still other theorists, like Litwin and Stringer, believe that motivation depends on the organizational climate. The study of motivation involves individuals, organizational settings, and the interaction that occurs between these variables.

Ilsley and Feeney (1978) listed the following as reasons to volunteer: to help others, sense of duty, enjoyment, could not refuse, and because they had a child in the program.

In 1987, the National Center for Volunteers conducted a survey of volunteers. The survey revealed that 97% of the people who volunteered did so to help others. Of those who volunteered, 93% did so because they enjoyed the work and 89% did so because they were interested in the specific work or cause.

A few years later, Ilsley (1990) listed elements for volunteering. They are:

1. Altruism
2. Commitment
3. Free will
4. Learning
5. Absence of financial remuneration
6. Organization

7. Psychological benefits

8. Sacrifice

Altruism is a major motivator for volunteerism. The idea of doing something good for someone has long appealed to people. Additionally, Ilsley (1990) also found that reward has a place in volunteerism and is often sought by volunteers.

Ilsley believed that volunteerism could not exist without commitment. It is an essential element in volunteerism. He believed similarly about free will. If it is not free will, then it is not volunteerism. The two cannot be separated (Ilsley, 1990).

One of the basic aspects of volunteerism is that there is no formal payment for a volunteer. If the person is being paid then he or she is a paid employee, not a volunteer. Ilsley (1989) said that the volunteer does not think in terms of money; the volunteer sees rewards that go beyond the financial aspect.

The psychological benefits should be obvious. If a volunteer is not being paid but is still involved, then other reasons motivate the volunteer to stay. Feeling good about oneself for doing something worthwhile is definitely a motivator. Sacrifice, or giving something back to

society, is a strong motivator for many. Likewise, it is inevitable that some learning will take place; and therefore, learning is an element of volunteerism (Ilsley 1989).

In 1977, Wiche and Isenhour surveyed 490 individuals who contacted a midwest voluntary action center. The purpose of the survey was to determine the motivation of the potential volunteers. Two hundred forty-five (51%) mailed questionnaires were returned. Sixteen items designed to identify reasons for volunteering were placed into four major categories: altruism, self-improvement, personal satisfaction, and demands from outside sources.

The researchers defined *altruism* as an individual's motivation to volunteer out of concern for others, while *personal satisfaction* was defined as the desire to spend time volunteering which would be personally gratifying. *Self-improvement* represented perceived opportunities in which volunteering would provide individuals with improved job skills or new employment skills. The variable *demands from outside sources*, represented fulfilling a club or class requirement.

The findings showed that altruism was rated highest in terms of importance by 50% of the participants. Seventy-

five percent of the volunteers ranked personal satisfaction as of medium importance in terms of their motivation for seeking volunteer opportunities. The largest percentage (79%) of the respondents indicated that demands from the outside were of little or no importance as a motivational factor for volunteering. Self-improvement was rated of medium importance by 54% of the respondents and of low importance by 39% of the respondents. Only 7% of the respondents ranked self-improvement as a high importance (Wiche & Isenhour 1977).

Wiche and Isenhour (1977) concluded that for a moderate-sized urban community, personal satisfaction was the most important motivational factor in determining one's willingness to seek volunteer opportunities. The finding has significant implication, not only in the realm of volunteering, but also in the realm of the determinants of life satisfaction.

According to Burke and Lindsay (1985), volunteering is motivated by some form of private agenda that will meet the goals, needs, and expectations of the volunteer. Needs may be identified as achievement, affiliation, or power. Still, Burke and Lindsay (1985) recognize that some motives may be altruistic in nature and action may be connected to

a desire to help those less fortunate, the expression of personal values, or social connectiveness. The end result of such activity may be an enhanced sense of self-esteem.

Research by Clary and Ornstein (1991) postulated that individuals volunteer for six reasons:

- (1) As an active expression of the belief that it is important to help others (values);
- (2) To facilitate social networking (social);
- (3) To alleviate negative feelings (protective);
- (4) To enhance self-esteem by feeling needed (esteem);
- (5) To gain a better understanding of the world (understanding); and
- (6) To gain knowledge and experience that might help in career development (career).

In a previous survey of American Red Cross volunteers, Gillespie and King (1985) identified the most important reasons for volunteering. Of the 977 respondents, the following reasons were given:

- (1) To help others
- (2) To obtain training and skills
- (3) To contribute to the community
- (4) To enrich personal life

- (5) To be needed
- (6) To have had some time available
- (7) Career exploitation
- (8) Drawn in during a crisis
- (9) To repay for services received by Red Cross
- (10) To be around others
- (11) Reputation of the Red Cross
- (12) To make new friends

The authors noted that the most frequently occurring responses were altruistic in nature (35%), related to obtaining training and skills (16%), and help contributing to the community (15%).

In 1991 Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen examined 258 "habitual direct-service volunteers" who had provided at least one hour of direct service for at least once every other week in a human service agency such as a nursing home, prison, or Big Brothers and Big Sisters programs. They administered a questionnaire for determining the motives for volunteering.

The most highly rated motive was the *opportunity to do something worthwhile*, which was altruistic in nature, followed by *volunteering for others makes me feel better about myself*, which was egoistic in nature. Motives

receiving the lowest ratings were *loneliness* and *social needs* and *career development* or self-egoistic motives (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Pearce (1983) examined reasons for volunteering particularly when the volunteer participates in a formal organization. Individuals hold certain expectations about organizational participation before they join. These expectations, however, have a great probability of changing once they have experience as a member. To test this premise, volunteers were asked to rate the importance of nine rewards related to both their decision to join the organization and then to remain with the organization. Five of the rewards were linked to the immediate experience of participation, while four were representative of the broader goals of personnel growth and community service (Pearce, 1983).

The tested hypothesis was that the more immediate rewards of participation would increase in importance, and the longer-range development and service rewards would decrease in importance to volunteers once they became members of the organization. The results indicated that, for those rewards representing the immediate work experience, the importance of the rewards of working with

friends and coworkers and to meet people significantly increased in importance (Pearce, 1983).

Also, the reward of working for experience tended to increase after the volunteer became a member of an organization. The acquisition of new skills and an increase in the interest in the type of work did not significantly change in importance or more greatly influence the decisions to join and then remain a volunteer. Working for personal growth and working to help others tended to decrease in importance to volunteers once they participated in the organization. Pearce (1983) concluded that membership in a formal organization, itself tends to change the rewards of volunteering.

According to Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991), people function to receive some form of reward and will continue to function as long as they receive a reward commensurate with their efforts. In their study of 28 motives for volunteering, they found that people continue to volunteer as long as their expectations for rewards are met.

Gidron (1983) speculated that the same factors that motivate and retain paid workers were similar to those factors that motivate and retain volunteers. In fact, Pearce (1983) reported that volunteers achieve greater

intrinsic, social, and service motivation as well as greater job satisfaction, and are less intent to leave their volunteer jobs than are paid workers in the same agency.

Similarly, Curtis and Fisher (1994) found that volunteers thought self-esteem was of moderate importance when being involved in a volunteer agency. The researchers suggested that volunteer administrators can and should address the issues related to self-esteem. By providing formal awards or praise, as well as measures of accomplishment, volunteers gain the feeling that they are worthwhile. Likewise, the feeling of accomplishment through the completion of tasks that are considered valuable to the agency contributes to the self-esteem of volunteers.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) found that motives for volunteering were not distinct but overlapping. People volunteer for both altruistic and egoistic reasons. A pure form of altruism does not exist according to Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991). Horton-Smith (1981) distinguished between tangible rewards (egoistic motives) and intangible rewards resulting from helping others (altruistic motives). The combined altruistic and egoistic motives form a

rewarding and, thus, satisfactory experience. Volunteers both give and receive benefits.

Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) point out that volunteers often gain benefits from their volunteer status. Such benefits include, but are not limited to, improved social status, enhanced reputation through more social opportunities, and potential financial rewards in the future. Such rewards may be an indirect function of the volunteer work.

Most writers agree that volunteering is elicited by a mixture of altruism and self-interest (Fitch, 1987; Naylor, 1967; Phillips, 1982; Schafer, 1980). Underlying manifest reasons for volunteering are a set of psychological needs. Henderson (1980) proposed that expectancy theory, a motivational theory from organizational behavior literature (Hampton, Summer, & Weber, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), can be used to explain volunteer behavior. Expectancy theory suggests that people are motivated by expected outcomes. Volunteers give their service to an organization because they expect to have certain motivational needs met in the process. Volunteers may seek environments that best match their own personal characteristics.

McClelland (1955, 1962) and Atkinson (1964) defined the primary motivational needs as need for achievement, affiliation, and power. In a study of adult 4-H volunteers, Henderson (1981) found that most volunteers were motivated by affiliation needs. Culp and Pilat (1998) confirmed this finding. They stated that 4-H volunteers were primarily motivated by affiliation needs.

Henderson (1985) argued that social and economic forces are increasingly making volunteerism a luxury that can only be undertaken by the wealthy. She suggested that "the days of altruism may be over" (p.32). She further hypothesized that people are now seeking growth and self-satisfaction from their volunteer experiences in addition to the more traditional motivation of helping others.

As mentioned earlier, in her study of 4-H volunteers, Henderson (1981) found that the primary motivation for adult volunteers was affiliation or the desire to interact with others. These individuals construed their volunteer involvement to be one of a leisure activity. A recent study of college students volunteering for community service determined that the students were motivated to volunteer by both altruistic and egoistic needs (Fitch, 1987). As a result of these findings, Fitch concluded his

study by suggesting that volunteer program directors might wish to keep social exchange theory in mind when organizing and supervising their programs. Social exchange theory suggests that people contribute to the degree that they perceive they are being rewarded.

When an imbalance between contributions and rewards is perceived, an individual is likely to move toward a greater equilibrium. An individual who perceives that the rewards for volunteering are imbalanced with their volunteer contributions is likely to discontinue involvement. Thus, Fitch (1987) introduced the empirical study of volunteerism as a source of need fulfillment as well as an altruistic activity.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) compiled a list of the top 28 motives for volunteer work. They then conducted survey interviews with 362 volunteers and rated each of the motives on a one-to-five Likert-type scale. The rating of "one" was not important while the rating of "five" was very important. Fifteen motives received an average of three or more:

1. Opportunity to do something worthwhile.
2. Makes one feel better about oneself.
3. It creates a better society.

4. Opportunity to return fortune.
5. It improves attitude on one's own life situation.
6. Opportunity for relationships.
7. Adhering to agency's goals.
8. Excellent educational experience.
9. Provides challenging activities.
10. Opportunity to work with different age groups.
11. Opportunity to change injustices.
12. It is God's expectation.
13. Agency can provide more for less.
14. Opportunity to vary activities.
15. Broadening horizons.

(Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, p. 279)

Balenger, Sedlacek, and Guenzler (1989) studied volunteer activities with group motivations. They found that volunteers were more interested in serving program attendees, making new friends, and being involved. Their data inferred that the volunteers were primarily achievement and affiliation motivated.

Smith and Reddy (1971) proposed that reasons for volunteering include personality traits conducive to joining and participating in voluntary action and special attitudes conducive to volunteer participation.

Personality traits conducive to joining and participating include extraversion, sociability, social confidence, optimism perseverance, flexibility, and adaptability. General attitudes relate to an individual's sense of moral, civic or social obligation, strong positive attitudes toward one's community, and a preference for formal organized groups as a way of accomplishing goals. Individuals may perceive the group or organization to be attractive, worthwhile, and personally rewarding to the extent that there exists a personal sense of social support, belonging, and fellowship from within the group.

Bruny (1978) reported the following reasons for people volunteering as 4-H leaders:

1. Broaden a friendship circle. Reduces loneliness.
2. An interest in remaining active rather than a spectator.
3. Loyalty - Asked by a friend. Desire to help others because 4-H helped me.
4. Image of organization - Desire to be part of a worthwhile cause.
5. Tradition and custom.
6. Family involvement.
7. A desire to show and use special talents and skills.

8. Status.
9. Sincere interest in helping boys and girls.
10. Public opinion - It is our program and our responsibility to offer a youth program.
11. A desire for an educational learning experience.
An interest in exercising and learning leadership, also subject matter knowledge from Ohio State is readily available.
12. Volunteer experiences can and do lead to career and job opportunities.

Maxwell (1995) believes a key motivator of volunteer leaders is to nurture them by expressing a positive belief in their skills and abilities, encouraging them to stay with the task, sharing personal time with them, and finally demonstrating trust in them. Wilson (1983) agrees with Maxwell and adds more ways to create a nurturing, positive climate for the volunteer. She suggests different ways to tell volunteers they are appreciated, recognized, and loved. Many people feel underemployed at work and when they volunteer, there is a sense they are making a difference in society.

Clary, Snyder and Stukas (1996) attempted to develop a functional scale of six reasons why people volunteer.

However, they found only four to be significant: values, career, social, and understanding. They also separated their findings into different activities. In this regard, the youth development area had only two significant reasons for volunteering: providing education and experience for the volunteer.

Gordon Allport speculated that volunteers participated for one of two reasons - - either for "*ego defense*" or "*ego extension*". Ego defense referred to individuals seeking involvement in volunteer activities in order to gain safety, security, or a feeling of superiority. Such individuals act in an egocentric way seeking a sense of belonging in order to feel better about themselves. In contrast, ego extension referred to those who volunteered in a given organization in order to contribute to their own personal growth (Allport, 1945).

Allport concluded that volunteering was motivated by either an interest in the immediate experience gained by working in the organization or a more global interest in achieving the goals of the organization. Later findings by Wandersman and Alderman (1993) support the importance of volunteers' belief in the goals of the agency.

Recent research findings indicate that people who volunteer tend to be happier and report greater measures of well-being and life satisfaction (Armstrong, Emard, & Korba, 1995; Kuehne & Sears, 1993). An awareness of what motivates people to volunteer and whether they are happy or satisfied is important. Agencies could utilize such information to both recruit and retain volunteers.

According to Ilsley (1989), the mission of a volunteer begins with a strong commitment to an agency or organization, often without any type of binding agreement, but soon develops into a loyalty stronger than any written document. The volunteer does not think in terms of sacrifice but instead sees rewards that go beyond the financial. Volunteers sacrifice much, however, in terms of time spent and energies given to a project. Because of this sacrifice, a successful volunteer experience hinges on the mutual satisfaction of meeting volunteer and organizational needs.

In order for volunteers to remain committed to an organization, they must perceive some level of achievement or satisfaction (Burke & Lindsay, 1985). Volunteers and the agencies where they volunteer are in a reciprocal relationship (Curtis & Fisher, 1994). Therefore, it is the

responsibility of the agency to both address and meet the needs of those volunteering. Volunteer relationships that do not remain in a state of reciprocity will most likely result in both a loss of morale and loss of active volunteers.

Similarly, Herzberg (1976) noted that people's motivation to work, and thus levels of job satisfaction, could be divided into two categories: satisfiers or motivators and dissatisfiers or hygiene factors. Satisfiers were identified as variables such as increased responsibility, a sense of achievement, and recognition -- all related to job satisfaction. Cole and Fisher (1993) point out that Herzberg's model can be used to help explain the motivation behind people's decision to volunteer. The model recognizes volunteering as providing intrinsic satisfaction.

Research studies have been conducted on the existence of an altruistic personality. Clary and Orenstein (1991) considered altruistic motivation to "involve a willingness to endure greater costs on behalf of others and to be less concerned about the consequences for oneself" (p.59). Batson, Bolen, Cross and Neuringer-Benefiel (1986) commented on the work of Staub and Rushton when they

concluded altruism is not exclusive from other motivations, but is a part of the total motivation environment.

Sometimes people are altruistic in behavior and receive egotistic rewards, such as peace of mind or absence of guilt. Clary and Orenstein (1991) concur that it is difficult to argue that any volunteer is purely altruistic. People may perform acts of altruism with egotistic motivations because they are motivated by what they will receive personally from the act or behavior.

Batson, Bolen, Cross, and Neuringer-Benefiel (1986) considered four personal variables (self-esteem, social responsibility, ascription of responsibility, and interpersonal reactivity) associated with altruistic motivation. They determined that altruism in the absence of internal and external rewards is the very essence of selflessness (Batson, Bolen, Cross, & Neuringer-Benefiel, 1986).

Fitch (1987) studied three motivators for volunteer behavior in college students: altruism, egoism, and social obligation. He discovered that students generally rated egoism as significant and even altruistic reasons had an egoism benefit. Winniford, Carpenter, and Grider (1995) studied these same three motivators and found altruism to

be the top motivator, followed by egotistic and then social obligation.

Ilsley (1990) suggests that merely feeling good after doing something valued as worthwhile is an even greater motivator than the initial attempt to perform an altruistic behavior. Ilsley cautioned that feeling good afterward may occur unconsciously. Motivations are not static; they change from person to person as well as over time.

Batson (1994) theorized that self-interest is an important determinant of human action including both action for the individual and the public good. Self-interest, however, is not the only motive for acting for the public good. According to Batson, there are four motives that influence such action.

The first motive, egoism, is action focused on the actor's own welfare. These acts, done for the good of the public, also benefit the actor along the way. In the case of volunteering, the end result may be helping others in society; however, the actor gains recognition or praise for his or her efforts (Batson, 1994).

Second, collectivism refers to action that will ultimately increase the well being of a group or collective. Unlike egoism, this form of helping requires

the helper or volunteer to face social dilemmas. For example, they may volunteer for the homeless or cancer patients, while they themselves are not directly affected by the condition (Batson, 1994).

Third, the concept of altruism is discussed in Batson's research. The concept refers to activity in which the motivating factor is increasing the welfare of one or more individuals other than oneself. Unintentionally, the action increases the welfare of the collective as a latent consequence.

Batson is careful to point out that altruism should not be confused with helping behavior which may be performed for the public good, yet not be altruistic in nature. Additionally, some behavior is based on self-sacrifice, which costs the actor and is not concerned with the general concept of altruism (Batson, 1994).

Finally, principlism is motivation based on moral principle. Acting on this motive may increase the public good in a non-directive manner. In a utilitarian manner, members of society may experience some benefits.

Schindler-Rainman and Lipitt (1971) found that volunteer motivation was enhanced when continuing opportunities for advancement were available. This

enhancement could be accomplished through opportunities for higher responsibility, skill, and learning. They believed that participation in meaningful training activities was an important source of motivation and growth. Similarly, Pasternak (1993) concluded that the highly motivated volunteer enhances the organization by developing ongoing training programs that offer personal and professional development.

The National Center for Volunteers found in their 1987 survey that 70% of the respondents said that training was an important incentive for their participation in an organization.

Training's Impact on Volunteers

Volunteers perform a service and, of course, that service depends on the organization's needs or missions. For Civil Air Patrol, in order for volunteers to contribute effectively, the volunteers must conduct training. CAP cadets normally meet once a week for two to three hours. In the many squadrons across the country, that time is devoted to training. Therefore, the question becomes: Does this training impact on the organization?

For this study, training takes on two different meanings. It refers to the training that the adults

receive pertaining to their responsibilities in the cadet program. Plus, it refers to the training received by the cadets enrolled in the program.

Terry (1968) said that training is the planned development of people. Beach (1965) defined training as the organized procedure by which people learn knowledge and skills for a definite purpose. The objective of training is to achieve a change in the behavior of those trained so that the employee may apply newly acquired knowledge and skills on the job in such a way as to aid the achievement of organizational goals.

According to Plambeck (1985), the Director of the National Academy of Voluntarism, everyone needs an effective training program. The key with volunteers is to use their time, talents, and skills through meaningful training. Smale (1994) stated that there is a need for training the volunteer to motivate them and complement their service to the organization.

Training is a continuing process. Carefully planned and well executed, it will contribute to the growth of the individual worker at the same time that it increases the worker's skill and productivity (Cull & Hardy 1974). Cull and Hardy also suggest that the training of volunteers

begins with their first contacts with the agency or organization and continues throughout their service.

Training and development programs can increase volunteer retention when they meet the needs of the volunteers. Meeting their needs occurs when the information that the training and development program provides is perceived as useful, applicable, hands-on, and desired by the volunteers (Culp, 1995). For more effective retention, researchers suggest that management include training that identifies volunteer assignments, requirements, and expectations (Seigel & DeLizia 1994).

Cook, Kiernan, & Ott surveyed approximately 1,500 volunteer 4-H leaders and found that 85% of these leaders recognized the need for training and desired it. They also linked volunteer commitment with volunteer participation in determining their training needs and the methods used to train them (Cook, Kiernan, & Ott 1986).

D'Braunstein and Ebersole found that satisfaction among volunteers is accomplished by emphasizing the potential for personal growth and development within a particular program (D'Braunstein & Ebersole, 1992).

Training is usually divided into different types, such as orientation, pre-service, and in-service. Orientation

training allows new volunteers to become indoctrinated to their organization. They learn policies, procedures, and the philosophy of the organization (Ilsley & Niemi, 1981). With orientation training, management can offer a positive and informative program that can more effectively develop a productive volunteer staff and aid in their long-term retention (Hubbell, 1993).

Some organizations offer volunteers orientation training to help develop skills for a specific assignment or job (Ilsley, 1993), including job procedures and job descriptions. Orientation training allows the volunteer to learn more about the organization and become more acclimated to it.

Pre-service training follows orientation training (Ilsley & Niemi, 1981). This training is intended to assess the needs of volunteers and give them formal skills needed by the organization. Without this phase of pre-service training, volunteers feel unprepared. Eventually, this lack of training could lead to the loss of these members or the dissolution of the organization. Pre-service training is unique in that a volunteer's satisfaction, abilities, and performance can be assessed and acted upon prior to placement (Ilsley & Niemi, 1981).

In-service training ensures a volunteer's continued growth and development. To be effective, in-service training must reflect the volunteer's social and learning needs (Ilsley & Niemi, 1981). In-service training can focus on a particular topic that can develop and lead the volunteer to achieve the goals of the organization (Smale, 1993). It can identify activities and opportunities that are available for the volunteer (Seigel, 1994).

Brudney (1992) explains that an organization can be more effective and save money by properly implementing a training program to the volunteer staff. Whether the training consists of seminars, workshops, or lectures, it can communicate the desired information. On-going training reinstates the mission or objectives of the institution and supports the wide range of hierarchical needs that exists for all people active in the service for the public good (Nice, 1994).

In 1997, Phillips explored the subject of training with 4-H volunteers. He determined that training and development could meet the needs of 4-H volunteers. He also found that meeting these needs would increase their satisfaction and that increased satisfaction led to increased retention (Phillips, 1997). Earlier work by

Kravitz also linked worker's job satisfaction to continued learning of new skills and use of those skills on the job (Kravitz, 1987).

The designing of training can also enhance retention. When volunteers actually design the training, their interests and subsequently retention may increase (Crandall, 1993).

Stout (1973) gave the following guidelines on training and volunteer staff development:

1. For an individual to consider volunteering in an organization, that person has to understand the organization's objectives and goals.
2. The individual also has to identify his own interests and competencies as they relate to the organization. If he is not interested or feels that he does not have the ability to perform in the organization he will be difficult to recruit.
3. The role and expectations related to carrying out that role need to be clear.
4. The person needs to understand the competencies that will be needed to carry out the role successfully in relation to his own abilities.

5. Using this information, appropriate in-service training needed to fulfill the role can be identified and selected.
6. Participation in appropriate activities and training is necessary to be successful.
7. The individual redefines his own interests and needs in relation to the organization. This has great bearing on whether he continues in the organization or seeks other opportunities.

Stout concluded: Throughout the whole process, the leader needs to be experiencing some satisfaction, observing some achievement, and getting some form of recognition if he is to perform successfully and remain with the organization. Opportunities to consult, counsel, and evaluate with professional staff are needed continuously.

In non-profit organizations, volunteers offer their services for free. So, it becomes more important to motivate them to give their best to the organization. A good training program will serve this purpose.

Comprehensive orientation and volunteer training programs show that the organization values them enough to make an investment in them (Seven Steps 1997).

Boyce (1971) suggested that a training program should:

1. Assist the leader in developing the basic skills necessary to perform the assigned task.
2. Give the leader a feeling of confidence so that he will later be willing to accept larger responsibilities.
3. Provide the leader with support and an opportunity for personal growth.

Lippitt and Schindler-Rainman (1971) suggested a continuous training plan with five phases for staff development:

1. Pre-service training. This is training of a volunteer before he begins work.
2. Start-up support. This phase gives assistance to the volunteer as he begins his service. In this phase, the trainer may be another volunteer who has had some experiences in the organization and on the job.
3. Maintenance-of-effort training. A volunteer throughout his period of service needs regular times for asking questions and gaining additional knowledge about what he is doing. He needs to feel that the organization is committed to his growth on the job.
4. Periodic review and feedback. Frequently in the beginning, probably less often as time goes on, the trainer and the volunteer need to have the opportunity

to discuss whether goals are being accomplished, how the volunteer feels about his accomplishment, how he feels about the way the organization is treating him, how he would make the job better or improve the service, how the trainer feels the volunteer could function more effectively, and so on. These opportunities can be accomplished face-to-face or in a group meeting.

5. Transition training. Volunteers have a need to grow and to assume more responsibility.

Naylor (1976) wrote that volunteers and staff both seek additional education that will broaden their awareness, sharpen their skills, deepen their knowledge, and give them better insights. Naylor supports involving the new volunteer in planning the training to ensure that specific areas of need are accorded the necessary attention.

Boyce (1971) suggests that besides the skill training in subject matter, the new volunteer will want to know: How to recruit and keep his clientele? How to obtain others' cooperation as leaders or resource people? How to obtain facilities? What teaching aids are available for doing the job? And what opportunities are there for sharing experiences with peer volunteers?

The National 4-H Volunteer Leadership Development Committee Report (1973) suggested building training around the individual's own situations. The committee urged the consideration of individualized instruction using programmed texts, volunteers counseling volunteers, television, and other technologies.

In a report on a study of the 4-H Club program in the Northeastern states, Sabrosky (1959) suggests the following topics for training leaders to meet their needs:

1. How to organize and hold a meeting.
2. How to understand boys and girls at different ages.
3. How to get parent and community cooperation, and why it is important.
4. How to assign responsibility to others and get their cooperation.
5. Why a leader keeps records and reports on how they are used.
6. Why it is important to their development for boys and girls to complete their projects.

All Peace Corps volunteers receive individual training to match their assignments. For some, training involves year-long internships in specialized fields. For others with experience and certain skills, it involves the basic

three-month Peace Corps training which includes language training and cross-cultural preparation (Cull and Hardy, 1974).

Of course, learning is the by-product of training. Organizations that invest in training are hoping that learning will take place and then that the learning will translate into more effective, efficient and more motivated employees. Obviously, the same premise applies to volunteers as well. Learning is part of the contract between the organization and the volunteer (McCabe 1997). Ross-Gordon and Dowling (1995) believed that many motivational factors were explicitly and implicitly linked to learning. For instance, Geber (1991) and Rumsey (1996) found that learning new skills for career advancement or exploring job options was an important motivator.

Leeds (1996) studied volunteers working with youth programs and believed that training involves important principles of theory, research, and practice that are applicable to a wide variety of activities and are valuable in working with individuals and groups. Leeds also believed that developing knowledge and codifying research and experience enriches our lives.

Edwards and Watts (1983) surveyed 261 human service agencies and found six strategies for retaining volunteers. Providing training was one of those strategies.

Retention Factors

Controversy exists about what motivates volunteers to join and how long they will stay (Smith, 1994). Current work being done at the macro level on voluntary associations shows a strong competition among voluntary associations for a limited number of individuals, especially since many volunteers migrate from one voluntary association to another (McPherson & Rotolo 1996; Popielarz & McPherson 1995). As different voluntary associations compete for a limited pool of available volunteers, turnover becomes a major organizational problem.

Comparing volunteers at various levels of tenure has not been accomplished. The volunteer who quits has generally been ignored. In studying the retention of college students volunteering at a crisis center, Mahoney and Pechura (1980) found little research on patterns of volunteer retention. They believed that further study was warranted.

An abundance of research explains the many reasons why people volunteer but not what keeps them active and

involved in an organization. Fizer (1962) found that the constant turnover of 4-H leaders limited the interest and caused a higher dropout rate of members.

According to a study conducted by the Hay Group, the keys to employee retention are skills development, competence of management, and rewards (both psychological and financial) (Leonard, 1998). "To retain employees, organizations need to think seriously about their investment in training and development" (Leonard, 1998). Along these same lines, Ross-Gordon and Dowling (1995) believed that learning is a crucial factor in volunteers' satisfaction with their experience. They also felt that satisfied participants are more likely to remain committed to the organization. Burke and Lindsay (1985) also shared this idea. They found that in order for volunteers to stay committed, they must perceive some level of achievement or satisfaction.

Another 1999 study by the Hay Group found that 90% of more than 500,000 employees mentioned career growth, learning, development, exciting work, challenge, and making a difference as the top reasons for staying with a company (Training & Development, 2000).

In a study of 30 supervisors from six different companies, Gershwin found that workplace learning improved retention. She found that the employees who participated in workplace learning had a 21% higher retention rate than those who did not participate (Gershwin, 1996).

Research findings indicate that a common reason for the retention of volunteers is tied to the family life cycle. The parents of school-age children tend to volunteer more, especially in organizations where their children also belong (McPherson 1981).

Knoke and Thomson (1977) also believed that youth groups contained this unique component of the family life cycle; and therefore, long-term volunteers were unlikely because the parent would often move on to other organizations when the child grew up.

The 4-H Clubs of America have been extensively studied in this area of family volunteers. Culp (1997) found that parents had a strong desire for their children to join 4-H because they had belonged. Additionally, Culp discovered that when the child left the program, this provided the strongest disincentive for the parent to continue.

When Rohs (1986) studied volunteers and the 4-H he found that the more time volunteers spent with parents and

neighbors the longer they stayed in the program. Although her sample was low, in the same year, Helbling's (1986) research of long-term volunteer tenures with the Girl Scouts produced similar results.

People live their lives with purpose. Everyone values something; and if their work involves a central purpose, they are more motivated. Purpose is foundational to performance, and Bellman (1996) encourages people to think about their work, determine how important it is to their purpose, and then consider how to make it more rewarding.

Praise is recognition for positive work. Praise is a key motivator. Good leaders practice encouragement and praise. Blanchard (1996) says that the most important concept he teaches is "catching people doing things right." A significant way people are motivated is a personal thank you for a good job. A personal thank you can include a face-to-face encounter or a personal note.

Peter Drucker (1990) stated that leaders must understand that workers are not entirely motivated by the regular paycheck. In the non-profit arena, there is a greater need for a clear understanding of motivation. In a non-profit environment, workers need achievement opportunities and a sense of satisfaction for service or

they might become angry, less productive, and even hostile. There must be a connection between the mission of the organization and their personal contributions to the fulfillment of the mission.

For volunteers to be satisfied and effective, there should be congruence between their expectations and the reality of what the volunteer program offers (Phillips, 1982). Having this congruence between expectations and reality, was later supported by Balenger (1989) and Culp (1996). Not only were volunteers dissatisfied, but they also discontinued their service.

When volunteers are given an active role in planning and decision-making, they are more likely to remain with an organization (Drucker, 1990; Martin, 1994). If volunteers are encouraged to contribute their ideas and then their ideas are implemented, then retention can be improved (Coles, 1993).

Research and a move toward greater conceptual complexity in understanding volunteers are positive steps toward recruiting additional volunteers and providing them with satisfactory experiences. One flaw of previous conceptualizations and studies of volunteers, however, is that they have tended to focus their efforts on only one

volunteer organization, generalizing from those results to other organizations and volunteers (Drucker, 1990).

Person-environment fit theory (Holland, 1985), however, suggests that individuals in diverse organizations would have different personal characteristics, which would make generalizing from one organization to all volunteers misleading. The possibility that volunteers in different organizations are very different types of people has implications for volunteer recruitment and retention.

Holland (1985) found extensive evidence for his theory that both people and environments can be represented by characteristic types. The greater the type consistency between the individual and the environment, the more satisfied the individual. There are six types that characterize both individuals and environments. Holland's theory postulates that people will search for environments that will allow them to utilize their skills and abilities and to express their attitudes and values. Social people will seek social environments, while investigative people will seek investigative environments.

In another person-environment theory developed by Murray (1938), it is predicted that individuals seek situations that will fulfill their needs. Murray's theory

contains 15 individual motivations, such as the needs for achievement, autonomy, order, and deference. Murray hypothesized that people are compelled to act in such a way as to satisfy their needs. This drive is a motivation.

Many interrelated variables account for the success of goal attainment and an individual's motivation. According to Freeman (1978) such variables are found both in the internal operation of the organization and outside of the organization's structure.

The new volunteer is always faced with decisions of how long to continue and whether to put more or less energy into the activity. Volunteers can always change their mind and drop out. Faced with the possibility of volunteer drop out, agents can take steps to ensure volunteer continuity and intensify their commitment. Motivation and commitment of volunteers depend upon the values, attitudes, and behaviors of their professional supervisors and coordinators and upon policies and psychological atmosphere of the agency or organization (Freeman, 1978).

Freeman (1978) examined the organizational factors contributing to the motivation of the 4-H volunteer leaders and found that factors contributing to job satisfaction were recognition, work itself, responsibility, personal

growth, achievement, and relations with members and parents. Factors contributing to job dissatisfaction were guidance and training, policy and administration, and relationship to leaders. Freeman also found that the factors; relationship with members and parents and achievement, which served as sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction functioned both as motivational and hygiene factors.

Based on the above findings, Freeman (1978) concluded that administrators of volunteer programs should minimize opportunity for hygiene factors to become significant to 4-H leaders.

Volunteer satisfaction will be enhanced if motivational needs for achievement, affiliation, and power can be met through volunteer involvement. According to Fischer and Schaffer (1993), some combination of characteristics of fulfillment of needs appears to overcome common organizational dysfunctions.

Two approaches helped the Peace Corps improve their retention. One was a three-day orientation seminar designed to show precisely what conditions the volunteer would experience (Cull & Hardy, 1974). Secondly, the Peace Corps

shifted much of the training to the host countries rather than in the United States.

In the 1960s, the VISTA program was created as the volunteer arm of the Office of Economic Opportunity (Cull & Hardy, 1974). VISTA charged with alleviating poverty in America. Initially, training was limited; however, by the 1970s training became an important part of VISTA. VISTA conducted training in the following areas: (1) orientation and the role of the volunteer; (2) communication in the culture in which the volunteer would serve; (3) skills training; (4) extension training for teaching co-workers; (5) special training; and (6) qualification training based on performance descriptions. Forty percent of all VISTA volunteers re-enrolled after their first year of service (Cull & Hardy, 1974).

Recent attempts have been made in higher education to increase the involvement of students in volunteer activities and to increase the quality of their experiences. These efforts have, in part, been founded on (1) the importance attributed to the services made available through volunteer commitment; (2) the finding that involvement in campus activities contributes to student development (Astin, 1985); and (3) the apparent

positive relationship between campus involvement and overall retention rates for students in higher education (Astin, 1977; Mallinckrodt & Sedlacek, 1987).

Traditionally, the retention of volunteers is closely connected with the motivation that originally brought them to the organization. This motivation has been regarded as a sense of altruism. More recent findings suggest that motivation is more pragmatic in nature and have questioned altruism. Blau (1975) concluded that volunteers always, if not explicitly at least implicitly, expect something for their participation in social interaction.

In a similar study on motivation and volunteers, Sherrott (1983) found that whatever causes a person to initially volunteer must continue to live up to that person's expectations. In volunteer work, enthusiasm takes the place of money; and when the enthusiasm stops, the volunteer stops.

Brudney points out that the reasons most frequently mentioned for continuing to volunteer are the same reasons most frequently mentioned for first becoming involved in a volunteer activity (Brudney, 1990). On the other hand, McCurley and Lynch (1989) found that volunteer needs change over time and change differently for each individual.

Thus, even though a person's basic reasons for volunteering may remain unchanged, a volunteer may anticipate different motivational needs at different stages of their experience.

Pearce (1983) warned that the rewards volunteers expected are often not the rewards most salient to them once they have become volunteers. Further, this shift in rewards can result in the rapid departure of many volunteers.

In 1975, a study was conducted on senior-citizen programs. The study concluded that in-service meetings and socializing among the volunteers had the greatest significance in maintaining interest and morale for the volunteers (Booz, Allen, & Hamilton, 1975). These two factors built their self-confidence and job satisfaction.

Aves (1969) identifies three types of individuals who become volunteers: (1) those whose motives are idealistic, (2) those who participate as a means of gaining power or prestige, and (3) those who were pressed into service because of some specific knowledge they possess or influence they have. The first group may have some degree of altruism; the second does not; and the third may or may not have any. Some people are convinced that there has been a decline in altruism over time. Hyler (1975) studied

two groups that disagreed on whether their desire to help others motivated them to stay with a group. He found that the claimed altruism was insufficient as a force to maintain volunteer loyalty (Hyler, 1975). Actually, the group that claimed joining for self-centered reasons stayed, on the average, two months longer with the organization.

Cecilia Cooper (1966) compared paid workers with volunteers in a hospital setting. She focused on job satisfaction. Cooper found that the demands for response and recognition were greater on the part of the volunteers.

Romen (1977) studied job satisfaction in paid and unpaid workers in an industrial plant in Israel. Romen found that the treatment by supervisors and the opportunity for advancement were equally important for both groups.

Henderson (1980) wrote that an organization that is aware of the characteristics and motivations of volunteers that are likely to succeed and fit well into the organization can target their recruitment efforts toward these students. Targeting these characteristics and motivations also has implications for the retention of volunteers. According to person-environment fit theory, it is reasonable that a better match between individual

characteristics and motivations on one hand, and organizational structure and rewards on the other, would tend to result in a longer tenure for volunteers in the organization. An organization can maximize this fit for its volunteers by considering the nature of volunteer tasks as well as the type of rewards that are offered (Henderson, 1980).

Fitch (1987) found that volunteers had both altruistic and egoistic reasons for volunteering, and he suggested that providing rewards for volunteers may be the key to increasing the quality and quantity of volunteer involvement. Altering the organization's task and reward structure to better meet the needs and characteristics of the volunteers can enhance the retention efforts.

Orenstein (1989) stated that because of the instability and transitions elemental to young adulthood, it is predicted that employees in this early career stage, late teens and early twenties, will express the intention to exit an organization more often than at any other career stage.

Research suggests that job satisfaction established early in the employment can significantly reduce the risk

of new recruits becoming disillusioned, which in turn decreases the risk of early resignation (Bevan, 1997).

Sergent (1989) stated that volunteers sought environments that match their personalities, strengths, and values. Balenger (1989) found that although personalities and friends and various affiliation needs are important reasons for volunteers joining organizations, the main reason for joining comes from achievement-oriented goals. Achievement goals can be enhanced by conducting training. Learning more through training is a strong motivator for satisfaction and higher retention.

Mihalicz (1996) studied volunteers in non-profit organizations, and he concluded that motivated volunteers spent more time and were more committed to their organizations. This would then lead to more involvement and higher retention. The motivation of these volunteers was frequently connected to the feeling of being involved with a worthy and worthwhile organization.

In 1964, Sabrosky studied the relationships between 4-H leaders and the causes for drop out. She attempted to predict the variables that would explain why some volunteers dropped out after one year or less. She found that former 4-H volunteers indicated the lack of training

was the number one reason for dropping out. She concluded that a volunteer's perception of his or her role was a significant factor in retaining the volunteer for a second year (Sabrosky, 1964).

Another study that agrees with this line of thinking was completed by Murk. Murk (1990) discovered that on average, 70% of volunteers stay with an organization when they consider the training to be meaningful. Tinto (1987) found that the best way to retain people in an educational setting was to focus on the education. The retention will follow. This concentration will enhance the education, which in turn makes the education or the training meaningful, and meaningful is good for retention.

Roberts and Outley believed that any successful retention strategy must include training. Providing training helps preserve the desire for longevity within an organization. Organizations should establish policies that include professional training and career development even to part time or seasonal staff. Training opportunities such as leadership development and management strategies should be offered and encouraged (Roberts & Outley, 2002).

Hemsley-Brown (2003) found that colleges increased their staff retention by providing training. She

summarized that training was a key factor in reducing the rate of early attrition. Experienced staff could use their personal skills to implement a range of strategies to reduce the rates of leaving early.

Turnover in child care facilities is considered to be high. By 1990, the national average had risen to 41% (Galinsky, 1990). After a training program was initiated in a childcare facility in Mobile, Alabama, 68% of the employees were still employed after one year. (Shirah, 1993).

Concerning the high turnover at day care facilities Sexton's (1996) research found that training is critical to lower turnover. Training helps the workers feel more appreciated and better prepared to do their jobs. Feeling more appreciated and better prepared makes them more satisfied, and they stay longer.

Gamon (1978) found that reducing worker turnover means increasing job satisfaction. Francies (1983) discovered that when volunteers' satisfaction increased, the likelihood of continuing service increased.

Gamon also found that volunteer satisfaction can be achieved by providing training opportunities for advancement. Culp (1995) found that training and

development programs can increase volunteer retention when they meet the needs of the volunteer.

The review of literature reveals a relationship between training and retention. Likewise, the type of training is significant. A member needs to feel a commitment to the organization and needs to feel challenged and rewarded. This commitment gives them a feeling of satisfaction, which results in higher retention. When Sabrosky (1964) studied former 4-H volunteers, she found that lack of training was the number one reason why volunteers dropped out of 4-H.

Roda (1996) found that involving people within an organization enhances communication and cooperation and impacts retention. Roda encouraged team building as the process for encouraging interaction among members. She thought team building was essential to job satisfaction and employee retention. Involved team members increased retention. Lacey (1991) described similar results. She found that small groups increased the quality and quantity of participation, which elevated thinking skills and self-esteem, which in turn increased learning and retention.

While studying volunteer retention in minority communities, Applebaum (1992) found that quality training

programs are a major factor in retaining volunteers. One way to learn more is to conduct training. Zeutschel (1989) concluded that making volunteers feel like a part of the organization and giving them the opportunity for new learning was key to keeping volunteers.

Bevan (1997) discovered that allowing for the training early in a new recruit's relationship with an organization was also crucial. Giving the new recruit that initial training opportunity was a positive motivator. Bruce and Marshall (2001) found that retention practices continue during orientation and assimilation into the organization.

Hatcher (1995) concurred and stated that most turnover occurred within the first 21 weeks of employment. Hatcher researched a manufacturing plant with a turnover of 84% per year. Solomon (1997) took this study even further by proposing that most companies lose half of their employees in the first three to four years. She also felt that a good retention program must work to retain people as soon as they join. Smart human resource professionals realize that retention is one of the most important staffing issues.

Retention starts with a comprehensive retention strategy. Solomon says that a good retention plan must

have a planned approach, treat people like individuals, value and invest in its employees, and approach retention as a long-term not a short-term strategy. (Solomon, 1997)

An extensive training program, according to Solomon (1997), is an important ingredient in high retention. Smart human resource professionals realize that retention is one of the most important staffing considerations. Companies need to increase an employee's competencies and skills, and accomplishing this involves training. Solomon contends that retention can be increased with innovative training programs. Training with the newest technologies is important to workers, and companies must provide the tools that allow employees to develop their careers.

Smith (1984) believed that in-service seminars increased the retention of adult literacy programs. She researched a program where retention was up 29% in one year after in-service seminars were instituted.

Molnar (1993) echoes these sentiments when he mentioned that strategies to improve grades at colleges in the first semester have the greatest impact on retention. So, in that setting as well, retention is affected greatly by actions taken in the very beginning. Murray studied the

hotel and catering industry and found that retention was directly linked to job satisfaction.

Stevens researched role satisfaction in volunteers and concluded that role competence, or the more knowledge and skill the volunteer perceived to have, accounted for higher retention (Stevens, 1988). Thus, a body of research supports the concept that retention can be positively impacted by training and involving members early in their relationship with the organization.

In summary, studying retention in a non-profit volunteer organization is aided immeasurably by researching the motivations and conduct of volunteers. Volunteerism and motivation are inseparably linked and have been thoroughly analyzed. Studies have shown a myriad of reasons for why people volunteer. Reasons range from altruism to personal need satisfaction or from organizational commitment to self-improvement. Regardless of the reasons, people are volunteering in dramatic numbers. A 1999 survey indicated that 56% of America's adult population volunteered (Sitrin, 2000). Understanding these volunteers relates directly to the retention in an organization.

Training is another factor that impacts retention.

Many researchers uncovered a link between training and retention. Training offers the opportunity to grow and learn and when combined with an organizational element can lead to greater retention.

Finally, studying the motivation of volunteers and any related training is valuable to understanding retention. Any direct analysis of retention in a non-profit volunteer organization invariably includes the motivations of those volunteers and any associated training.

III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

This study was designed to identify the selected training factors that impact on retention within a volunteer organization. This chapter describes in detail how the study was conducted. Population and sampling procedures, survey instrumentation (Appendix B), validity and reliability of the instrument, data collection procedures, and data analysis are presented in this chapter.

Permission to conduct the study was granted from the Auburn University Institutional Review Board (Appendix A). Permission was also granted from the participants by the return of a completed survey.

Population and Sample

The population of this study was Civil Air Patrol cadets, former cadets, and senior members of the organization. CAP is comprised of over 61,000 people located in every state in the United States and in Puerto Rico and Washington D.C. The population of cadets is over

26,000, and the population of senior members is over 35,000.

The organization maintains an active database containing email addresses of thousands of members and former members. Because of this capability to potentially reach thousands, the internet method was chosen for this study. The internet has the ability to collect large amounts of data without interviews, stationery or postage, and to process answers without separate data entry, making the cost of doing web surveys very attractive (Witt, 1998). Also, survey research professionals suggested that web surveys be used primarily with specifically identifiable samples such as "in-house" employee groups (Shannon, Johnson, Searcy, & Lott, 2001). The CAP population fits that description.

Three separate databases were used to identify cadets, former cadets, and senior members. The senior members are also referred to as adult members. The adult database contained 15,329 names. A nonprobability systematic sampling method was used for this population. Every fifth name on the list was selected, which resulted in a sampling of 3,065. From that number, 258 email addresses were incorrect. So, the final sample was 2,798. Of those that

received a survey, 867 participated for a response rate of 31%.

For the former cadet population, there were 4,879 email addresses on the database. Of that total, 2,009 were incorrect email addresses, leaving a population of 2,870. Of that number, 382 responded, for a 13.3% response rate.

The current cadet sample was based solely on who received parental permission to participate in the survey. The procedures for this sample will be explained in the data collection section of this chapter. The total number of current cadets responding to the survey was 552.

Instrumentation

The data were collected on three researcher-designed surveys (Appendix D) entitled Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (CVQ), Former Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (FCVQ), and Adult Volunteer Questionnaire (AVQ). The researcher developed the survey instruments after appropriate instruments were not revealed in the review of literature. Formats for presentation of the various assessment items were found in relevant texts and articles.

The CVQ included the following components:

(a) demographic data; (b) motivation; (c) training;

(d) retention; and (e) additional comments. The demographic data in section one included gender, age, race, state of residence, residence status, grade in school, amount of time in CAP, and type of CAP squadron.

In section two of the CVQ, motivation, participants were asked for the reasons they joined CAP. Participants were also asked about their experiences and responsibilities in CAP. Participants responded using a Likert-type scale.

In section three, training, participants were asked eight different questions about their training experiences. They were asked about the difficulty of the training, and whether they liked the training. They were also asked if they received the appropriate training. These training questions included the five categories of training that cadets experience: flying, moral leadership, aerospace education, physical fitness, and leadership. All of the questions used a Likert-type scale.

In section four, retention, participants were asked their opinion about their experiences in CAP and why they stay in CAP. They were also asked specific questions about the instructors, curriculum, activities, and knowledge learned in each of the five training areas using a Likert-

type scale. Finally, they were asked how many hours they devoted a month to training in CAP.

Section five asked the participants for any additional comments they wanted to make, and then asked them for any suggestions that could help CAP recruit and retain cadets.

The demographics data in the FCVS included gender, age now and age when in CAP, race, state of residence, residence status, current grade, amount of time spent in CAP, type of CAP squadron, and rank when cadet left CAP.

The second section of FCVS, motivation, asked former cadets for the reasons they left CAP. The question asked for the top three reasons in order of importance. Then, several questions asked about the former cadet's experiences in CAP, including their thoughts about the adult volunteers who conducted the training, their feelings about how the CAP meetings were conducted and about their responsibilities. These questions used a Likert-type scale to ascertain their opinions.

In section three, training, Likert-type scales were used to ask thirteen questions about the different aspects of their training. These included the difficulty of each of the five categories, as well as, whether the former cadets enjoyed the different types of training. Questions

also asked whether the former cadets thought they learned anything in their sessions.

In section four, retention, the former cadets were asked about their experiences, involvement and treatment while they were part of CAP. This information was also provided by a Likert-type scale.

Section five, attrition, listed forty-five different reasons for leaving CAP. Number forty-five was titled, other reasons, and former cadets could state anything that was not already covered by the other reasons. Cadets were asked to list their top three reasons in order of importance. The last part of attrition asked for any suggestions that might lead to better retention in CAP. This was an open-ended question requiring a written response.

The third survey instrument was the AVQ. The first section was demographics, which asked for gender, age, race, marital status, state of residence, residence status, employment status, occupation, yearly income, education, responsibilities in CAP, length of time with CAP, amount of time each month spent with CAP, and the number of children who are current members of CAP.

The second section, motivation, asked the adult to rate their satisfaction with the organization, other leaders, the cadets, volunteer recognition, and training. A Likert-type scale was used to collect the data. The next part of this section asked ten questions pertaining to the adult volunteer's experiences in CAP. The volunteers were asked to rate the appropriate importance they placed on each question by rating it from very unimportant to very important.

The final section of AVQ asked the adults if they had any suggestions to help recruit and retain cadets and adult leaders.

Validity

Validity is concerned with the extent an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Researchers must ask questions to determine validity. Does this test really measure motivation? Does this test really measure attitudes? The process of gathering evidence to answer such questions is called validation (Ary, Jacobs, et al., 1996). Validity is not some general characteristic that a test possesses. It is always specific to the particular purpose for which the instrument is being used (Ary, Jacobs, et al., 1996).

Of particular interest to this study is construct-related validity because this research analyzes motivation and training. The attitudes toward these constructs cannot be directly measured, but behaviors associated with the constructs can be measured.

The logical approach is one method for studying a construct. This approach inspects items to determine if they are appropriate for assessing the construct. A panel of expert university faculty members was used to evaluate the content of this study's questionnaires. Content-related and face validity were also established as the panel agreed that the questions seemed relevant and meaningful.

Using the comparison of answers of defined groups will discriminate one group from another. Comparing a group of current cadets with former cadets should discriminate between the groups. These results should support criterion-related validity.

Finally, the design used for the criterion-related evidence was predictive. Research data from previous studies provided data on the relationship between motivation and training and the retention that occurred at a future time.

Reliability

The reliability of a measuring instrument is concerned with the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring (Ary, Jacobs, et al., 1996). It is concerned with the consistency with which the variables can be assessed. Reliability estimates indicate the stability, internal consistency, and equivalence of the items composing the measurement device (Keppel, Zedeck, 1989).

Reliability is affected by random errors. Random error refers to error that is a result of pure chance (Ary, Jacobs, et al., 1996). It may arise from problems with the instrument or it might result from the population sample. It is generally accepted that all measurements of human qualities contain some error. Reliability procedures are concerned with determining the degree of inconsistency in scores due to random error (Ary, Jacobs, et al., 1996).

To estimate the reliability of the survey instruments, the researcher was most concerned with internal consistency measures. To meet these internal standards, the researcher employed homogeneity measures, thereby assessing the inter-item consistency.

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and the Cronbach alpha formula was used to measure the

reliability of the questionnaires. Cronbach alpha, also referred to as the coefficient alpha, is used when items are not simply scored as right or wrong. This formula works well with attitudinal scales like the Likert-type scale questionnaires used for this study.

Additionally, of the participants who responded to the questionnaires, no one failed to answer any question, nor did they give several answers to any of the questions. These are normal signs of unreliable questions that need revision; however, the situation did not occur with the questionnaires used with this study.

Data Collection

The data collection for each of the three questionnaires was handled differently. The CVQ was the questionnaire pertaining to the current cadets. Most of the current cadets are under the age of nineteen; therefore, a parental consent form was needed before the cadets could participate in the survey. The parental consent form (appendix B), along with a cover letter (appendix C), was sent to 900 squadron commanders. This number represents the number of every cadet and composite squadron in CAP. Several copies of the consent letter were sent to the commanders.

The commanders were asked to distribute the letters to their cadets and have them take the letters home to receive parental consent. The cadets would then bring back the signed forms to the commander. A self-addressed envelope was provided for the commanders to send back to the researcher. Once the researcher received the parental consent form, the cadet was sent the questionnaire via email. Involving the commanders was deemed the most appropriate method for obtaining the best return on the forms, plus it was also the most cost effective method.

An email message asking for participation in a survey was sent to 2,798 senior members of CAP, along with a link to the website containing the questionnaire. These senior members are adults who are involved with the Cadet Program. This group had the largest return rate, over 30%.

The former cadets were handled in two different ways depending on their age. The nineteen and over former cadets were sent an email message asking them to participate in a survey, along with a link to the website that contained the questionnaire. The cadets under nineteen year olds were sent an email message informing them of the survey and asking for their participation. The message also mentioned that parental consent would be

necessary for their involvement. These former cadets were asked to email the researcher, who would in turn send them the parental consent form. The cadets had their parents sign it and returned it to the researcher. The cadets were then sent the questionnaire.

Follow-up procedures were conducted for all of the groups. For the adult members, an email reminder was sent. For the former cadets, an email reminder was sent to both the younger cadets and the over nineteen year old cadets. Finally, for the current cadets, the researcher placed phone calls and email reminders to several of the commanders asking for their cooperation.

Data Analysis

Statistical treatment of the data included the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 12.0). Descriptive statistics were used to organize, describe, and summarize the collected data. Chi-square tests were conducted.

When the data consist of frequencies in discrete categories, the chi-square test may be used to determine the significance of differences between two independent groups. The focus of the test is on whether the differences in proportions exceed those

expected as chance or random deviations from proportionality (Siegel & Castellan, 1998, p.111). Chi-square is determined by comparing the actual, or observed, frequencies in a table to the frequencies that would be expected if there were no relationship between the two variables in the sample population (Connor-Linton, 2005). The chi-square test is the appropriate nonparametric statistic to use for dichotomous variables when $N > 40$ (Siegel & Castellan, 1998).

Chi-square tests were used to determine the relationship between the former and current cadets of CAP. Seven separate chi-square analyses were used to investigate differences between former and current cadets across gender, race, residence status, grade in school, amount of time in CAP, type of cadet squadron, and the reasons for joining CAP.

Follow up analyses were used to further investigate significant differences between former and current cadets among the residence status, grade in school, and time spent in CAP variables. Bonferroni was used to control for Type I error with adjusted p values.

T-tests were used where the independent variable was dichotomous and the dependent variable was continuous.

(Shannon & Davenport, 2001). Independent sample t-test was used to analyze any significant difference in age between former and current cadets and to investigate the training factors used to analyze satisfaction. T-tests were also used to investigate the motivational factors from the surveys.

A value above the critical level for the appropriate degrees of freedom indicates significance. This level was determined to be .05 level of probability.

CHAPTER IV. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

This study was designed to provide information that would lead to a better understanding of retention and thereby improve the retention rate of CAP cadets. This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected from current cadets within CAP, former cadets, and senior members of CAP.

Descriptive Data Analysis and Results

Descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, were run in SPSS to summarize, analyze, organize, and describe the data to provide an indication of the relationships between variables.

The Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (CVQ), the Adult Volunteer Questionnaire (AVQ), and the Former Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (FCVQ) instruments were designed to collect data regarding the gender, age, race, residence, amount of time in CAP, and employment status. Tables 1-3 present this information.

Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire

Table 1

Demographic Data of Respondents

Categories	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	424	82.5
Female	90	17.5
Age		
12-13	59	11.5
14-15	135	26.3
16-17	198	38.5
18-21	122	23.7
Race		
Caucasian	455	88.5
Hispanic	21	4.1
Asian	19	3.7
African American	11	2.1
Native American	5	1.0
Residence Area (US)		
Northeast	109	21.2
Middle East	54	10.5
Great Lakes	72	14.0

Table 1 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
Southeast	79	15.4
North Central	26	5.1
Southwest	61	11.9
Rocky Mountain	31	6.0
Pacific	76	14.8
Residence Status		
Suburban	256	49.8
Rural	135	26.3
Urban	123	23.9
Amount of Time in CAP		
Less than 1 year	81	15.8
1-2 years	162	31.5
More than 2 years	271	52.7
CAP Squadron		
Cadet	130	25.3
Composite	384	74.7
Cadet Rank		
Airman	172	34.1
Sgt-TSgt	62	12.3
MSgt-CMSgt	69	13.7

Table 1 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
Lieutenant	132	26.1
Capt-Major	48	9.5
LtCol-Col	21	4.2

Adult Volunteer Questionnaire

Table 2

Demographic Data of Respondents

Categories	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	717	82.7
Female	150	17.3
Age		
18-29	126	14.7
30-39	137	15.9
40-49	264	30.7
50-59	197	22.9
60-69	98	11.4
70-79	32	3.7

Table 2 (continued)

80-87	4	.5
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Categories	n	Percent
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Race		
Caucasian	791	92.0
Hispanic	26	3.0
Asian	13	1.5
African American	11	1.3
Native American	9	1.1
Marital Status		
Married	610	71.0
Single	158	18.4
Divorced	65	7.6
Widowed	13	1.5
Separated	13	1.5
Residence Status		
Rural	185	21.5
Suburban	355	41.3
Urban	319	37.1
CAP Squadron		
Cadet	105	12.2
Composite	754	87.8

Table 2 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
Employment Status		
Full Time	623	72.5
Part Time	93	10.8
Retired	96	11.2
Not Working	47	5.5
Family Income		
\$100,000 or more	193	22.5
\$80,000-99,000	120	14.0
\$60,000-79,000	168	19.6
\$40,000-59,000	171	29.9
\$20,000-39,000	126	14.7
0-\$19,999	79	9.2
Highest Level of Education		
High School Graduate	63	7.3
Some College	209	24.3
Associate	87	10.1
Bachelor	286	33.3
Masters	157	18.3
Doctorate	57	6.6

Table 2 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
How Long a Volunteer		
Less than 1 year	152	17.7
1-2 years	177	20.6
2-5 years	230	26.8
5-10 years	126	14.7
More than 10 years	174	20.3
How many hours per month		
Less than 2	124	14.4
2-4 hours	115	13.4
5-10 hours	227	26.4
More than 10	393	45.8
How many children in CAP		
None	653	76.1
One	141	16.4
Two	44	5.1
Three or more	21	2.4

Former Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire

Table 3

Demographic Data of Respondents

Categories	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	310	83.6
Female	61	16.4
Age		
12-15	13	3.5
16-18	83	22.4
19-21	239	64.4
22-33	36	9.7
Race		
Caucasian	332	89.5
Hispanic	21	5.7
Asian	12	3.2
African American	6	1.6
Age when Cadet		
12-13	72	18.9
14-15	110	28.8
16-17	159	41.6
18-21	41	10.7

Table 3 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
Residence (Region)		
Northeast	66	17.8
Middle East	38	10.2
Great Lakes	65	17.5
Southeast	59	15.9
North Central	28	7.5
Southwest	36	9.7
Rocky Mountain	28	7.5
Pacific	51	13.7
Residence Status		
Rural	67	18.1
Suburban	188	50.6
Urban	116	31.3
Amount of time in CAP		
Less than 1 yr	14	3.8
1-2 years	92	24.8
More than 2 yrs	265	71.4
CAP Squadron		
Cadet	90	24.3
Composite	281	75.7

Table 3 (continued)

Categories	n	Percent
Cadet Rank		
Enlisted	145	39.1
Officer	226	60.9

Population Sample

Eight hundred and eighty-five (885) participants, 734 male (82.9%) and 151 female (17.1%) volunteered in this study. These numbers include both the current and former cadets. Five hundred and fourteen were current cadets of which 424 (82.5%) were male and 90 (17.5%) were female. Three hundred and seventy-one were former cadets of which 310 (83.6%) were male and 61 (16.4%) were female.

Age

Their age ranged from 10 to 33 ($M = 16.47$, $SD = 1.297$). The current cadets ages ranged from 10 to 21 and the former cadets ranged from 12 to 33.

Race

Seven hundred and eighty-seven participants identified themselves as White-Caucasian (88.9%), 42 as Hispanic

(4.7%), 31 as Asian (3.5%), 17 as African-American (1.9%), and 7 as Native-American (.6%). The breakdown by race was very similar for both current and former cadets. Current cadets that were Caucasian represented 88.5% of the sample. While former cadets that were Caucasian represented 89.5% of their sample.

Residence Status

One hundred and Ninety-eight participants identified their residence status as rural (22.4%), 445 as suburban (50.3%), and 242 as urban (27.3%). Three hundred and seventy-one of them (371) were former cadets (41.9%), whereas five hundred and fourteen (514) of them are current cadets (58.1%).

Time in CAP

One hundred participants (11.3%) spent less than one year in CAP, 85 participants (9.6%) spent 1 year, 167 participants (18.9%) 1 to 2 years, and 533 (60.2%) participants spent more than 2 years in CAP. Over 50% of both the current and former cadets spent over two years in CAP.

Type of Squadron

Of the 885 participants, 220 participants identified themselves as belonging to cadet squadrons (24.9%) and 665 (75.1%) of them as being part of a composite squadron.

Research Questions

Question 1: Is there a significant difference between the selected characteristics based on the profile of cadets who remain in CAP and the profile of those cadets who leave the program? If so, what differences exist?

To investigate differences between former and current cadets across gender, race, residence status, amount of time spent in CAP, cadet squadron, and the reasons for joining CAP, 6 separate Chi-square analyses of 2 (group: former vs. current) X 2 (gender: female vs. male); 2 (group: former vs. current) X 6 (race: White-Caucasian, Hispanic, Asian, African-American, Native-American, and other); 2 (group: former vs. current) X 3 (residence status: rural, suburban, and urban); 2 (group: former vs. current) X 4 (amount of time: less than one year, 1 year, 1 to 2 years, and more than 2 years); 2 (group: former vs. current) X 2 (squadron: cadet vs. composite); and 2 (group: former vs. current) X 7 (reasons: my friends joined, wanted to learn more, interested in

flying, learn more about aerospace, my parents wanted me to join, serve my community, and other) were conducted, respectively. Table 4 displays the number, percentages, chi-square, and p-values across gender, race, residence status, amount of time spent in CAP, and cadet squadron.

Table 4

Analyses across Gender, Race, Residence Status, Cadet Squadron, and Time Spent in CAP

Characteristic	Former n (%)	Current n (%)	Chi-Square χ^2
Gender			.357
Male	310 (83.6)	424 (82.5)	
Female	61 (16.4)	90 (17.5)	
Race			.3.569
African-American	6 (1.6)	11 (2.1)	
Asian	12 (3.2)	19 (3.7)	
Hispanic	21 (5.7)	21 (4.1)	
White-Caucasian	332 (89.2)	455 (88.5)	
Other		8 (1.6)	

* $p < .05$

Table 4 (continued)

Characteristic	Former n (%)	Current n (%)	Chi-Square χ^2
Residence status			10.884*
Rural	65 (17.5 %)	133 (25.9 %)	
Suburban	189 (50.9 %)	256 (49.8 %)	
Urban	117 (31.5 %)	125 (24.3 %)	
Time Spent in CAP			46.578*
< 1 year	15 (4.0 %)	85 (16.5 %)	
1 year	31 (8.4 %)	54 (10.5 %)	
1-2 years	60 (16.2 %)	107 (20.8 %)	
> 2 years	265 (71.4 %)	268 (52.1 %)	
Cadet squadron			.053
Cadet	92 (24.8 %)	124 (24.1 %)	
Composite	279 (75.2 %)	390 (75.9 %)	

p < .05

Gender

The Chi-square analyses indicated no statistically significant difference among the two groups in terms of gender $X^2(1, N = 885) = .357, p > .05$, with the majority of each group being male (82.5% of current cadets and 83.6% of former cadets).

Race

There was no statistically significant differences among the two groups in terms of race $X^2(1, N = 885) = 3.569, p > .05$, with the majority of each group being Caucasian (88.5% of current cadets and 89.5% of former cadets).

Type of Squadron

There was no statistically significant differences among the two groups in terms of the type of squadron $X^2(1, N = 885) = .053, p > .05$, in which the two groups belonged. The majority of each group belonged to composite squadrons (74.7% of current cadets and 75.7% of former cadets).

Residence Status

On the other hand, the analyses yielded statistically significant differences across residence status $X^2(1, N = 885) = 10.884, p < .05$, with the majority of the two groups living in the suburbs (49.8% for the current

cadets and 50.6% for the former cadets). This resulted in follow-up analyses to specify the differences. In the follow-up analyses, the Bonferroni was used to control for Type 1 error with adjusted p value of .017.

Table 5 presents the Chi-square, df, and the adjusted p values for residence status.

Table 5

Chi-Square Analyses for Residence Status

Residence status	df	χ^2
suburban-urban	1	2.190
rural-urban	1	10.813*
rural-suburban	1	5.333

* $p < .017$

According to the follow-up analysis to examine difference across residence statuses, the only difference was reported between rural and urban $\chi^2(1, N = 885) = 10.813, p < .05$, suggesting that whether you live in a rural area or urban area contributes to the retention in CAP. More current cadets (26.3%) were from rural areas than former cadets (18.1%) while more former cadets (31.3%) were from urban areas than current cadets (23.9%). The data

indicates that those living in a rural area were more likely to remain in the CAP program.

Time in CAP

The analysis yielded statistically significant differences between the amount of time spent in CAP between the two groups $X^2(1, N = 885) = 46.578, p < .05$. This resulted in follow-up analyses to specify the differences among the groups in time spent in CAP. In the follow-up analyses, the Bonferroni was used to control for Type I error with adjusted p value of .013.

The Chi-square analysis that investigates the difference between former and current cadets in terms of time they spent in CAP yielded statistical significance $X^2(1, N = 885) = 46.578, p < .05$. Table 6 displays the percentages, chi-square, and p-values across different time periods spent in CAP both by former and current cadets.

Table 6

Analyses for Different Time Periods

Time Spent in CAP Square	Former n (%)	Current n (%)	Chi- X ²
< 1 year	15 (4.0 %)	85 (16.5 %)	46.578*
1 year	31 (8.4 %)	54 (10.5 %)	
1-2 years	60 (16.2 %)	107 (20.8 %)	
> 2 years	265 (71.4 %)	268 (52.1 %)	

**p* < .05

Upon finding statistical significance, follow-up analyses were conducted to further investigate the difference between former and current cadets specifically. This yielded statistically significant difference between former and current cadets in that there were more current cadets than former cadets that spent less than 1 year in CAP; more current cadets than former cadets that spent one year in CAP; more current cadets than former cadets that spent 1 to 2 years in CAP; however, there were more former cadets than current cadets spent more than 2 years in CAP. Table 7 displays the Chi-square, df, and p-values for time spent by former and current cadets.

Table 7

Chi-Square Analyses for Amount of Time Spent in CAP

Time spent	df	X ²
Less than 1 year-1 year	1	11.337*
Less than 1 year-1 to 2 years	1	13.562*
Less than 1 year-more than 2 years	1	41.145*
1 year- 1 to 2 years	1	.007
1 year-more than 2 years	1	5.156
1-2 years-more than 2 years	1	9.723*

* $p < .013$

To examine whether there is statistically significant difference in age between former and current cadets, independent samples test was conducted. The statistical significance indicated that former cadets ($M = 19.87$, $SD = 8.096$) were older than the current cadets ($M = 16.08$, $SD = 2.184$), $t(883) = 10.132$, $p < .001$, $d = .104$.

Reasons for Joining CAP

The survey instruments aimed at the current and former cadets contained questions pertaining to the reasons for joining CAP. The current and former cadets were given eight different choices for the reasons why they joined CAP, with the last reason labeled as other.

In both groups, current and former cadets, interest in flying was listed as the primary reason for joining CAP. Interest in learning more about the military was listed as the second reason in both groups. For current cadets, wanting to serve the community and learning more about aerospace education were the third and fourth choices. For former cadets, aerospace education was third and serving the community was fourth. Interestingly, joining because friends joined was very low in both groups, but it was a little more common in former cadets.

Individual Chi-square analyses were conducted to investigate whether the reasons for joining the CAP varied between former and current cadets. The reasons for joining the CAP were specified as (1) my friends joined, (2) I wanted to learn more, (3) I was interested in flying, (4) I wanted to learn more about aerospace, (5) My parents wanted me to join, (6) I wanted to serve my community, and (7) Other. The only statistical significance $X^2(1, N = 885) = 7.841, p < .05$ was found between whether the cadets joined the CAP because their friends joined. Accordingly, more former cadets than expected joined the CAP program because their friends did ($N = 114$ or 30.7%), whereas fewer current cadets than expected joined the program because of

their friends (N = 115 or 22.4%). That is, the former cadets were more likely than current cadets to join the CAP program because of their friends. Table 8 displays the observed number of both former and current cadets across specified reasons.

Table 8

Reasons for Joining

Reasons	Former	Current
	n (%)	n (%)
My friends joined	114 (30.7 %)	115 (22.4 %)
Wanted to learn more	283 (76.3 %)	368 (71.6 %)
Interested in flying	292 (78.7 %)	371 (72.2 %)
Learn more about aerospace	159 (42.9 %)	204 (39.7 %)
My parents wanted me to join	43 (11.6 %)	69 (13.4 %)
Serve my community	145 (39.1 %)	225 (43.8 %)
Other	86 (23.2 %)	155 (30.2 %)

The Chi-square analysis to explore difference between former and current cadets in terms of their top reason for joining the CAP program indicated statistical significance $\chi^2(7, N = 820) = 88.589, p < .05$.

Reasons for Leaving CAP

The Former Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (FCVQ) asked an open-ended question pertaining to the reasons former cadets left CAP. Two hundred and one or 52.6% of the former cadets responded to the question. These former cadets stated the number one reason for leaving CAP was ineffective leadership. Over 40% (40.3%) listed this as the primary reason. Going to college was the second most popular reason for leaving CAP. Over 15% (15.4%) listed this reason. Ineffective or insufficient training was listed as the third reason with 12.9% responding in this manner. Table 9 presents the reasons former cadets left CAP.

Table 9

Reasons for Leaving

Reasons	n	%
Ineffective leadership	81	40.3
Went to college	31	15.4
Insufficient training	26	12.9
Not enough time	10	5.0
Turned 21 years old	7	3.5
Moved to different state	6	3.0

Research Questions

Question 2: Is there a significant difference between the selected training factors and retention in CAP? If so, what is the relationship?

To investigate the relationship between training factors identified as satisfaction with training in aerospace, leadership, moral leadership, flying, and physical fitness and retention in CAP, 5 separate independent sample t-tests were conducted.

Satisfaction with Aerospace Training

No statistical significance was reported in terms of satisfaction with training in aerospace between former ($M = 2.0863$, $SD = .497$) and current cadets ($M = 2.1012$, $SD = .443$), $t(883) = -.470$, $p > .05$, $d = .000$. As far as receiving the appropriate amount of aerospace training, 79.2% of current cadets and 75.5% of former cadets agreed that they had.

Satisfaction with Leadership Training

No statistical significance was reported in terms of satisfaction with training in leadership between former ($M = 2.040$, $SD = .021$) and current cadets ($M = 2.062$, $SD = .018$), $t(883) = -.781$, $p > .05$, $d = .001$. Over eighty-four percent (84.3%) current cadets stated that they

received the appropriate leadership training, and 81.9% of former cadets agreed.

Satisfaction with Moral Leadership

No statistical significance was reported in terms of satisfaction with training in moral leadership between former ($M = 2.1367$, $SD = .53788$) and current cadets ($M = 2.0983$, $SD = .43458$), $t(883) = -.1.443$, $p > .05$, $d = .003$. Over eighty-one percent (81.3%) of the current cadets stated they had received the appropriate moral leadership training and 70.1% of former cadets stated the same.

Satisfaction with Physical Fitness Training

No statistical significance was reported in terms of satisfaction with training in physical fitness between former ($M = 2.0135$, $SD = .61278$) and current cadets ($M = 2.0700$, $SD = .52515$), $t(883) = -1.473$, $p > .05$, $d = .017$. Over seventy-two percent (72.3%) of current cadets stated they had received the appropriate physical fitness training and 63.6% of the former cadets stated the same.

Satisfaction with Flying Training

The only statistical significance was reported for satisfaction with training in flying between former ($M = 1.9272$, $SD = .73344$) and current cadets ($M = 2.1148$, $SD = .68431$), $t(883) = 3.904$, $p < .001$, $d = .017$. As far as

current cadets were concerned, 51.7% stated they received the appropriate flying training; however, only 46.4% of the former cadets said they received the appropriate flying training. Accordingly, the former cadets were not as satisfied with the training in flying as the current cadets.

Table 10 displays the mean, standard deviation, t and p-values, and df for satisfaction with training in aerospace, leadership, moral leadership, flying, and physical fitness.

Table 10

Satisfaction with Training

Training factor	Former M (SD)	Current M (SD)	t	df
Aerospace	2.09 (.497)	2.10 (.443)	-.470	883
Leadership	2.04 (.424)	2.06 (.399)	-.781	883
Moral development	2.13 (.538)	2.08 (.435)	-.1.443	883
Flying	1.93 (.733)	2.12 (.684)	3.904*	883
Physical fitness	2.01 (.613)	2.07 (.525)	-1.473	883

* $p < .05$

Research Questions

Question 3: Is there a significant difference between the selected motivational factors and their role in retention? Specifically:

- a. What selected motivational factors, as identified in research, impact on the retention of cadets in CAP?
- b. What selected motivational factors, as identified in research, impact on the retention of adult volunteers in CAP?

Motivational Factors of Cadets

To investigate the motivational factors identified as; CAP is a positive experience for me, I like how the meetings are conducted, the adult volunteers are effective leaders, I enjoy my responsibilities in CAP, and CAP special events and field trips are educational and fun, independent samples tests were conducted.

Table 11 displays the means and standard deviations of former and current cadets for motivational factors.

Table 11

Motivated Factors for Cadets

Motivational factor	Former <i>M (SD)</i>	Current <i>M (SD)</i>
CAP is a positive experience for me	4.46(.743)	4.59(.685)
The adult volunteers are effective leaders	3.25(1.207)	3.76(1.056)
I enjoy my responsibilities in CAP.	4.22(.926)	4.32(.781)
CAP special events and field trips are educational and fun	4.31(.873)	4.48(.770)

According to the analyses, current cadets were more motivated than the former cadets in every category of motivational factors.

CAP is a Positive Experience for Me

Current cadets agreed with this with 92.9%, while 92% of former cadets agreed.

I Like How the Meetings are Conducted

Current cadets agreed with this category with 64.4%, while 54.7% of former cadets agreed.

Adults are Effective Leaders

Current cadets agreed with this statement with 66.7%, while 58% of former cadets agreed.

CAP Special Events and Field Trips are Educational and Fun

Current cadets agreed with this statement with 91.1%, while 85.5% of former cadets agreed.

Enjoying the Responsibilities in CAP

Current cadets agreed with this statement with 87%, while 82.8% of former cadets agreed. There were no significant differences with the motivation of current and former cadets in these categories.

Table 12 presents the t values, dfs, and p values across 5 motivational factors as indicated by research.

Table 12

Motivational Factors T Values

Motivational factor	t	df
CAP is a positive experience for me.	-2.680	883
I like how the meetings are conducted.	-3.911*	883
The adult volunteers are effective leaders.	-6.578*	883
I enjoy my responsibilities in CAP.	-1.852	883
CAP special events and field trips are educational and fun.	-3.033*	883

* $p < .05$

Motivation of Adult Volunteers

In addition to former and current cadets, the impact of the motivational factors identified as (1) CAP training, (2) other leaders, (3) volunteer recognition, (4) being with cadets, (5) learning new things, and (6) CAP organization, on the retention of adult volunteers was explored through independent samples test. The adult volunteers were categorized under two groups: the first group involved adults who have been there less than 1 year to 1-2 years, and the second group consisted of those who have been in CAP from 2-5 years, 5-10 years, and more than 10 years. The independent samples t-tests analyses yielded statistically significant difference between group one ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 1.666$) and group two ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.401$), $t(306) = 2.988$, $p < .05$, $d = .155$ in terms of the motivational factor of other leaders and CAP organization, group one ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.595$) and group two ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 1.483$), $t(306) = 2.729$, $p < .05$, $d = .149$.

Table 13 presents the t values, dfs, and p values across 6 motivational factors as indicated by research.

Table 13

Motivational Factors for Adults

Motivational factor	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
CAP training		.544	306
Group 1	4.66 (1.605)		
Group 2	4.56 (1.431)		
Other leaders		2.988*	306
Group 1	4.94 (1.666)		
Group 2	4.41 (1.401)		
Volunteer recognition		1.947	306
Group 1	4.45 (1.618)		
Group 2	4.10 (1.495)		
Being with cadets		1.083	306
Group 1	5.51 (1.530)		
Group 2	5.33 (1.422)		
Learning new things		.177	306
Group 1	5.38 (1.615)		
Group 2	5.35 (1.350)		
CAP organization		2.729*	306
Group 1	4.98 (1.595)		
Group 2	4.49 (1.483)		

* $p < .05$

Accordingly, adult volunteers who have been in CAP for less than 2 years were more motivated by other leaders and CAP organization than adult volunteers who have been in CAP for more than 2 years.

Recruit and Retain Strategy

The Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (CVQ) also asked an additional open-ended question to the current cadets. The CVQ asked these cadets what strategy could CAP use to recruit and retain cadets. Two hundred and fifty or 45.3% of the current cadets who completed the questionnaire responded to this question. The number one strategy reported by these cadets was the need for better leadership among the adult leaders of CAP. Over 30% (31.6%) listed this strategy. The second most popular strategy with 27.6% was the need to more training.

The Former Cadet Volunteer Questionnaire (FCVQ) asked the same open-ended question about recruitment and retention to the former cadets. Two hundred and forty former cadets responded to the question, with better leadership listed as the number one strategy by 37.1% of the respondents. More effective training was listed as the second most popular strategy by 24.2% of the respondents.

The Adult Volunteer Questionnaire also asked what could be done to recruit and retain more members. Five hundred and eleven adult members responded to this question. Overwhelmingly, more training was the number one reason given for aiding in recruiting and retaining members with 33.7% responding with this answer. The second most popular answer was to advertise more. Over 10% (10.2%) believed this would recruit and retain more members. Reducing paperwork was the third most popular answer with 7.4%. Table 14 presents the top five reasons listed by the adult members.

Table 14

Recruiting and Retaining Cadets

Reasons	n	%
More training	172	33.7
More advertising	52	10.2
Less paperwork	38	7.4
More recognition	31	6.1
Better leadership	23	4.5

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Retention is an important topic that continues to impact volunteer and for-profit organizations. Three research survey instruments were developed to ascertain if training and motivation factors influence retention in a volunteer organization, Civil Air Patrol. Analysis was conducted to determine which factors, if any, impacted the retention of CAP. The data collected and the analysis of that data was presented in chapter 4. This chapter includes a discussion of the findings, the conclusions, and the recommendations.

Summary of Findings

Most of the survey participants were male (82.9%) and Caucasian (87.2%). They ranged in age from 10 to 33. From the over 800 cadets who completed the surveys, no one was over the age of 33. Over seventy percent (73.7%) of the

participants lived in the suburbs and urban areas, and more than 60% (60.2%) had spent more than two years in CAP.

For the adult volunteers who responded to the survey, 82.7% were male and 92% were Caucasian. Over seventy-eight percent (78.4%) of the respondents lived in suburban and urban areas. Over seventy-two percent (72.5%) were employed full time and 36.5% made over \$80,000 a year. Additionally, 71% were married, 53.6% were between the ages of 40 and 59, and yet 76.1% did not have any children involved in CAP.

Analysis indicated that whether a cadet lived in a rural area or an urban area impacted on their retention in CAP. Analysis showed that those living in a rural area were more likely to remain in CAP. Dillman (1987) believed that people from rural areas felt more of a sense of identify through their experiences within the community.

Dillman (1987) stated that people in rural communities tend to focus on community more and are more aware of how their actions might affect other people in the community. The people living in urban centers tend to be more varied and complex and live in relative anonymity from each other.

Dillman (1987) believed that rural areas acted with relatively unlimited obligations to each other, while

people in urban areas did not feel this obligation. This leads people in rural areas to establish more secondary relationships, while people in urban areas will come in contact with many more people, yet develop fewer relationships.

Analysis also indicated that former cadets had more of a tendency to go to college than current cadets, but that can be explained by the fact that many current cadets are not old enough to attend college yet. Roughly 80% of the current cadets surveyed were still in middle school or high school. Seventy-three percent of the former cadets were still in college, but with no one over the age of 33 completing the survey. This statistic shows that many of the former cadets in their 20s still have an interest in CAP.

This statistic concerning college students also helps explain that over 71% of the former cadets who completed the survey stayed in CAP for more than two years, whereas, only 51% of the current cadets had been in the organization for more than two years. This leads the researcher to believe that the former cadets enjoyed their time in CAP and many left because they simply became too old for the cadet program. The age limit for cadets is 21. These

former cadets still display an interest in the organization. This interest can be found by the response given to the open-ended question at the end of the survey. Over 200 of the 382 former cadets completed the open-ended question asking what could be done better to retain CAP members. This response rate indicates that the former cadets still share a concern for the organization.

Analysis indicated that former cadets joined CAP more frequently because of friends than did current cadets. In both cases, former and current cadets, joining because of friends was not one of the most frequent reasons for joining CAP; however, 30.7% of former cadets and only 22.4% of current cadets joined because of friends. Joining because of friends was the fifth most popular reason for former cadets and the sixth reason for current cadets.

Although the top two reasons for joining CAP are the same for both former and current cadets, the percentages are higher for current cadets. This is true for the top four reasons as well. This indicates that the current cadets are more unified and committed in their main reasons for joining.

Along this same vein, the top four reasons for joining CAP for current cadets are: (1) flying training; (2)

interest in the military; (3) serving the community; and (4) interest in aerospace. The top four reasons for joining CAP for former cadets are: (1) flying training; (2) interest in the military; (3) interest in aerospace; and (4) serving the community. Again, the percentages are higher in each category for the current cadets. The current cadets know more precisely why they are involved, whereas the former cadets are more varied as they reflect back on their involvement in the organization.

Analysis also indicated that former cadets were less satisfied with flying training than current cadets. Over fifty-one percent (51.7%) of the current cadets are satisfied with the flying training, while 46.4% of former cadets were satisfied with the flying training. As indicated by the open-ended questions at the end of the survey, this dissatisfaction can be attributed to the minimal hours afforded the cadets to fly. Recent efforts by CAP have afforded more flying opportunities for current cadets to receive additional flying training. These added hours of flying training have increased the satisfaction of the current cadets.

The satisfaction level of the former and current cadets concerning the four other categories of training are

much higher than for the flying training. The satisfaction level for aerospace training was 79.2% for current cadets and 75.5% for former cadets. Leadership training satisfaction was 84.3% for current cadets and 81.9% for former cadets. Moral leadership satisfaction was rated at 81.3% for current and 70.1% for former cadets. Finally, satisfaction for the physical fitness training was 72.3% for current and 63.6% for former cadets.

Analysis also indicated that the level of satisfaction of adult members in CAP differed in two areas: other leaders and CAP organization. Satisfaction was measured in six areas, but only the satisfaction with other leaders and the CAP organization differed significantly. In both areas, adult volunteers, with less than two years in the organization, were more satisfied than volunteers with more than two years in CAP. This indicates a general decline in the excitement and commitment to the organization that occurred over time. This conceivably has implications concerning the adults overall attitude toward the organization, and thereby effecting retention.

The surveys indicated that the number one reason why the former cadets left CAP was because of ineffective leadership. Over 40% (40.3%) of the former cadets stated

that this was their reason for leaving. Ineffective leadership included inability to organize and conduct the weekly meetings, as well as a lack of ability in motivating cadets. Many leaders were unable to hold the interest or gain the respect of the cadets. Additionally, there was a lack of dedication displayed by many leaders who simply would not appear at scheduled meetings they were to conduct. Incompetence was frequently mentioned in conjunction with poor leadership, as well as, disrespectful and uncooperative. The former cadets were cogent in describing ways they were treated by ineffectual leaders. Many mentioned biased attitudes and displays of favoritism.

Going to college was the second reason given for leaving CAP, and that is simply a matter of graduating from high school and moving away. CAP is way aware of this constant and accepts it.

Insufficient training was the third reason given by former cadets for leaving the organization. Most responses were not critical of the existing training but were forthright in there feeling that additional training was needed. Aerospace, flying, search and rescue and emergency training were all listed numerous times as areas needing more attention and time devoted to them.

When these same former cadets were asked what they would do to retain CAP members, they were consistent in their thinking. They continued to state that more effective leadership should be the number one strategy for recruiting and retaining more members. More training was the second most important strategy. When the adult volunteers were asked the same question they overwhelmingly stated that training was the most important factor for retaining members. Over 33% stated this, with more advertising being the second most popular suggestion with 10%.

Comparing the two groups' (former cadets and adult members) answers to the question of recruiting and retaining more members in CAP results in an interesting finding. Former cadets perceived the major retention problem to be leadership, whereas, the adult leaders perceived the largest problem to be lack of training. This analysis points to the importance training has to the overall retention of CAP cadets. The adult leaders of CAP do not question their leadership ability but pointedly suggest that more training would alleviate the retention problem.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the findings of this study:

1. An opportunity exists for CAP to improve retention by examining the residence status of their cadets. CAP has never analyzed cadet retention based on residence. Because the finding indicates a significant retention difference between rural and urban cadets, CAP can focus its efforts, study the differences, and increase retention.
2. Because flying training has been identified by both former and current cadets as the number one reason for joining the organization, CAP can improve their retention by improving their flying training. As indicated by the surveys, first and foremost, this improvement should begin with increasing the amount of time devoted to cadets flying.
3. Because insufficient training and ineffective leadership are the two top reasons for members leaving CAP, the organization can increase its retention by addressing and improving these two areas. According to the research, former and current cadets are satisfied with the caliber and quality of

the existing training. The members simply want more training in all areas. More training will also improve the effectiveness of the leaders.

4. Training is an important ingredient for retention. Adult volunteers listed it as the most important factor in keeping members in the organization. The adult members strongly stated that more training was needed in many areas of CAP. These areas include both the cadet and the adult CAP endeavors.

Recommendations

1. CAP should conduct a thorough analysis of all training, including cadets and adult members. An increased amount of quality training will improve the education and training of CAP's members and thereby enhance the organization's mission accomplishments. Additionally, more training will lead to more effective leadership, which is a necessary ingredient to higher retention.
2. In addition to providing more training for CAP's leadership, CAP should analyze the behavior and actions of its leaders from the squadron to the region levels. An organization is only as good as

its leaders, and CAP leaders must be effective and beyond reproach.

3. CAP should analyze a geographical breakdown of all of its units, paying particular attention to the number of cadets per unit and where those units are located. A study of the urban, suburban, and rural squadrons can pay huge dividends toward higher retention.
4. In addition to the broad training analysis (recommendation #1), CAP should conduct a specific investigation with the intent of improving the amount and availability of flying training. Because flying training is the number one reason a person joins CAP, the organization should make every effort to ensure that flying training is sufficiently available to anyone who desires it.
5. A smaller, more specific follow-up study should be conducted in two years aimed at the current cadets. This research should focus on training with particular emphasis on changes made to the training plan.
6. Because of the importance of keeping in contact with former cadets, I recommend further research through questionnaires be mailed directly to the former

cadets' address. This mailing should be accompanied by a letter notifying the cadet of the significance of their opinion. Although CAP has a good-sized database of former addresses, a direct mailing would better demonstrate the importance of the information needed.

7. This study should be repeated in four years. Efforts should be made to include the same cadets from the original and follow-up research projects, as well as new members. Every effort should be made to survey even more CAP members.

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APPENDICES

Auburn University

Auburn University, Alabama 36849



Office of Human Subjects Research
307 Samford Hall

Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
hsubjec@auburn.edu

August 24, 2004

MEMORANDUM TO: Jeffrey D. Montgomery
Curriculum and Teaching

PROTOCOL TITLE: "The Relationship Between Training and Retention on a Volunteer Organization"

IRB FILE: # 03-209 EP 0408

APPROVAL DATE: August 23, 2004
EXPIRATION DATE: August 22, 2005

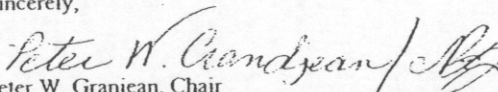
The above reference protocol was approved by IRB Expedited procedure under Category #7 on August 23, 2004. You should report to the IRB any proposed changes in the protocol or procedures and any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or others. Please reference the above authorization number in any future correspondence regarding this project.

If you will be unable to file a Final Report on your project before August 22, 2005, you must submit a request for an extension of approval to the IRB no later than August 7, 2005. If your IRB authorization expires and/or you have not received written notice that a request for an extension has been approved prior to August 22, 2005, you must suspend the project immediately and contact the Office of Human Subjects Research for assistance.

A Final Report will be required to close your IRB project file. You are reminded that consent forms must be retained at least three years after completion of your study.

If you have any questions concerning this Board action, please contact the Office of Human Subjects Research at 844-5966.

Sincerely,


Peter W. Granjean, Chair
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human
Subjects in Research

cc: Dr. Andrew Weaver
Dr. Bonnie White

Auburn University

Auburn University, Alabama 36849-5212

Curriculum and Teaching
College of Education
5040 Holey Center

Telephone: (334) 844-4434
Fax: (334) 844-6789

INFORMED CONSENT FOR The Relationship between Training and Retention in a Volunteer Organization

Dear Name:

You are invited to participate in a research study to help identify the reasons cadets leave Civil Air Patrol. This study is being conducted by Jeff Montgomery, a doctoral candidate, under the supervision of Dr. Bonnie White, Professor and Graduate Program Officer in the Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Auburn University. I hope to learn more about the motivation and training attitudes of cadets and adult leaders of Civil Air Patrol. You were selected as a participant from the file of email addresses maintained at Civil Air Patrol headquarters, and after we obtained parental consent.

If you choose to participate, it will take approximately ten minutes to complete the survey. You received a survey through email because it is a faster and easier process for you to complete the survey. Although there are no guarantees of personal benefit by participating in the study, there is great potential that the findings of this survey will increase our understanding of retention in Civil Air Patrol and possibly improve our retention rates.

Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Numbers will be used to code all information, and no individual information will be included in the report, only aggregate data. I will store all information, and no one will have access to it. Information collected may be used as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a degree of Doctorate of Education and may be used in future publications. Civil Air Patrol headquarters will receive a complete report of the findings.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University or the Department of Curriculum and Teaching or with Civil Air Patrol.

If you have any questions please contact Jeff Montgomery, (334) 271-4314, jmontgomery@capnhq.gov or Dr. Bonnie White, (334) 844-6884, whitebj@auburn.edu will be happy to answer them.

For more information regarding your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Human Subjects Research by phone or email. The people to contact there are Executive Director E. N. "Chip" Burson (334) 844-5966 bursoen@auburn.edu or IRB Chair Dr. Peter Grandjean at (334) 844-1462 grandpw@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, THE DATA YOU PROVIDE WILL SERVE AS YOUR AGREEMENT TO DO SO.

Jeff Montgomery -
Doctoral Candidate
Principal Investigator

HUMAN SUBJECTS
OFFICE OF RESEARCH
PROJ. # 03-209EP 0408
APPROVED 8-23-05 TO 8-22-05

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Curriculum and Teaching
College of Education
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Telephone: (334) 844-4434
Fax: (334) 844-6789

DATE

Name
Address
Address

INFORMED CONSENT FOR

The Relationship Between Training and Retention in a Volunteer Organization

Dear Name:

In approximately one week, you will receive an email that contains a questionnaire from Headquarter Civil Air Patrol (CAP) concerning the reasons cadets leave CAP. The questionnaire is part of a research study being conducted by Jeff Montgomery, a doctoral candidate, under the supervision of Dr. Bonnie White, Professor and Graduate Program Officer in the Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Auburn University. You are invited to participate in the research study to help identify the reasons cadets leave CAP. I hope to learn more about the motivation and training attitudes of cadets and adult leaders of Civil Air Patrol. You were randomly selected from the database at Headquarters Civil Air Patrol, along with a small number of cadets, former cadets, and adult leaders.

If you participate it will take approximately five minutes to complete the survey. You will receive the survey via email because it is a faster and easier process for you to complete the questionnaire. Although there are no guarantees of personal benefit by participating in the study, there is great potential that the findings of this survey will increase our understanding of retention in CAP and possibly improve our retention rates.

Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Numbers will be used to code all information, and no individual names will be used. I will store all information, and no one will have access to it. Information collected may be used as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a degree of Doctorate of Education and may be used in future publications. CAP Headquarters will receive a complete report of the findings. No individual identification information will be included in the report – only aggregate data.

If you have any questions please call Jeff Montgomery, (334) 953-7572, or email me at jmontgomery@cap.gov.

Sincerely,

Jeffrey D. Montgomery, Principal Investigator
Doctoral Candidate

HUMAN SUBJECTS
OFFICE OF RESEARCH
PROJECT # 03-209 EP 0408
APPROVED 8-23-04 TO 8-22-05

Auburn University

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Curriculum and Teaching
College of Education
5040 Holey Center

Telephone: (334) 844-4434
Fax: (334) 844-6789

April 26, 2004

Name
Address
Address

INFORMED CONSENT FOR

The Relationship between Training and Retention in a Volunteer Organization

Dear Name:

You are invited to participate in a research study to help identify the reasons cadets leave Civil Air Patrol. This study is being conducted by Jeff Montgomery, a doctoral candidate, under the supervision of Dr. Bonnie White, Professor and Graduate Program Officer in the Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Auburn University. I hope to learn more about the motivation and training attitudes of cadets and adult leaders of Civil Air Patrol. You were randomly selected from the database at Headquarters Civil Air Patrol, along with a small number of cadets, former cadets, and adult leaders.

If you participate it will take approximately five minutes to complete the survey. You received a survey through email because it is a faster and easier process for you to complete the survey. Although there are no guarantees of personal benefit by participating in the study, there is great potential that the findings of this survey will increase our understanding of retention in Civil Air Patrol and possibly improve our retention rates.

Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Numbers will be used to code all information, and no individual names will be used. I will store all information, and no one will have access to it. Information collected may be used as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a degree of Doctorate of Education and may be used in future publications. Civil Air Patrol headquarters will receive a complete report of the findings. No individual identification information will be included in the report – only aggregate data.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University or the Department of Curriculum and Teaching or with Civil Air Patrol. Participants may withdraw from participation at any time, without penalty, and they may withdraw any data, which has been collected about themselves, as long as that data is identifiable.

HUMAN SUBJECTS
OFFICE OF RESEARCH
PROJECT #03-209 EP 0408
APPROVED 8-23-04 TO 8-22-05

Participant's initials

If you have any questions I invite you to ask them now. If you have questions later, Jeff Montgomery, (334) 271-4314, jmontgomery@capnhq.gov or Dr. Bonnie White, (334) 844-6884, whitebj@auburn.edu will be happy to answer them. You will be provided a copy of this form to keep.

If you choose to participate please complete survey by date unknown at this time and return back to me. Please respond to every item in the survey. If you choose not to participate please email the blank survey as indication of your non-participation.

For more information regarding your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Human Subjects Research by phone or email. The people to contact there are Executive Director E. N. "Chip" Burson (334) 844-5966 bursoen@auburn.edu or IRB Chair Dr. Peter Grandjean at (334) 844-1462 grandpw@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT YOU WISH TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES YOUR WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE.

Participant's signature Date

Investigator's signature Date

Print Name

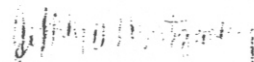
Print Name

Parent's or Guardian signature Date

Print Name

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,


Jeffrey D. Montgomery, Principal Investigator
Doctoral Candidate

HUMAN SUBJECTS
OFFICE OF RESEARCH
PROJECT # 03-209 EP 0408
APPROVED 8-23-04 TO 8-22-05

HEADQUARTERS
CIVIL AIR PATROL
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE AUXILIARY
105 South Hansell Street / Building 714
Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama 36112-6332

August 31, 2004

Dear Squadron Commander,

Headquarters Civil Air Patrol approved a questionnaire developed to survey the motivation, training, and retention attitudes of our current cadets. This questionnaire will fulfill the partial requirements for my doctoral degree from Auburn University, and may also have a very positive impact on the training and retention within CAP.

We believe that placing the questionnaire on the internet will result in the largest response, and therefore, give us more valuable information to analyze. However, using the internet with individuals under the age of nineteen requires parental consent.

Please reproduce more copies of the letters if needed and then give this letter, along with the informed consent letter, to your cadets to obtain parental consent. The parent's and cadet's signature on the consent form denotes their approval of their participation in the questionnaire. Please collect the signed forms and mail to me in the envelope provided.

I will also be surveying adult leaders in CAP and former cadets. Again, the results of these questionnaires could be of great benefit to our organization. If you have any questions please call me at (334) 953-7572 or email me at jmontgomery@cap.gov.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Jeff Montgomery
Aerospace Education Program Manager

Dear Parent,

I am conducting research to investigate the motivation, training, and retention attitudes of the current Civil Air Patrol cadets. This research has been approved by Headquarters Civil Air Patrol and may have a very positive impact on training and retention within CAP. The survey will be sent to the cadets via email; however, I must first obtain parental consent. If you agree to allow your child to participate in this survey please place your signature and have your child sign in the space provided on the informed consent form. Please provide a current email address and then return the form to the squadron commander.

This research could contain very valuable retention information for CAP that could be beneficial to our organization. I hope you favorably consider allowing your child to participate in this survey. It will only take about five minutes of their time. If you approve, your child will receive the survey via email within a couple of weeks. Thank you for your consideration.

Jeff Montgomery
Aerospace Education Program Manager

Approved 8-23-04

Parent's signature (Please sign and return to the Squadron Commander)

CADET VOLUNTEER QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics

Please place a check mark or fill in the blank next
To the answer that best describes you.

1. Sex:

- (1) ___ male
- (2) ___ female

2. _____ Age:

3. Race:

- (1) ___ African American
- (2) ___ Asian
- (3) ___ Hispanic
- (4) ___ Native American Indian
- (5) ___ White/Caucasian
- (6) _____ Other (please specify)

4. _____ State of Residence

5. Residence status:

- (1) ___ rural (farms & towns under 10,000)
- (2) ___ suburban (towns & cities 10,000-50,000)
- (3) ___ urban (suburbs & cities over 50,000)

6. Your grade in school:

- (1) ___ 6th
- (2) ___ 7th
- (3) ___ 8th
- (4) ___ 9th
- (5) ___ 10th
- (6) ___ 11th
- (7) ___ 12th
- (8) ___ college student

7. Amount of time in CAP:

- (1) ___ less than one year
- (2) ___ 1 year
- (3) ___ 1 to 2 years
- (4) ___ more than 2 years

8. Your CAP Squadron:

- (1) ___ cadet
- (2) ___ composite

9. _____ your cadet rank

10. Motivation

Reasons for joining CAP (please circle any reason
that applies to you, plus mark your top three
reasons for joining by placing a 1, 2, and 3 in
the blank beside your reasons).

- (1) ___ My friends joined.
- (2) ___ I wanted to learn more about the military.
- (3) ___ I was interested in flying.
- (4) ___ I wanted to learn more about aerospace.
- (5) ___ I wanted to learn more about search and rescue.
- (6) ___ I wanted to wear the uniform.
- (7) ___ I wanted more discipline in my life.
- (8) ___ My parents wanted me to join.
- (9) ___ I wanted to join the Air Force.
- (10) ___ I wanted to serve my community.
- (11) ___ I joined for the experience.
- (12) ___ I joined for the field trips.
- (13) ___ I joined for the social aspects.
- (14) ___ Other. Please explain:

Please complete this next section by circling the choice that most closely represents your opinion.

SD = strongly disagree
 D = disagree
 NA = doesn't apply
 A = agree
 SA = strongly agree

	SD	D	NA	A	SA
11. Motivation					
(1) I enjoy CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) CAP has been a positive experience in my life.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I like how the meetings are conducted.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) The adult leaders care about the cadets.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(5) The adult volunteers are effective leaders.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(6) I enjoy my responsibilities in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(7) CAP special events and field trips are educational and fun.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
12. Training					
(1) In my first weeks in CAP, I was given effective orientation training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) My unit spent their training time wisely.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I have enjoyed the training I have received in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) I have learned a lot during my CAP training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(5) CAP training is too easy.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(6) CAP training is too hard.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(7) My adult volunteers adhere to the scheduled training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(8) My CAP training is conducted at the weekly meetings.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(9) My CAP training is conducted by me, self-paced.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(10) I received the appropriate training in:					
Flying	SD	D	NA	A	SA
Moral Leadership	SD	D	NA	A	SA
Aerospace Education	SD	D	NA	A	SA
Physical Fitness	SD	D	NA	A	SA
Leadership	SD	D	NA	A	SA
13. Retention					
(1) When I first joined CAP I was introduced to the People I needed to know.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) I stay in CAP because my involvement is very worthwhile.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I feel like I am treated fairly in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) I enjoy my experiences in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA

14. How would you rate the following: (Please check the most appropriate rating.)

	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
(1) Aerospace Education(overall)	___	___	___	___	___
Instructors	___	___	___	___	___
Curriculum	___	___	___	___	___
Activities	___	___	___	___	___
Knowledge learned	___	___	___	___	___
(2) Flying Training(overall)	___	___	___	___	___
Instructors	___	___	___	___	___
Curriculum	___	___	___	___	___
Activities	___	___	___	___	___
Knowledge learned	___	___	___	___	___
(3) Leadership(overall)	___	___	___	___	___
Instructors	___	___	___	___	___
Curriculum	___	___	___	___	___
Activities	___	___	___	___	___
Knowledge learned	___	___	___	___	___
(4) Moral Leadership(overall)	___	___	___	___	___
Instructors	___	___	___	___	___
Curriculum	___	___	___	___	___
Activities	___	___	___	___	___
Knowledge learned	___	___	___	___	___
(5) Physical Fitness(overall)	___	___	___	___	___
Instructors	___	___	___	___	___
Curriculum	___	___	___	___	___
Activities	___	___	___	___	___
Knowledge learned	___	___	___	___	___

15. On the average, how many hours a month do you spend at your squadron on each of the following training areas? (< = less than; > = more than)

Training	None	Time in hours					>3hrs
		<1hr	>1hr	<2hrs	>2hrs	<3hrs	
(1)Aerospace	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
(2) Flying	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
(3)Leadership	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
(4)Moral Leadership	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
(5)Physical Fitness	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

16. What strategy should/could CAP use to recruit and retain cadets?

ADULT VOLUNTEER SURVEY

Please place a check mark or fill in the blank next to the answer that best describes you.

Demographics

1. Sex:

- (1)___ male
- (2)___ female

2. Race:

- (1)___ African American
- (2)___ Asian
- (3)___ Hispanic
- (4)___ Native American Indian
- (5)___ White (Caucasian)
- (6)_____ Other (please specify)

3. _____ Age:

4. Marital Status:

- (1)___ single
- (2)___ separated
- (3)___ divorced
- (4)___ married
- (5)___ widowed

5. _____ state of residence

6. Residence status:

- (1)___ rural (farms & towns under 10,000)
- (2)___ suburban (towns & cities 10,000-50,000)
- (3)___ urban (suburbs & cities over 50,000)

7. CAP Squadron:

- (1)___ cadet
- (2)___ composite

8. Employment Status:

- (1)___ working full time
- (2)___ working part time
- (3)___ not working
- (4)___ retired

9. Yearly Family Income

- (1)___ 0-\$19,999
- (2)___ \$20,000-\$39,999
- (3)___ \$40,000-\$59,999
- (4)___ \$60,000-\$79,999
- (5)___ \$80,000-\$99,999
- (6)___ \$100,000 or more

10. _____ your most recent occupation

11. Highest level of education

- (1)___ 8th grade or less
- (2)___ some high school, no diploma
- (3)___ high school graduate or equivalent
- (4)___ some college credits
- (5)___ Associate's Degree
- (6)___ Bachelor's Degree
- (7)___ Master's Degree
- (8)___ Professional Degree (M.D., DDS, D.V.M., JD.)
- (9)___ Doctorate Degree (Ph.D., Ed.D.)

12. How long have you been an adult volunteer with CAP?

- (1)___ less than 1 year
- (2)___ 1-2 years
- (3)___ 2-5 years
- (4)___ 5-10 years
- (5)___ more than 10 years

13. Responsibilities

_____ Your CAP title

14. Hours per month you contribute to CAP:

- (1) ___ less than 2
- (2) ___ 2-4
- (3) ___ 5-10

15. Number of children you have in CAP:

- (1) ___ none
- (2) ___ 1
- (3) ___ 2
- (4) ___ 3 or more

16. Rate your satisfaction with the following:

	Not Satisfied		Average Satisfaction		Highly Satisfied		
(1) CAP training	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(2) CAP meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(3) Other leaders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(4) Volunteer recognition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(5) Being with cadets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(6) Working with parents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(7) Leading cadets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(8) Completing activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(9) Learning new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(10) CAP organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Place the appropriate number of the importance level in the blank in front of each statement based on your experiences in CAP.

- 1 – very unimportant
- 2 – unimportant
- 3 – slightly unimportant
- 4 – neither important nor unimportant
- 5 – slightly important
- 6 – important
- 7 – very important

Volunteer Experiences

- (1) ___ Volunteers should feel that their time is being used wisely.
- (2) ___ Volunteers should receive the proper orientation training.
- (3) ___ Volunteers should have a chance to voice their opinions.
- (4) ___ Volunteers should feel that they are appreciated.
- (5) ___ Volunteers' skills should be appropriately matched with their tasks.
- (6) ___ Volunteering provides me with the opportunity to learn or develop practical experiences.
- (7) ___ The volunteering work I am performing is meaningful to me.
- (8) ___ Volunteers are able to make a positive impact on CAP.
- (9) ___ Volunteers should get something back for their efforts.
- (10) ___ Volunteers should grow from their experiences.

FORMER CADET VOLUNTEER QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics

Please place a check mark or fill in the blank next to the answer that best describes you.

1. Sex:
 - (1)___ male
 - (2)___ female
2. _____ Age now:
3. How old were you when you were a cadet?
 - (1)___ less than 12
 - (2)___ 12-13
 - (3)___ 14-15
 - (4)___ 16-17
 - (5)___ 18 & older
4. Race:
 - (1)___ African American
 - (2)___ Asian
 - (3)___ Hispanic
 - (4)___ Native American Indian
 - (5)___ white/Caucasian
 - (6)_____ Other (please specify)
5. _____ State of Residence
6. Residence status:
 - (1)___ rural (farms & towns under 10,000)
 - (2)___ suburban (towns & cities 10,000 – 50,000)
 - (3)___ urban (suburbs & cities over 50,000)
7. What grade are you in now?
 - (1)___ 6th
 - (2)___ 7th
 - (3)___ 8th
 - (4)___ 9th
 - (5)___ 10th
 - (6)___ 11th
 - (7)___ 12th
 - (8)___ college student
8. Amount of time you spent in CAP:
 - (1)___ less than 1 year
 - (2)___ 1 year
 - (3)___ 1-2 years
 - (4)___ more than 2 years
9. Your CAP Squadron:
 - (1)___ Cadet
 - (2)___ Composite
10. _____ Your cadet rank when you left CAP

11. Motivation

Reasons for joining CAP (please circle any reason that applies to you, plus mark your top three reasons for joining by placing a 1, 2, and 3 in the blank beside your reason.)

- (1)___My friends joined.
 - (2)___I wanted to learn more about the military.
 - (3)___I was interested in flying.
 - (4)___I wanted to learn more about aerospace.
 - (5)___I wanted to learn more about search and rescue.
 - (6)___I wanted to wear the CAP uniform.
 - (7)___I wanted more discipline in my life.
 - (8)___My parents wanted me to join.
 - (9)___I wanted to join the Air Force.
 - (10)___I wanted to serve my community.
 - (11)___I joined for the experience.
 - (12)___I joined for the field trips.
 - (13)___I joined for the social aspects.
 - (14)___Other. Please explain:
-

Please complete this next section by circling the choice that most closely represents your opinion.

SD = strongly disagree

D = disagree

NA = doesn't apply

A = agree

SA = strongly agree

	SD	D	NA	A	SA
12. Motivation					
(1) I enjoyed Cap.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) CAP was a positive experience in my life.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I liked how the meetings were conducted.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) The adult leaders cared about the cadets.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(5) The adult volunteers were effective leaders.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(6) I enjoyed my responsibilities in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(7) CAP activities were fun.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(8) CAP special events and field trips were educational and fun.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
13. Training					
(1) In my first weeks in CAP, I was given effective orientation training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) My unit spent their training time wisely.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I enjoyed the training I received in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) I learned a lot during my CAP training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(5) CAP training was too easy.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(6) CAP training was too hard.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(7) I liked the aerospace training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(8) I liked the flying training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(9) I liked the leadership training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(10) I liked the moral leadership training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA

(11) I liked the physical fitness training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(12) I received the appropriate training in:					
(a) aerospace	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(b) flying	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(c) leadership	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(d) moral leadership	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(e) physical fitness	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(13) My adult volunteers adhered to the scheduled training.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(14) My CAP training was conducted at the weekly meetings.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(15) My CAP training was conducted by me, self-paced.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(16) Leaving CAP had nothing to do with the training I received.	SD	D	NA	A	SA

14. Retention

(1) When I first joined CAP I was introduced to the people I needed to know.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(2) I stayed in CAP because my involvement was very worthwhile.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(3) I feel like I was treated fairly in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA
(4) I enjoyed my experiences in CAP.	SD	D	NA	A	SA

15. Attrition

My main reasons for leaving CAP were: 1) circle all that apply; 2) then please rank your top three reasons by placing a 1, 2, and 3 in the blank beside your top three reasons.

- (1)___Did not enjoy CAP
- (2)___Unfulfilled expectations of CAP
- (3)___Lack of training
- (4)___Lack of adult leadership
- (5)___Geographically Relocated
- (6)___Lack of adult concern
- (7)___Lack of structure
- (8)___Too much structure
- (9)___Too much autonomy
- (10)___Not enough autonomy
- (11)___Lack of challenging responsibilities
- (12)___No career development
- (13)___No flying training
- (14)___Evaluations were too hard
- (15)___Aerospace was too hard
- (16)___My friends quit
- (17)___CAP took too much of my time
- (18)___Too much marching
- (19)___I didn't like wearing the uniform
- (20)___Too much discipline
- (21)___Not enough discipline
- (22)___Not enough special events
- (23)___Too much emphasis on rank
- (24)___Not enough encouragement
- (25)___Lack of fun activities

