Understanding the Organization of Volunteers at Visitor Attractions

by

Deborah Edwards

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in partial fulfilment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the College of Law and Business

March 2005

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Date

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D. C. Edwards

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material to which a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institute of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement is made in the text of the thesis.

Signed

Dated
DEDICATION

To my mother Angela, who put her family ahead of her career aspirations

and

To my own family, James, Angela and Laura, who have supported my career aspirations with love, laughter and a shoulder or three to lean on.
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When first considering a thesis topic, I had a chance conversation with Karl Flowers of Tourism Australia. During this conversation, I said that I was torn between thesis topics: volunteers, and destination marketing. Karl said, ‘if you want to earn money, then choose marketing, but if you want something meaningful, then choose volunteers’. So, I chose volunteers and I am rewarded, as my passion and interest in the topic have meant that I have enjoyed every step of a long, challenging journey – thank you Karl.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates how volunteers are organized at visitor attractions. It focuses on museums and art museums; non-profit institutions that manage large volunteer programs. In this study I address five important issues: 1) in what context do museums and art museums operate; 2) why people are motivated to volunteer for these institutions; 3) what is the extent to which the institution interacts with its external environment and how this affects organizing routines of volunteers; 4) what is the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments; and 5) how this understanding can result in the better management of volunteers.

Tourism, Organization and Leisure studies are incorporated into a holistic framework for understanding who volunteers, how volunteers are organized, and to observe the relationship between the internal environment of the organization and its external environment. Using this framework, I investigated three attractions, two in New South Wales and one in the Australian Capital Territory. I collected data on field activities of volunteer managers and coordinators, and administered a questionnaire to the total population of volunteers in these three attractions.

The results revealed that: people who contribute their time to museums and art museums are serious leisure volunteers who identify strongly with their pursuit and make a considerable effort in the pursuit of their interest; volunteer managers and coordinators seek organizational templates from the field; volunteers have their own set of implicit transactional contracts that arise from their motivations, which they hope to satisfy while giving service to the organization; and volunteers have an affective commitment that arises out of an emotional attachment they have for the organization.

A Model for Volunteer Management is presented to assist organizations to better manage the relationship between the organization and the volunteer. The thesis contributes to a more holistic understanding of volunteers that offers a critical theoretical extension to tourism, institutional and neo-institutional literature.
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Chapter One

BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

Volunteers do much of society’s work. They make a valuable contribution to society at large and to a wide range of non-profit organizations. The United Nations declared 2001 the International Year of Volunteers to acknowledge their important role in social development. Through their services, volunteers make an economic contribution to society, which is estimated at between 8% and 14% of the world’s Gross Domestic Product (United Nations 1999). Perhaps even more importantly, volunteers contribute to the building of social attachment. Social attachment is considered to be important to a nation’s progress – whether life is getting better (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2002); ‘social attachment’ refers to the nature and strength of relationships that people have with each other and more generally, it refers to the way in which people bond, interact with, and feel about other people, organizations and institutions (such as clubs, business organizations, political parties, and various government organizations) (ABS 2002).

Although social attachment is difficult to define and measure, volunteering is regarded as one of the stronger measures and indicators of social attachment, as it involves assisting others (ABS 2002). This is a sentiment that is also advocated by the United Nations (1999), ‘Volunteering is a key means by which individuals articulate their engagement as citizens, and, by building trust and reciprocity among citizens volunteering contributes to a more cohesive, stable society’ (p. 6).

Thus, it would be difficult to imagine a society functioning without voluntary work. However, in Australia its perceived importance is at best overlooked and at worst taken for granted and ‘they (volunteers) have been largely ignored as subjects of research’ (Stebbins 2004, p. 2). This thesis addresses that concern. It situates volunteers within a
specific field that is museums and art museums, and analyses the way they are organised. To do so, it combines knowledge from the disciplines of tourism, organization, and leisure studies. This first chapter introduces the work, explains what is meant by voluntary work, who volunteers and why, the research problem, how the thesis is theoretically positioned and how it is structured.

1.2 Voluntary work

Voluntary work is ‘an activity that takes place in not-for-profit organizations or projects and is of benefit to the community and undertaken of the volunteer's own free will and without coercion for no financial payment; and in designated volunteer positions only’ (Volunteering Australia 2001). Volunteers, who do this work, come from a wide cross section of the community. Volunteers, in aggregate, appear very diverse; however, various studies have found that homogenous subgroups of volunteers can be segmented from such aggregates. Arai (2004) and Wymer (1998) found that volunteering tends to be gender specific with more females than males volunteering in the 18-50 age groups and people in older age groups, 35-69+, being more likely to volunteer than younger people. Age also varies with the type of activity undertaken: for example welfare, community, arts and culture tend to attract an older age group while sport, recreation, education, and training attracted younger ages (Nichols and King 1998). Another significant demographic is family background. Volunteering is higher for individuals who are married (Arai 2004) and young people were more likely to volunteer if their parents had (Wymer 1998). A parent will volunteer when a family member is benefiting from the organization (Rohs 1986; Nichols and King 1998). Smith (1999) found that volunteer participation rates were higher among higher socio-economic groups. In general, rates of volunteering increase with education and level of employment, with a greater proportion of individuals participating who are employed part-time (Arai 2004; Smith 1999).

Within the Australian tourism industry, the most prominent use of volunteers occurs in museums and art museums, botanic gardens, zoological parks and aquaria. Museums, in particular, are heavily reliant on volunteers. For the period 1999-2000, of the 37,402
persons working in museums, 94.3% were volunteers working an average of 13 hours per volunteer per month (ABS 2001).

1.3 What is the problem and research question?

Volunteers are not remunerated and make an important contribution to the market activity of the entity. Indeed the productive performance of the volunteer contributes to the organization's overall market success and sustainability. Volunteers undertake a diverse range of work-related roles that also satisfy a range of evolving personal expectations. But why they choose to volunteer is still not well understood. Since sustainability of the museum sector in part depends on volunteer support, it is important to understand how volunteers are organised, what motivates them to give of their free time, and how their motivation impacts on their satisfaction, commitment and experience. It is important to identify modes of organising which may be required to realise productive and positive experiences for both the volunteer and the organization.

Despite their significance, there has been little study of how volunteers are organised. Anecdotally, those who manage volunteers apply routines learned from other fields and functions. But this is done with limited understanding of how to incorporate volunteers into the organization, how to use them effectively, or what motivates them to contribute their time and energy. Organising routines learned by managing paid staff may be appropriate to managing volunteers, but this issue has not been explored within the visitor attraction sector.

The above issues are also of some concern within the field. At the 2004, 10th National Conference on Volunteering, there was much debate by practitioners about the problems involved in organizing large numbers of volunteers. It has been found that there is a prescriptive trend by organizations toward bureaucratization, with standardisation, centralisation, formalised systems and calls for models of best practice (Tyzack 1996; Nichols 2004). It is likely however, that there is inadequate understanding of the relationship between management and volunteers and the organizational context in which they are managed to justify such a structuralist direction. Although there have
been studies of volunteers within attractions (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Getz and Frisby 1988; Oakes, Townley and Cooper 1998) there has been little or no research which describes effective routines for organising volunteers.

The problem is framed by practitioners as, “How should volunteers be managed?” This is a reasonable, practical, and significant problem. This thesis cannot answer that question (as any solution will be fitted to the context). Hence the research questions are, “How are volunteers organised?” and “Why are volunteers organised in this manner?”

The study will contribute empirically based knowledge on how volunteers are managed, from which managers of volunteers may learn, and improve organizational practices that realise organizational objectives and satisfied volunteers.

This thesis examines a significant practical issue, but does so in a rigorous, analytical fashion. Its main aim is to ascertain how volunteers are organized at visitor attractions. This aim suggests several sub-aims that follow:

- To understand the context in which museums and art museums operate;
- To understand why people volunteer their time to museums and art museums;
- To make sense of the interaction which occurs between the institution and its external environment and how this affects organizing routines of volunteers;
- To identify the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments.
- To understand the implications for better management of volunteers in order to promote organizational objectives.

This study makes a number of important contributions. Firstly, the results will extend previous work on field analysis, volunteer motivation, values and commitment and add new knowledge to tourism, organization and leisure studies. Secondly, if volunteer needs and interests are understood, this information can be used to improve volunteer management practices, eliminate resource intensive practices and promote organizational objectives. Thirdly, this knowledge can be used to develop volunteer programs that match the needs of volunteers with the needs of the organization resulting
in more satisfying experiences for both parties. Fourthly, findings can be used to inform redistributive and regulative policies that guide the management of volunteers within the museum and art museum context. Fifthly, the results can be used to guide the development of organizational policies that facilitate more effective engagement and integration between the institution and its community. This can enhance the institution’s contribution to social attachment. Finally, this research integrates what are three distinct areas of literature tourism, leisure and organizational studies, which makes an important breakthrough for the study of volunteers. This is achieved through the use of a holistic framework for understanding how volunteers are organized and the introduction of a practical model for volunteer management.

### 1.4 Theoretical approach to the thesis

This thesis is about volunteerism and uses the tourist industry, three museums and art museums, as a site for the collection of volunteering data such that it may contribute to the understanding and management of volunteerism by tourism and other industry sectors. There are three fields of study from which I draw to undertake this project.


The first is tourism. From this perspective, museums and art museums are viewed as visitor attractions, places that play an important role in the attractiveness of a destination. (Goeldner, Ritchie and McIntosh 2000; Middleton and Clarke 2001; Swarbrooke 1995, 2002; Urry 2002). The second field of study is leisure and social sciences, which views the volunteer as a serious leisure enthusiast (Henderson, 1981; Holmes 1999, 2003; Stebbins 1982, 1996, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2004). The third is the established research area of institutionalism within Organization Studies, which has focussed upon organising at field, firm, and societal level (DiMagio and Powell 1983, 1991; Greenwood and Hinings 1996; Hinings and Greenwood 1988, 2002; Hinings, Greenwood, Reay and Suddaby 2003; Scott 1991, 1992, 1995, 2001; Scott and Meyer 1994). Undertaking research from these perspectives enables the subject matter to be viewed through what are normally separate areas of study. The framework used in this study integrates these areas in order to address the objectives of the thesis.
It is acknowledged that there is a body of material arising from the psychological literature that discusses altruistic behaviour, helping, motivation, commitment, values, personality, and cognition. However, the scope of this literature is very large and would detract from the focus of the thesis. I have therefore, incorporated the psychological literature where relevant.

1.5 Outline of thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. This chapter has outlined the broad context in which volunteering takes place. Chapter Two will review current literature in relation to visitor attractions, volunteers, museums and art museums, and institutional theory. It sets out the gaps in the literature, and demonstrates that volunteering in attractions is a neglected area of study by tourism researchers. The chapter defines volunteering and presents secondary data on who is volunteering, and in what areas. Previous research on why people volunteer is reviewed, and it is concluded that the view of the serious leisure literature has much to offer in understanding why people volunteer. The chapter goes on to explain the nature of visitor attractions, and how museums and art museums fit into the attraction environment, such that the context in which these volunteers work may be understood. Finally, theory underpinning organization studies is used to consider the interplay between an organization’s internal and external environments; how institutions adopt organizational templates; and current models of volunteer management.

Chapter Three outlines the theoretical framework, which underpins this thesis. The framework brings together the literature discussed in Chapter Two and consists of three parts, the external environment, the internal environment and the outcome of interactions that occur in and between the first two areas. The framework provides the basis for understanding the whole context in which volunteering takes place, in a number of ways. Firstly, it draws on institutional and neoinstitutional theory to take account of the relationship between the organization and its external environment, and how this influences the way volunteer programs are organized. Secondly, it draws upon leisure, tourism and institutional theory to understand the internal environment,
specifically volunteer motivation, value commitment and expectations, and the influence they may have on a volunteer's: acceptance of the organization's goals and values; willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; and desire to maintain organizational membership. Another important aspect of the internal environment is consideration of organizational structure and how this structure shapes the activities of volunteer programs. Thirdly, outcome represents the level of satisfaction that is experienced by both the volunteer and the organization with the volunteer program. The chapter concludes by explaining the linkages between the different parts of the framework.

Chapter Four outlines the research methodology used. In this instance, a multi-method, multiple cross-sectional approach was undertaken that sits within both quantitative and qualitative paradigms. It provides background to the three organizations in which the research was undertaken, explains the methods of data collection and analysis, and presents the methodological limitations to the study. The research techniques used to collect the data were document analysis, semi-structured interviews and a self-completed questionnaire.

Chapter Five presents the findings set out according to the framework described in Chapter three. Firstly, the characteristics that define the field of museums and art museums are related to the three attractions. Second, the data for the internal components of the organization are presented. This section begins by describing how the organizations are structured and presents respondents demographics. The findings for the internal environment are then set out. Finally, the data for volunteer satisfaction are presented.

Chapter Six presents a discussion of the data and comments on the implications of the research for managers of volunteers. This chapter presents the researcher’s final reflections and thoughts about the study, and how the results in the thesis answer the research questions, sub-objectives and hypotheses raised in Chapters One, Two and Three. Chapter Six draws conclusions, specifies contributions, and outlines a research agenda.
A number of hypotheses are included in addition to the framework. I believe they add a deeper complexity that supports the findings of this study. The hypotheses can be found in Chapter Two (2.2.5, 2.4.2) and Chapter Three (3.4.2) and a discussion of them in Chapter Six (6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 6.9).

1.6 Delimitations of scope and key assumptions

Large museums and art museums provide an ideal context for studying the organization of volunteers for four important reasons. One, they are a tightly defined field of the visitor attraction sector. Two, their not-for-profit status ensures that they fit within the definition of volunteering. Three, they are highly institutionalized and have long-running volunteer programs that engage large numbers of volunteers on a yearly basis. Four, their volunteer programs require the allocation of scarce resources and contend with complex organizational issues.

This research is limited to Australia, New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory, in which each of the institutions under study is typical of large museums and art museums across Australia. The candidate also attended the Australian Association of Gallery Guides Organization’s conference in Tasmania and although data were not specifically collected for this thesis, it did provide valuable historical insight into the volunteering movement in large museums and art museums in Australia.

1.7 Conclusion

Much voluntary action takes place within the tourism sector where people serve the needs of the community and visitors alike. This thesis concentrates upon visitor attractions, specifically museums and art museums, where volunteers make up between 40 percent and 60 percent of the workforce. These organizations face enormous challenges as they endeavour to manage their volunteers on a daily basis. It is important to understand how volunteering can be organised, such that the voluntary
contribution can be maximised in order to achieve organizational goals, while at the same time providing the volunteer with a positive experience. Research is required to identify appropriate approaches to managing and understanding volunteers; approaches that consider the organizational context in which volunteering occurs. We also need to know more about both the people who manage volunteers, and the volunteers themselves, such as their work history, prior training, leadership styles and the contribution they make to a successful volunteer program. The informally reported disparities in the way in which volunteers are organised between visitor attractions calls for detailed research that explores and analyses the complex nature of volunteer management within different organizational contexts.

This chapter has laid the foundations for this thesis. It introduced the research problem and research questions. The research was justified, definitions presented, the thesis was outlined and the limitations given. On these foundations, the thesis can proceed with a detailed description of the research.
Chapter Two

VOLUNTEERING, TOURISM AND ORGANIZATION STUDIES: THE CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNING OF THE THESIS

'The very complexity of modern organizations, although creating difficulties, also constitutes their fascination'. Frances Donovan

2.1 Introduction

The first chapter introduced the research topic, data field, theory bases, and outlined the plan of the thesis. This thesis examines the organization of volunteers at visitor attractions in New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory. It ranges over three disciplines tourism: leisure, and organization studies. This chapter presents the theoretical knowledge that underpins the study.

In Section 2.2, I present a definition of volunteering that captures the fundamental meaning of what it is to volunteer. This is followed by an overview of current research on volunteering that identifies the major areas of interest and gaps in the literature before outlining the research agenda for the analysis of volunteers in visitor attractions. During the course of the literature review I draw on leisure studies to explain the link between volunteering and leisure.

In Section 2.3 the tourism literature is examined so that I can very carefully specify the area of inquiry. It considers the nature of visitor attractions, what makes up the visitor attraction product and what positions museums and art museums, originally bastions of conservation and protection, in the visitor attraction sector. I provide statistical data of volunteers in Australian museums and art museums, explain the important role that they play and demonstrate that volunteering in this area warrants empirical investigation.
Section 2.4 examines organization studies and explains how institutional theory matches the field of inquiry and the topic of this research. In order to set the environment in which volunteers work, I consider the context in which volunteering takes place in particular organizational templates (the way things are done). Organizational templates are relevant to large, highly institutionalized museums and art museums, as they strive for a high degree of professionalism in the delivery of their products and services. Consequently, they have set ways of doing things to which members must conform. Here I ask the question based around DiMaggio and Powell’s (1991) interesting question, surrounding ‘Why do organizations converge around and adopt similar templates?’ Finally, I review current literature on models of volunteer management and show that empirical understanding of how volunteers are managed is in its infancy.

2.2 Volunteering

2.2.1 A Definition of Volunteering

Lyons, Wijkstrom and Clary (1998) maintain that different people will draw the line between what is volunteering, and what is not, at different points, and that this will vary across different societies. Definitions of volunteering (ABS 1996; du Boulay 1996; Stebbins 1996; Ellis 1997; Fisher and Ackerman 1998; Warburton and Oppenheimer 2000; Cordingly 2000) differ in their focus from broad to narrow, formal and informal, and with significant variations of emphasis. However, they agree that volunteering is an activity in which people participate for no financial gain. From an Australian perspective, the peak body for the volunteering sector in Australia defines volunteering as 'an activity that takes place in not-for-profit organizations or projects and is of benefit to the community and undertaken of the volunteer's own free will, without coercion; for no financial payment; and in designated volunteer positions only (Volunteering Australia 2001, p. 4). Five characteristics of volunteering can be drawn from this definition:

1. In non-profit organizations; and

2. Work that benefits the community;
3. Is undertaken by choice;
4. For no payment;
5. Volunteers participate in designated volunteer positions only.

Cordingly (2000) states that the type of organization in which volunteering is undertaken is relevant to any definition of volunteering. She argues that not-for-profit institutions exist for a social purpose, where any financial surplus is reinvested. This is in contrast to organizations that use profits to further the financial interests of directors, shareholders or investors. It is a requirement of the second characteristic that unpaid work leads to a benefit for the community. This is in contrast to a commercial organization that aims to realise profits by either decreasing or not increasing their paid staff, as a result of access to a pool of volunteers. In this instance, there is no community benefit as volunteers are exploited for their free services while others in society are excluded from paid employment. The third characteristic is fundamental to volunteering, that is, individuals enter into the activity of their own free will, they are not imposed upon nor are they obligated to be involved. The fourth characteristic distinguishes volunteers from paid staff. Once volunteers receive payment, it must be declared as income, and they become paid workers. The fifth characteristic focuses on the role of the volunteer. It is necessary for organizations to have clearly defined volunteer positions otherwise the lines of employment between paid staff and volunteers become blurred, which results in confusion and workplace disharmony for both groups of people.

The definition is relevant to volunteering in museums and art museums: it is unpaid work conducted in a not-for-profit organization that benefits society; through their efforts a broad range of activities are able to be offered to the visiting public; the volunteers are there of their own free will; they receive no remuneration and they participate in activities that have been designated for them only.
The following section turns to current research on volunteering and identifies the major areas of interest and gaps in the literature and outlines the research agenda for the analysis of volunteers in visitor attractions.

2.2.2 Current Studies

A review of more than 500 articles using linked keyword searches – volunteer management, volunteerism, docents, attractions and volunteers, and events, in article title, abstract and body - across 35 journals covering the time period 1970-2004, has revealed little in the way of empirical research on volunteerism. The largest body of writing is from the United States and the United Kingdom, but interest is growing within Australia. Rochester (1999) identified four principal themes upon which the literature concentrates, ‘measuring the overall extent of voluntary action; defining volunteering; understanding the motivations of those who volunteer; and looking at the organization and management of the work of volunteers’, (p. 8). Seventy-four articles were reviewed and grouped according to his themes. It was found that fourteen articles related to measuring the overall extent of voluntary action, nine articles related to defining volunteering, twenty-five articles related to understanding the motivations of those who volunteer, twenty-six articles related to the organization and management of volunteer work.

The literature review identified common organizational challenges which present dilemmas for organizations that utilise volunteers. These challenges include: involving volunteers, recruitment, retention, motivation, maximising involvement, providing support and supervision, service provision, working relations between paid staff, and defining roles and activities (du Boulay 1996; Tyzack 1996; Rochester 1999; Stebbins 2001b, 2004; Graham and Lennon 2002; Jago and Deery 2002; Lockstone, Deery and King 2004; Wilson 2000). In order to draw these issues together an understanding of volunteering will be required. Therefore, the following sections will discuss a number of key aspects from an Australian perspective including: who volunteers; why people volunteer; and the participation of volunteers in museums and art museums.
2.2.3 Volunteering in Australia

Ironmonger (2000) estimated that volunteers contributed approximately 2.2 million hours of their time at a value of $42 billion per annum. In 1995 and 2000 the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) conducted two major national surveys on voluntary work in Australia. The studies collected information from people aged fifteen years and eighteen years and over (respectively) about voluntary work they had performed in the previous twelve months. Data are provided on the number of people involved, their demographic profile, the scale of their involvement, the kinds of activities they are engaged in and the fields in which they participated. The 2000 survey excluded Sydney 2000 Olympic volunteers as 'it would have impacted on the survey results and affected comparability with the first national survey' (AusStats 2002, p. 1).

Table 1 shows comparable volunteer participation data between 1995 and 2000. In 1995, 20% of the population aged 15 years and over provided some form of voluntary work (ABS 1996). This figure grew to 32% of the population aged 18 years and over in 2000 (ABS 2001). From 1995 to 2000 there was an increase in total volunteers, the number of annual hours worked and the proportion of the population that volunteers. The average hours that people volunteered remained the same indicating that the increase in hours worked was a result of increased numbers of people participating in volunteering.

Table 1: Comparison of 1995 and 2000 volunteer participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of Population that Volunteers</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Volunteers 000s</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Hours Worked 000's</td>
<td>511,700</td>
<td>704,100</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Hours Per Volunteer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During this period, volunteer participation rates for the 18–24 age group saw the greatest growth of 61.9%. The increasing volunteer participation rate goes against
declining trends reported in America, the United Kingdom and Canada (Independent Sector 1999; Independent Sector 2001; Arai 2004). In 2000, 27% of 18-24 year olds and 28% of 25-34 year olds undertook some form of volunteering. This percentage rose substantially to 40% for the 35-44 age groups and then declined slowly, with, age to 30% of the 65-74 age group (AusStats 2002). This is consistent with Arai (2004) who identified persons aged between 35 and 44 as more inclined to volunteer than any other age group, and Caro and Bass (1997) who found that retired people are more receptive to volunteering immediately following termination of employment but have slightly lower rates of volunteering than employed people.

Volunteering is related to life cycle. Studies by Nichols and King (1998), Rotolo (2000) and Wilson (2000) found that as individual’s progress through life, they may volunteer to an association or organization, remain affiliated for a period of time and then leave. The number of organizations they contribute to and the length of service he or she is there for depend on the particular life stage that the individual is in. Both the 1995 and 2000 ABS studies found the highest rate of volunteering was by people living with a partner and children (42%), and, overall, was higher for women (45%) than men (38%) except, in the 50-75 age groups (AusStats 2002). Where women are living with a partner and children, their propensity to volunteer was higher than men; the peak female rate being the ages 35-44. Lone parents had the second highest volunteer rate of 32.6%. The implication is that people with families are more likely to volunteer than those not in a family situation. There is a link between age and family commitment as it is the 35-44 age group that is more likely to be married with children.

The ABS studies also reported that gender segregation occurs within voluntary work activities. Female volunteers were more likely than male volunteers to prepare and serve food (47% compared to 23%) whereas men were more likely to undertake activities such as repairs, maintenance, gardening, coaching and refereeing (38% compared to 14%, and 29% compared to 16%) (ABS 2000).

Employment is also related to levels of volunteering in a number of ways. People in either full time or part time paid employment were more likely to volunteer than those
not in the labour force, however, unemployed women were more likely to volunteer than employed women. It could be speculated that these are women who are in a family situation and working at home, but there is no empirical evidence to support this. Those people who were not in the labour force, but volunteered, contributed slightly more hours of voluntary work per person than people in either full time or part time employment (ABS 2000). Voluntary work conducted on a weekly basis accounted for 73% of all voluntary hours worked. The number of hours volunteered on a weekly basis increased steadily with age to where it is the highest in the 65-74 age group (2.5 hours) (AusStats 2002).

Volunteers work for a variety of organizations, which are grouped under the categories of community/welfare, sport/recreation education/training/youth development, religion, health, arts/culture (ABS 1996; ABS 2001). Organizations in the arts/culture category include museums and art museums, libraries, historical associations and festivals. Organizations that attract the highest number of volunteers are in the community/welfare and sport/recreation categories. However, the greatest increase (50%) in volunteer participation between 1995 and 2000 was in the areas of arts/culture.

Selected tasks performed by volunteers for 1995 and 2000 are presented in Table two. People tend to choose a volunteer activity that best reflects their paid employment or work involvement. For example, managers and administrators were more likely than other occupational groups to do management and committee work, professionals were more likely to teach and tradespersons were much more likely to undertake repairs, maintenance or gardening activities (ABS 2001).

Table 2: Selected tasks performed by volunteers 1995 and 2000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>% Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management/committee work</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing serving food</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching/instruction</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin/clerical work</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transporting people/goods</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairs/maintenance/gardening</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Befriending/supportive/listening/counselling</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching/refereeing/judging</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiding tours (museums, galleries, etc.)</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The five most common tasks performed by volunteers for 2000, were fundraising, management/committee work, teaching, instruction, administration, clerical work and preparing and serving food. It is not surprising that substantial increases in tasks performed by volunteers have occurred across all activity types. Data for guiding tours (a common activity performed by museum volunteers), were not available in 2000 as this activity was included in a grouped category called ‘other’ but it is expected there are similar increases in the volunteer activity of ‘guiding tours’.

Within Australia there appears to be a culture of volunteering that is taken very seriously by people, as evidenced by the generous contribution of personal time they are willing to give. Given this high propensity for people to volunteer, it is important to discuss the reasons why they willingly give of their time and energy too many diverse organizations. This is the question that is explored in the next section.

### 2.2.4 Volunteer Motivation

‘Motivation concerns those processes that give behaviour its energy and direction’ (Dai and Sternberg 2004, p. 6). Needs, cognitions, and emotions generate motivational states. For example: the need for food and water will motivate a person to satisfy their hunger and thirst; a goal to lose weight by a specified period motivates a person to develop a plan that will realise this goal; and if we like someone it would generate a motivational tendency to speak to that person (Reeve 2005). There are two broad types of motivation intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is the innate propensity to engage one’s interests and to exercise one’s capacities and, in doing so, to seek out and
master optimal challenges (Deci and Ryan 1985; Reeve 2005). Extrinsic motivation arises from environmental incentives and consequences (eg. food and money) (Reeve 2005 p. 134). According to Reeve, when a person is extrinsically motivated, it is the presence of incentives and consequences, which will create in them a sense of wanting to engage in those behaviours that will produce desired consequences.

It's a common perception within the community that volunteers are altruistic, willing to give their time for no personal gain. However, Naylor as early as 1967 found that primary interests or obligations drive people to volunteer, even if people are not always consciously aware of them and they will seek to meet these needs while giving service to others. Henderson (1981) supports this argument stating that it is just as common for individuals to hold multiple motives that may or may not be apparent or consciously defined. Omoto and Snyder (1995) went on to argue that selfish functions served by volunteering is what keeps volunteers actively involved.

More studies are identifying a diverse range of motives that drive people to volunteer, including: wanting to help people, having a sense of duty, having children in a program, and enjoyment of volunteer work (ABS 1996, 2001; Henderson 1981; Stebbins 1996; Nichols and King 1998); need for influence, social status, or elaboration of social networks (ABS 1996, 2001; Green and Chalip 1998; Clary, Snyder and Stukas 1996); interest in the subject, to support a particular service or activity, enjoyment of the work, to gain experience, to satisfy social needs and to fill in spare time (Holmes 1999; Rochester 1999); and the need to be doing something useful (Rochester 1999; Stebbins 1996). This research confirms the complexity of motives, which individuals have, therefore the question becomes, ‘are there common dimensions that can explain this variety of motives?’ Some studies have sought to empirically answer this question, in particular, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991); Snyder and Omoto (1992); Caldwell and Andereck (1994); Clary, Snyder and Stukas (1996); Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1996, 1997, 1998); Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen and Miene (1998).

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) used a 28 motive, self-complete questionnaire on 258 volunteers from human service agencies and 104 non-volunteers. They concluded that
'with a few exceptions, (motivation to volunteer) can be expressed as a unidimensional phenomenon’ (1991, p. 280). Snyder and Omoto (1992) adopted a functional approach to understanding aids volunteering. Working on the principal that ‘people may engage in what appear to be the same behaviours for very different motivational reasons and to serve quite different psychological functions’ (p. 220) they found that there were five partially overlapping functions; community concern, values, understanding, personal development, and esteem enhancement. Clary et al. (1998) later proposed a set of six motivational functions, which they argue could be considered a core set of functions underlying volunteering in general. The functions are briefly outlined below in order of importance: values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective.

1. **Values function** – volunteer work is undertaken to express and act on values important to the self and exemplifies a concern for others (humanitarian, altruistic);
2. **Understanding function** – volunteer work is seen as an opportunity to gain knowledge, acquire experience, practise skills, and test abilities;
3. **Enhancement function** – volunteer work allows the individual to engage in psychological development and enhance his or her self esteem;
4. **Career function** – volunteer work is seen as an opportunity to gain experiences that will benefit a persons career;
5. **Social function** – volunteer work enables individuals to fit in and get along with social groups that are important to them;
6. **Protective function** – volunteer work enables individuals to cope with inner anxieties and conflicts and in some way protects the ego such as reducing feelings of guilt, or to combat feelings of inferiority.

Caldwell and Andereck (1994) using a mail-back questionnaire studied 371 members of a North Carolina Zoological society. They identified three underlying dimensions of volunteer motives: purposive, solidary (authors’ term) and material incentives. Purposive incentives related to doing something useful and contributing to society. Solidary incentives were based on social interaction, group identification, and networking. Material incentives included tangible rewards such as perks and memorabilia. Purposive incentives were found to be the strongest motive for joining and the strongest incentive for continuing membership, followed by solidary incentives, and finally material incentives. Those who joined for material benefits perceived those benefits to be more important for continuing membership.
Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1996) conducted a series of studies on sporting event volunteers using similar scale items to that of Caldwell and Andereck. They found four underlying dimensions to volunteer motivation: purposive, solidary, external traditions and commitments. Similarities were found, to that of Caldwell and Andereck, in the first two dimensions. External traditions, however, were found to underlie motivations related to family traditions and the use of free time which Caldwell and Andereck argue are seen as external influences on an individual’s volunteer career. Commitments related to an individual’s expectations that they have personal skills, which can be utilised by volunteering. In their second study Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1997) found only three underlying dimensions; solidary, purposive and commitments.

Across these different studies there are some consistent findings. The strongest commonalities were that people need to do something useful and to contribute to society, and people want to have social interaction and form social networks. There was some commonality in individuals wanting to use their skills and experience. The findings are not conclusive, nor do these authors argue that one set of dimensions is more valid than another. Essentially, the most that can be said is that people are attracted to different types of organizations for different reasons. In trying to come to terms with volunteer motivation, it will be studies that build on existing work, which will be more beneficial to developing knowledge in this area.

Motivational factors suggest that volunteers expect to have their needs met in order to achieve satisfaction with their participation (Graham and Edwards, 2004). Drawing on this theory, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) stated, ‘people will continue to volunteer as long as the experience as a whole is rewarding and satisfying to their unique needs’ (p. 281). Studies in general have found volunteers derive a range of benefits from their participation including self-esteem, providing enjoyment, longevity, physical exercise, mental stimulation and general feelings of well being (Graham and Edwards 2004). Heritage volunteers consistently identified social interaction, job satisfaction, sense of achievement, the opportunity to learn new things and a chance to give something back (Handy and Srinivasan 2004; Holmes 1999, 2003) as benefits derived from their work.
In the cultural sector, it is benefits related to personal development and self-education that are of importance to volunteers (Graham 2003).

The implication arising from this discussion is that people are driven by a variety of motives that may not always be altruistic. To this end, research focused on volunteer motivation has been limited and the measurements and concepts that have emerged so far, (with exceptions) have come from studies of volunteers outside the visitor attraction sector. This study will address this imbalance and contribute to the debate on the dimensions that underlie volunteer motivation.

Support for the concept that volunteers personally benefit from their service as opposed to just being a benefit to others can be found in the leisure literature. It is to this area of study that this thesis now turns.

2.2.5 A Leisure Perspective

Studies of volunteers from the leisure perspective have a low profile as leisure findings are not often cited outside the leisure discipline. As early as 1979 Henderson, in a presentation to the Society of Park and Recreation Educators, identified volunteerism as a leisure activity. Evolution of theory in the leisure model now considers there to be three forms of leisure volunteering: serious leisure, casual leisure and project-based leisure (Stebbins 2004). Stebbins proposes that serious leisure volunteering is ‘the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity sufficiently substantial and interesting in nature for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of a combination of its special skills, knowledge, and experience' (Stebbins 1996, p. 215). He uses the term career, because he says, it represents a temporal continuity of activities associated with it.

‘The amateur or hobbyist still gains a profound sense of continuity, and hence career, from his or her more or less steady development as a skilled, experienced, and knowledgeable participant in a particular form of serious
leisure and from the deepening satisfaction that accompanies this kind of personal growth’ (Stebbins 2001a, p: 9-10).

Stebbins (2001a) explains that casual leisure volunteering is less substantial than serious leisure, offers no sort of career and can be exemplified by selling tickets to a play or coordinating games at a picnic. Project-based leisure volunteering is a short-term commitment that requires significant planning, effort and knowledge or skill. Although short-lived, involvement in project-based leisure brings people into an organizational situation.

Qualities of serious leisure include high identity with the activity, high levels of effort and perseverance in acquiring skill and the enduring benefit of self-actualization. A hierarchical model of leisure volunteering helps to accommodate a broader range of volunteer types. In this context, Graham and Edwards (2004) argue that serious leisure would define museum conservation volunteers or volunteer guides; casual leisure would define more informal occasional volunteering roles like serving at a museum function and attending volunteer meetings; while project-based leisure could be applied to student volunteers working on an unpaid museum placement. According to Stebbins (1996), if we do not view volunteering as a form of serious leisure, something that people have chosen to do with their time, then we would have to speculate that so-called volunteers of this kind are somehow pushed into volunteering by other circumstances - a contradiction of terms.

The concept of serious leisure is important because it raises the notion of self-interest, turning the focus onto the individual and what they get out of volunteering, rather than the contribution they make to the wider community. It seems that for some volunteers the activity is pursued for the reward it offers - social interaction, helping others, a chance to give something back, and working for a strongly felt cause (Holmes 1999; Calderwell and Anderick 1994; Cuskelly, McIntyre and Boag 1998). In this paradigm, serious leisure volunteering is considered career volunteering. ‘It is likely that the motive of self-interestedness often drives the pursuit of such a career more than does the motive of altruism’ (Stebbins 1996, p.16). Essentially the assumption is that volunteers
are not only making a contribution to the wider community but are getting something personal out of their participation as well including: feeling competent to do the work, sensing an ideological congruence with the organization, being satisfied with the job done, self-enrichment, opportunities for social interaction, and self-actualisation (Stebbins 1996). Research in this discipline identifies motives such as doing something enjoyable, subject interest, meeting people and making friends as main reasons for participation by museum volunteers (Holmes 1999; McIvor and Goodlad 1998).

Viewing volunteering from this perspective has implications worth noting here. Firstly, if volunteering is the consequence of a leisure choice then it may be assumed that the availability of time will deter or encourage people to volunteer. However, it has been found that people with the least spare time are said to ‘make time’ (Wilson 2004). Secondly, if people are using their leisure time to volunteer it is understandable why many individuals will volunteer for organizations such as museums, places that, in themselves, provide leisure activities and products, for people to do in their free time.

It seems that the leisure literature has something to offer other disciplines in understanding the volunteer. These reflections raise questions about using a professional approach to volunteer management. The impetus to formalise volunteer management may come from a need to ‘control’ that which, by its nature, is difficult to control. It may have advantages for both managers and volunteers, but it may not be appropriate for leisure seeking volunteers (Holmes 2003). In summary the preceding arguments suggest the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1: Volunteers have multiple motivations that are both altruistic and self-interested.*

### 2.3 Tourism

Section 2.2 addressed the nature of volunteering and discussed major studies which have been undertaken in leisure studies. In order to understand museums and art museums it is necessary to examine the field in relation to the broader context of visitor
attractions. Drawing on the study of tourism, the following section turns to visitor attractions, situates the field of museums and art museums in this tourism sector, and describes the visitor attraction product.

### 2.3.1 The Nature of Visitor Attractions

Visitor attractions can be defined as 'designated permanent resources, that are controlled and managed for their own sake and for the enjoyment, amusement, entertainment and education of the visiting public' (Middleton and Clarke 2001, p. 266). Functionally, the role of visitor attractions in tourism is to attract consumers' choices and influence prospective buyers' motivation such that people will visit a destination (Middleton and Clarke, 2001). French, Craig-Smith and Collier (2000) explain that ‘tourists rarely travel to a destination just for the sake of it or simply to stay in a hotel; they will travel to a destination for what it has to offer them in terms of what they can see, do and experience' (p. 134); essentially to visit a destination's attractions. They argue that attractions are the most important component in the tourism system and without attractions drawing visitors to destinations, support for other tourism services such as transportation, lodging and food, would be reduced. Attractions can include: museums and art galleries, zoos, cathedrals and churches, theatres, theme parks, sporting events, historical anniversaries, beaches, caves, forests, flora and fauna, casinos, health spas, waterfront developments, heritage centres, shopping centres, resorts, vistas etc.

Many attractions are considered public goods. Public goods are goods that, once produced are available for all to consume, regardless of who pays and who does not (Quayle, Robinson and McEachern 1994). Public goods or services have two characteristics: they are non-rival and non-excludable. Non-rival means that one person's enjoyment of the good or service does not preclude others from enjoying the good or service (Veal 2002). 'Non-excludable means that it is not technically possible to exclude anyone from enjoying the benefits of the good or service' (Veal 2002, p. 57).

People being able to benefit from a good or service without having to pay for it, brings about what is referred to as the ‘free rider effect’ (Fridgen 1990). Private businesses are
not motivated to provide goods where there are many free riders because they are unable to recoup the full cost of providing those benefits therefore those resources are left un-managed. As a consequence, two things occur: firstly, governments in many countries will take on the responsibility of administering natural, cultural, and historic attractions and resources because they have decided that these amenities are worthy of protection: secondly, volunteers will step in where they perceive there to be a gap in the maintenance and provision of valued resources (United Nations 1999).

The public-good dimension of a product or service, is both directly enjoyed by the general and visiting public as well as indirectly enjoyed from the general satisfaction and pride they might obtain from the knowledge that a nation's cultural heritage is being preserved. Veal (2002) refers to the latter as vicarious consumers, whose enjoyment is a 'psychic' benefit, in contrast to financial or material benefit. These personal and psychic benefits are drivers which push some people to contribute voluntarily of their time, energy and skills towards the continued preservation of the public good. In Australia, most museums and art museums are public goods which provide a variety of products and services for their communities and visitors and attract and use large numbers of volunteers to supplement their staffing levels.

2.3.2 Visitor Attraction Product

Swarbrook (1995) argues that visitor attractions are a product/service mix, a concept drawn from the notion that in service industries the product is actually a combination of tangible goods and intangible services. Lewis and Chambers (1989) state that ‘a product is composed of both tangible and intangible elements: it may be as concrete as a chair or dinner plate or as abstract as ‘a feeling’. The tangible elements of the visitor attraction may be the exhibits, the interactive displays, the rides, the shops, the restaurants, and the seating arrangements. The intangible elements incorporate service delivery, appearance, attitudes, skills, behaviour and the personnel’s knowledge of the attraction. Therefore, employees are part of the quality and value of the services and products and play an important part in the ‘real time’ process of their consumption, while their appearance, attitudes, skills, and behaviour can be seen as an integral part of
the product. Thus, volunteers as active participants in museums, not only assist in the delivery of products and services, but they become an intrinsic part of the visitor experience.

Therefore, the service, ability, and attitudes of personnel will have a crucial impact on the way the service is delivered to the customer, and the customer’s experience and perceptions of the attraction. The outcome of the service interaction will influence the customer’s decision to revisit both the attraction and the destination. For the tourist, a single unfortunate experience can potentially cloud the total experiences of a holiday and, perhaps more importantly, the telling of it. It is imperative then for organizations to effectively manage their staff in order to maximise visitor satisfaction and organizational objectives, which brings the argument back to motivation. The effective management of volunteers will be problematic where there is limited understanding of their motivations or how to use them effectively (Holmes 1999).

As previously discussed, with the exception of a few studies, current volunteer research focuses on sectors other than tourism such as welfare, community services, sporting clubs and not-for-profit associations (du Boulay 1996; Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen 1991, 1996; Cuskelly, McIntyre and Boag 1998; Daly 1991; McPherson and Rotolo 1995, 1996; Metzer, Dollard and Rogers 1997; Nichols and King 1998; Ellis 1997; Farmer and Fedor 1999; Fisher and Ackerman 1999). Research on volunteers in museums and art museums will contribute significantly to the tourism, organizational and volunteer literature and facilitate increased understanding and management of volunteerism by key stakeholders in the tourism industry.

2.3.3 Museums and Art Museums

The 20th General Assembly of the International Council of Museums (ICOM) defined museums and art museums as ‘non-profit making, permanent institution in the service of society and of its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits, for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of people and their environment’ (ICOM 2004). A broad range of
museum types are incorporated in this definition including: natural, archaeological and ethnographic monuments and sites; historical monuments and sites of a museum nature that acquire, conserve and communicate material evidence of people and their environment; international or national or regional or local museum organisations, ministries or departments or public agencies responsible for museums; non-profit institutions or organisations undertaking conservation, research, education, training, documentation and other activities relating to museums and museology; cultural centres and other entities that facilitate the preservation, continuation and management of tangible or intangible heritage resources (living heritage and digital creative activity) (ICOM 2004).

In Australia, museums and art museums contribute in a number of ways to the sustainability of the communities and regions in which they are located. Economically, they impact through admission receipts, revenue expenditure and the acquisition of cultural, heritage and scientific assets. Culturally, they contribute to the preservation of a community's heritage through communication and public education. Politically, they alert interest groups to 'issues of national significance in the areas of cultural heritage, social justice, biodiversity, and sustainability' (Kelly, Savage, Landman and Tonkin 2003, p.14). Socially, they are learning and recreational outlets (Urry 2002) for local communities and visitors as well as providing opportunities for community participation through volunteering programmes. It is their volunteer programs that enable people to work together to provide a service for themselves and the broader community. In this way, museums and art museums are important institutions, which can assist the economic, sociocultural and environmental sustainability of communities. While museum activities focus on the past, their on-going sustainable development requires a steady focus on the present and the future. It takes careful and creative planning to chart direction, manage resources and set achievable outcomes that promote success.

However, museums are facing a number of challenges. Funding restrictions, increased costs, staff restructuring and increased competition from other attractions in the tourism industry (Kelly, Savage, Landman and Tonkin 2003; Edwards 2004) are forcing museums and art museums to diversify their products and services in order to increase
their cash flow and to become economically self-sufficient and more responsive in a competitive market place. For the funds they do receive, they are being held more accountable (Gilmore and Rentschler 2002; Graham 2004); now they must take responsibility for ensuring people attend. To achieve these aims, museums and art museums: are expanding their range of museum options; trying to be more accessible to a broader range of visitor types (Merriman 1989; Heinich 1988); and trying to be seen to offer value, in order to attract increasing visitor numbers. Thus, museums are evolving to become more responsive to the range of visitors that use their services, and are critically appraising how they will manage and market museums to popular visitors.

Additionally, a greater exposure to information has been changing the attitudes and expectations of the visiting public who are more curious, better informed and more demanding (Graham and Edwards 2004). In this climate, museums find that their needs are in competition with other calls on their resources forcing them to demonstrate their viability, justify their existence, and argue their value in new contexts (Hooper-Greenhill 2000). It is not surprising that research is now reporting a shift in museum focus from one of custodial and educational, to one of accommodating tourism markets (Foley and McPherson 2000; Hooper-Greenhill 2000; Gilmore and Rentschler 2002) where the museum becomes less concerned with the power of objects and more concerned with image and consumer satisfaction (Gilmore and Rentschler 2002).

Changes in museum values and approaches to managing museums can also be seen in the use of terminology. For example, there is movement away from ‘customer’ or ‘consumer’ to one of ‘visitor’ or ‘user’ (Gilmore and Rentschler 2002). Oakes et al. (1998) found in an analysis of business planning in heritage museums that ‘people in these organizations are encouraged to see themselves, perhaps for the first time, as working in businesses rather than working in museums that are run in a business-like manner’ (p. 73) and Urry (2002) believes that ‘museums have become more like commercial businesses’ (p. 120). Lankford (2002) is more pointed-she states that museums and galleries must be run efficiently, show results, get people through the door and make them want to come back.
Strategies are familiar - late nights in the courtyard with a live jazz band and fully stocked bar, Sunday brunch in the café, free mugs and t-shirts with membership, a tempting gift shop with goodies for every age, building audiences through special events and exhibits targeting specific segments of the community, busload after busload of subsidised school children, and festivals designed to lure families away from the zoo for a change. (Lankford 2002, p. 141)

According to Urry, the problem has arisen because of the growth of the tourist and leisure industries. ‘Theme parks, shopping malls, and heritage centres have all forced museums to compete, to become much more market-oriented, certainly to run a prominent museum 'shop' and 'café', but also to mount spectacular displays’ (p. 120).

Now, rather than users being accommodated incidentally, management pursues marketing efforts that place users at the centre of activities. These refocused marketing strategies take account of different visitor expectations forcing products and services to cater for interpretation and participation by different methods to ensure that the museum engages its audience (Gilmore and Rentschler 2002). The resulting success in these strategies leads to increased visitor numbers and places demands on resources to maintain the museums product and services (Graham and Edwards 2004). Volunteers, along with museum staff, are responsible for delivering and implementing these new strategies. Therefore, the role of the volunteer becomes increasingly important to the operation of museums and art museums. In order to organize them effectively, and to meet organizational objectives, it is necessary to understand them within the museum and art museum context. That is ‘what motivates them to volunteer for these attractions, what do they value in relation to their work environment and what do they expect to gain from their participation?’. Without this understanding there is potential for: misunderstanding between the volunteer and the organization with respect to their contribution; underutilization of their expertise; an unsatisfactory work life for the volunteer; and a lack of effective management and reward practices.
In the sections above, I have set out the field of inquiry within the tourism and leisure disciplines. Key issues have been reviewed that these literatures argue are significant when considering volunteers. From the leisure perspective, museum and art museum volunteers are considered as serious leisure participants, as people who seek to make a career from contributing their time to activities that they are interested in. From the tourism perspective, museums and art museums are seen as attractions for people, places for them to visit. As attractions, museums and art museums have changed their focus, from conservation and collection, to places of entertainment.

I will now review the organization studies literature and show how one of its well developed theories can be combined with the tourism literature to provide a theoretical basis for analysing volunteering.

2.4 Organization Studies

There are many ways in which organizations can be analysed, but, because of their complexity theorists often adopt singular perspectives. The institutional approach focuses on the shared social meanings attached to problem solving behaviours and the taken for granted nature of organizations and organizational environments. It views institutions as multifaceted, durable social structures, made up of symbolic elements, social activities, and material resources (Scott 2001). Neoinstitutionalists add to this array symbolic systems, cognitive scripts, and normative codes.

To this author, Institutional theory, one that has been seen as integrative (Greenwood and Hinings 1996), can accommodate other perspectives in two ways. Firstly, institutional theory can be applied at various levels; 'world system, society, organizational field, organizational population, organizations, and organizational subsystem' (Scott 2001, p. 83) and to various units: individuals, work groups, divisions, organizations, and fields. This analysis is consistent with aspects of Evolutionary, Ecological, Interpretive, Organizational Learning and Resource Dependence perspectives. Secondly, institutional theory acknowledges three important aspects of organizations: regulative aspects that constrain and regularise behaviour; normative
aspects that specify how things should be done in order to achieve valued ends; and cultural cognitive aspects that take account of an actor's subjective interpretation of objective conditions. Regulative, normative and cultural cognitive aspects can be found in Interpretive and Organizational Learning perspectives.

An acknowledgment of multiple perspectives within one theory opens up the opportunity for analysis that is embracing and honest in its approach. Thus the richness of Institutional theory enables objective analyses of organizations from different levels.

### 2.4.1 Institutional Theory

Selznick (1948) wrote that organizations have a life of their own and though they are rationally ordered and designed to attain goals, they can ‘never succeed in conquering the nonrational dimensions of organizational behaviour’ (p. 25). He viewed organizational structure as adaptive, and shaped by the characteristics and commitments of members and influences from the external environment. Subsequently, Scott (1992) describes nonrational features as ‘1) individuals, who participate in the organization as ‘wholes’ and do not act merely in terms of their formal roles within the system; and 2) organizational structures, which include the formal aspects but also the complex informal systems that link participants with one another and with others to the official boundaries’ (p.64). Ranson, Hinings and Greenwood (1980) referred to blurred organizational boundaries when they argued that in order for organizations to remain effective they must remain sensitive to their environment, because it contains the resources on which the organization is dependent. They went on to say that as these resources change over time, it forces organizations to adapt.

Arguments have evolved such that institutional theorists now see organizations immersed in environments, rather than just interacting as independent actors (Meyer 1994). This perspective of interpenetration was a subtle shift in intellectual thinking. Meyer (1994) reflecting on theoretical observations referred to it as ‘waves of environmentally induced change’, arguing that ‘organizations are interpenetrated with their environments, which may constitute (rather than affect) organizational identities,
structures, and activity routines’ (p.32). In this way, organizational structure and activity patterns are constantly being interpreted and reinterpreted in relation to their environments. To demonstrate this phenomenon, Meyer (1994) presented a General Institutional Model (Figure 1) that would explain the nature and formulation of organizational life.

**Figure 1: Elements of a General Institutional Model (Meyer 1994, p. 33)**

Meyer presents the model working backwards from its outcome. Box 1, the outcome, represents a similar set of organizations, with their various identities, structures, and activity patterns that result from patterns that have been institutionalized in the rationalised environment. Selznick states that these contexts are environmentally dependent, as the requirement for validity pressures organizations to conform to standardized structures and activities. Influences on Box 1 are the rules and institutionalized elements that exist within the organization’s environment, Box 2. These include processes such as reporting requirements and formulation of professional groupings. Here, he argues that it is general environmental changes in state and society that contribute to shifts in the form of organizational life. Essentially an organization does not operate in isolation. The source of these effects is the rationalized environment, Box 3. Rationalization is the ‘structuring of everyday life within standardized impersonal rules that constitute social organization as a means to collective purpose’ (Meyer, Boli and Thomas 1994, p. 20). It is the development or change in the rules or ideologies, which prescribe appropriate organizational practice that lead organizations to adopt similar practices. The dimensions Meyer considered to play the largest role were public regulation and scientific or professional doctrines. However, he acknowledges that the dimensions are not well developed. Finally, macrosociological
processes, Box 4, affect the control and development of the rationalized environment. These processes include the nation state and its own environment; the cultures of various professions and sciences; and the means by which models of organizing are selected for emulation.

Meyer’s simple model appears to be the first diagrammatic representation used to explain the formulation of organizational fields. The model represents a group of organizations that operate in the same domain and aims to explain how they are influenced and by whom, to take on standardized organizational forms and routines. It was Meyer’s view, that up to that point, research had focused on organizations as being at the end of an overall causal chain and he used this model to demonstrate this. However, organizations have their own role to play in the interaction. As previously discussed institutional theory now views the external environment not as separate to an organization but interwoven with it and work has centered around the relationship between cause and effect.

Institutional theory uses the concept of organizational fields to study this relationship. A focus on fields facilitates an analysis of differentiated but interdependent organizations (Scott 2001). An organizational field ‘connotes the existence of a community of organizations that partakes of a common meaning system and whose participants interact more frequently and fatefully with one another than with actors outside the field’ (Scott 1995, pp. 207-208). An organizational field exists when there is an increase in interaction among organizations; well-defined inter-organizational structures of domination and patterns of coalition; an increase in the information that organizations must contend with; and a mutual awareness among participants that they are involved in a common enterprise (DiMaggio and Powell 1983). As the definition implies, within the field exist other organizations that critically influence their performance, such as competitors, funding sources, and regulators. But, it is also argued by this candidate that actors in organizations will seek out change when confronted by internal challenges.
Organizational fields can be distinguished by unique characteristics and rules that, in turn, define and distinguish the operations of organizations within that field. Prominent work on defining field characteristics has been undertaken by:

- Anand and Peterson (2000) who believe that 'the market serves as a magnet around which groups of organizations begin to cohere' (p. 270) resulting in the consolidation of organizational fields. As a result organizations will seek to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity about their markets by processing the collection, delivery, and interpretation of market information.
- DiMaggio and Powell (1991) who identified influence, coalitions and competing values as leading to the structuration of the field of US art museums.
- Scott (2001) who delimits fields using four areas' boundaries, logics, governance and structuration.
- Greenwood and Hinings (1996) who emphasise archetypes around which organizations converge.
- Hinings, Greenwood, Reay and Suddaby (2003) who state that repeated patterns of organizational interaction lead to a consensus of beliefs and values in a field which then enforce particular ways of behaving.

According to DiMaggio and Powell (1991) there are four parts to the structure of a field. There needs to be interaction among organizations in the field. Within the field there are clearly defined interorganizational structures of domination and patterns of coalition. There are increasing amounts of information with which field participants must contend. Finally, participants within the field must be aware that they are part of a set of organizations that share a common enterprise.

When institutional theorists asked why organizations come to look alike (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Greenwood and Hinings 1996; Meyer and Rowan 1977), they found the answer in ‘fields’. This is because organizations within a field adopt similar structures in order to gain legitimacy. How this occurs is discussed in the following section.
2.4.2 Organizational Templates

To consider the process of legitimation effectively, it can be useful to think of institutions as 'scripts' (Barley 1986; Goffman 1983), 'observable, recurrent activities and patterns of interaction characteristic of a particular setting' (Barley and Tolbert 1997, p. 96). If scripts are regular interactions that occur on a day-to-day basis then templates provide the framework within which they occur. Organizational templates, are taken for granted beliefs and widely promulgated rules that exist within organizational environments (DiMaggio and Powell 1991). Greenwood and Hinings (1988, 1996) state that templates are ways of organising that originate outside the organization, and are relevant to a population of organizations within an organizational field (Greenwood and Hinings 1996, p. 1024). DiMaggio and Powell (1991) argue that taken for granted beliefs and widely promulgated rules which exist within organizational environments serve as templates for organising. Furthermore, organizations within fields will converge to similar organizational templates (Meyer and Rowan 1977; DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Greenwood and Hinings, 1996) leading to methods of organising and acting that become taken-for-granted, and legitimated (Hinings, Greenwood, Reay and Suddaby 2003) within organizations and the field.

Adoption of templates can occur through a number of means. Firstly, participants are aware of, and actively pursue and adopt, templates because they are confronted by internal and external challenges that create uncertainties (mimetic pressures). Secondly, they may do so in response to formal and informal pressures from other organizations (coercive pressures). Thirdly, participants may seek to professionalise and legitimate their occupations (normative pressures). It is accepted that powerful actors such as the state, the professions, or dominant agents within organizational fields play a major role in influencing organizational reproduction (DiMaggio 1991) but precisely how this occurs is still not well understood. There are three questions surrounding organizational adoption of templates. Firstly, do participants actively pursue and adopt templates or is there a more subtle incorporation into an organization's activities? Secondly, is the adoption happenstance i.e., do managers during interaction with others outside their organization come across a method that they find interesting or useful and consequently
incorporate it into their own organization? Or thirdly, does the adoption of templates occur from a combination of drivers?

In large not-for-profit public organizations, administrative professionalism is especially prominent. ‘Nonprofits are less likely than proprietary firms to be oligopolists, less likely to be highly competitive, and more likely to depend upon institutional as opposed to technical sources of legitimacy’ (DiMaggio 1991, p. 288). Large museums and art museums fit this profile as they are institutionalized and strive for a high degree of professionalism in the delivery of their products and services. Combined, these theoretical arguments and findings suggest an explicit foundational hypothesis:

_Hypothesis 2: Organization templates for volunteer programs are both institutionally and field derived._

### 2.4.3 Models of Volunteer Management

Holmes (2003) states there are two philosophical paradigms for viewing volunteers: the economic model and the leisure model. The economic model analyses volunteers as filling the gaps in provision between the private and public sectors. The importance of volunteers is derived from their contribution to the economy. Handy and Srinivasan (2004) undertake a cost benefit analysis, concluding that the monetary value of volunteer hours outweighs resource costs such as those involved in managing and supervising them. In this model, volunteers are considered as unpaid workers. This model tends to dominate in the UK, Canada and Australia (Holmes 2003) where volunteers are managed as unpaid staff (Tyzack 1996). Holmes states that the leisure model views volunteering as a leisure experience but there is no mention of what the management model for leisure volunteers would look like. She does however make some recommendations for managing them, including, targeting more retired, older people; providing social opportunities; utilising volunteers as advocates for museums; and involving volunteers in programming and production of materials such as guide books and information panels.
More recently, Lockstone, Deery and King (2004) suggested that volunteer resources should be integrated into organizational culture, in an environment where volunteers are working in cohesion with paid staff. The model, under which they propose this to occur, was flexibility theory. The flexible organization manages time such that organizational needs are mutually aligned with employee needs, work patterns in order to achieve economic imperatives; and jobs such that employee’s skills are used in a broader range of areas (Lockstone, Deery and King 2004). In a pilot test of two visitor information centres and four attractions they found that volunteer managers and coordinators perceived the application of flexible work practices as impractical, but acknowledged the use of these practices ‘as a means of maintaining volunteer interest and improving role-related knowledge’ (p. 450).

Thus, literature is unclear as to how volunteers should be managed. The prescriptive trend is toward bureaucratisation. It calls for models of best practice and adoption of systems used by larger, more structured firms and agencies such as defining roles and responsibilities, clarifying expectations, employing formal recruitment methods and providing written policies, guidelines and procedures. The following excerpt from a prescriptive article exemplifies this:

‘No wise manager would attempt to run an organization of any size without a clearly defined structure, including lines of authority, task descriptions, and procedures for reaching decisions. Volunteer programs pose the same management problems as any other organization, and should not be without vital management structures just because volunteers are not paid or are not full-time. A successful volunteers program demands good management’ (Kupke 1991, pp. 25-26).

The sentiment, although expressed in 1991, is still relevant today. Recently, at the 10th National Conference on Volunteering in Australia, there was much debate by practitioners about the problems involved in organizing large numbers of volunteers. Workshops at this conference centred on the replication of personnel practices and a top-down approach to management. It is likely however, that there is inadequate
understanding of volunteers by management that justifies a structuralist direction. These observations may be accurate but are not based upon empirical inquiry. In managing volunteers, du Boulay (1996) identified similar management practices between volunteer workers and paid workers. He argues that ‘…both are internally motivated by the work itself, providing they are respected and valued as individuals. Both can be externally motivated by factors such as, power, position, friendship, and recognition. Both expect to be given an opportunity to be involved in the work and related decision making in a meaningful way’ (du Boulay 1996, p. 12). Yet Pearce (1980) states that unpaid workers require satisfaction of personal needs, which are discernibly different in priority from the satisfactions sought by financially compensated workers. ‘The particular motivations that lead people to become volunteers may subsequently interact with their experiences so as to influence their ultimate effectiveness as volunteers, their satisfaction with their work, or even the length of time that they remain active’ (Snyder and Omoto 1992, p. 230). It is this differentiation that presents difficulties for managing unpaid workers.

United Parcel Service (UPS) (1998) sponsored research on managing volunteers and obstacles to volunteering, through a telephone survey of a random-digit-dial sample of households in America. It found a number of issues important to volunteers including: inefficient management of volunteer time was an obstacle to increased volunteerism; that people are more likely to volunteer when they feel the program is well managed and will make good use of their time; that people wanted organizations to make better use of their talents, skills, or expertise; and they stopped volunteering when tasks were not clearly defined. Holmes (1999), in a long term study of heritage museums, found that the heritage sector is becoming increasingly more specialised in its management of volunteers in response to both increasing volunteer numbers and the number of museums and heritage organizations. Further, it has been found that voluntary organizations that adopt a more professional and business like structure acquire a greater share of resources and achieve more goals than for less sophisticated organizations (Getz and Frisby 1988).
Rochester (1999) in a study of voluntary organizations identified four models of volunteer involvement. The first of these is the 'service delivery' model. In this model, volunteers are under an explicit agreement similar to a contract of employment. They carry out a lion’s share of the operational activities of the organization in the form of predetermined and specific tasks. There are clear organizational arrangements, and a clear distinction between the roles of volunteers and paid staff. Organizations that use this model invest heavily in initial training. Paid staff organize volunteer workloads, provide support and supervision on a one to one basis, and provide opportunities to exchange skills with other volunteers. They are also responsible for recruiting, training, deploying and supporting volunteers. Further training may be provided by organizations to enable volunteers to take on work that is more complex and/or involves greater responsibility.

The second model is the 'support role' model where the role of the volunteer is to support and supplement the work of the paid staff who are executing more important areas of work. This model enables paid staff to maximise their time on operational activities. Training tends to be impromptu, while support, supervision, and appraisal can vary from informal to tightly structured.

The third model is the ‘member/activist’ model. Organization and management is about inviting people to find out what contribution they can make, offering opportunities for personal and social learning and providing mutual support. Volunteers may undertake all organizational roles, which can be negotiated and developed over time in light of volunteer experience, personal growth and reflection. Volunteer participation is more flexible and can range from passive to very active.

The fourth model is the ‘co-worker’ model where the differences in the role and distinctions of status between paid staff and volunteers are unclear. The work of staff needs to be supplemented by volunteer effort. Division of labour is ambiguous and roles and status are blurred. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities is done through discussion and negotiation considering the knowledge and skills of both paid and volunteer staff. Volunteers participate because they identify strongly with the
organizational aims and purposes. Paid staff may also share similar motivation, commitment and values of volunteer co-workers. Supervisors may be paid or unpaid, and leadership is based on nurturing and enabling, by example.

Whilst this conflict could be resolved empirically, it is indicative of the stage of development of the literature that such a study has not been published. Structuralist approaches have implications in that ‘as organizations become more professional, volunteers may become marginalised as they are pushed from core organizational responsibilities to the periphery’ (Auld 1994, p.14). This may result in ‘the knowledge, experience and skills of individuals being more valued than their commitment, motivation, and enthusiasm to volunteer their services’ (Cuskelly et al. 1998, p.199). Should this be the case, and should volunteers be chosen according to extrinsic abilities, the organization may miss out on recruiting true volunteer ‘gems’ or limit the ‘fresh, new, ideas’ which volunteers can bring to an organization.

The author could find no research that clarifies this view, but it could be assumed that volunteers, depending on their length of service, would view the introduction of new formal management methods differently. For instance, new volunteers would be more accepting of management methods than volunteers who had served for an extended period time. What is worth noting is that there are few studies that have considered the link between modes of organising volunteers and organizational structure.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has laid out the literature which forms the basis for this study. It integrates literature from three distinct areas tourism, leisure and organization studies. Tourism views attractions as visitor drawcards, an important component in the tourism system. Tourism research focuses on service and product attributes of attractions and the management of paid staff in this context. Although large numbers of volunteers are engaged in tourist attractions, specifically museums and art museums, they are neglected as an area of interest by tourism researchers. Leisure studies, view volunteering as a leisure experience. Research in this area focuses on the self-interested
nature of volunteers and compels us to rethink the volunteer and to consider what they get out of their volunteering rather than the contribution they make to the wider community.

Organizational studies call for greater attention to the interplay between an organization’s internal and external environments and structure as a prime analytical construct for organizational understanding. Institutional theory views institutions as multifaceted, durable social structures, made up of symbolic elements, social activities, and material resources that facilitate normative, coercive and mimetic forces. These forces result in taken-for-granted beliefs and widely promulgated rules about ‘how things should be done’ the outcome of which, is the adoption of organizational templates. If we are to understand how volunteers are organised then these three disparate areas must be drawn together. Chapter Three sets out the framework in which this will be done. The aim of this framework is to guide the investigation to answer the questions that have been raised in Chapters One and Two.
Chapter Three

A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING HOW VOLUNTEERS ARE ORGANIZED

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to understand ‘how volunteers are organised’. There is no question that institutional theory has had a major influence on organizational studies over the past two decades. Increasing calls have been made for greater attention to be paid to the complexities of organizations, for them to be viewed as open systems, on which demands and expectations are made from the wider institutional environment: demands and expectations that stem from cultural norms, standards set by professional bodies and requirements of funding agencies (Meyer and Scott 1992; Benson 1975; Hannan and Freeman 1989; DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Hinings and Greenwood 1988; Greenwood and Hinings 1996). In order to understand the organizational context in which volunteering takes place, a framework is required that takes account of both the internal and external institutional environments. Therefore, this chapter is devoted to setting out a theoretical framework that will be used to answer the overriding question of how volunteers are organised.

In Section 3.2 a conceptual framework for understanding the organization of volunteers is set out. It provides an overview of the framework and component parts: the External Environment, Internal Environment, and Outcome.

Section 3.3 extends the model and explains the relevance of each element to the framework. Characteristics of the organizational field of museums and art museums are defined in Section 3.3.1. Section 3.4 considers the role that volunteer motivation, value commitments, interest dissatisfaction and organizational structure play in the operation of a successful volunteer program. Section 3.5 speculates on the outcomes, which arise
from a person’s satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their volunteer experience and the organization’s satisfaction with its volunteer program. Section 3.6 explains the relationships between the various elements of the framework. A summary of the Chapter is presented in Section 3.7.

3.2 A Conceptual Framework for Understanding the Organization of Volunteers

Rochester (1999) argues that volunteer motivation and the effective organization of their work will vary according to the organizational context within which the work is undertaken. He goes on to say that a key issue in volunteering is the recognition that there is no single approach to involving people in voluntary action and that this thinking is an essential precondition for adopting methods that are appropriate to the particular organizational context in which volunteering takes place. By identifying the differences between organizational contexts, voluntary action can be encouraged, supported and organised.

There are no known theoretical models specific to an understanding of the organizational context of volunteering in tourism, which reflects a general lack of research and theory in this area. A starting point in the development of the framework was work by Meyer (1994) and Greenwood and Hinings (1996) who considered the interplay of internal, organizational dynamics with the external environment. Figure 2 provides an overview of the model, which was adapted from Greenwood and Hinings (1996). The framework brings together the main elements of the literature, discussed in Chapter Two, in three areas: external environment, internal environment, and outcome.
In its application, the framework has three aims. Firstly, similar to that of Meyer (1994), it takes what is now understood about organizational fields and applies that knowledge to the context of museums and art museums, in order to explain the field defining characteristics of museums and art museums. Secondly, to understand how volunteer programs are organized and who are the diverse people who participate in them. The third aim is to elucidate the linkages between the organizational field and internal activities of the organization, in order to observe more closely the subtle influences each environment has on the other.

**Framework Overview**

The *external environment* in which an organization operates is discussed through the notion of organizational fields. This framework identifies characteristics that are
specific to the field of museums and art museums. In its application it will assist in answering ‘what is the context in which museums and art museums operate?’ and ‘from where, are organizational templates derived?’. The internal environment relates to the 'internal complexities of organizations' (Greenwood and Hinings 1996, p. 1029) that is, diverse functional groups and individuals who fulfil a range of positions with varying levels of status. These groups and individuals influence, and are influenced by, the organization's activities, structures and processes. This part of the framework focuses on aspects of volunteerism such as value commitments, interest dissatisfaction, motivation to volunteer and the structure of the organization in which volunteering takes place. It will address the questions of ‘why do people volunteer their time to museums and art museums?’ and ‘what is the relationship between their motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments?’.

outcome represents the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of volunteers with their experience, the organization’s satisfaction with their volunteer program and the resulting success of the program. It is necessary to note that the model is not static; rather, it is shaped by the continuous interaction that occurs within the organization and between organizational context and organizational dynamics. A detailed discussion of the framework follows in the next section.

3.3 External Environment

The External environment relates to activities that take place outside the organization. That is, organizations do not operate in isolation from each other (Meyer and Scott 1992; Benson 1975; DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Hinings and Greenwood 1988; Hall 1991). They exist in connection with other similar organizations and, as a group, tend to become increasingly homogenous over time (Hall 1991). Organizations are strongly embedded in environments and environmental influences penetrate organizations in many ways (Aldrich 2000). 'A common theme running through all facets of institutional theory is environmental influence over organizations’ (Aldrich 2000, p. 50), and it can be seen as a shaping force, one in which organizations change their structures to conform to an institutionalized pattern supported by powerful legitimating
forces outside their boundaries. It is not difficult to find support for this conclusion, as Scott (1995); Pugh and Hickson (1997); Meyer and Scott (1992); Hall (1991); Donaldson (2001); Ranson, Hinings and Greenwood (1980) have all discussed the external environment's influence, effect and relationship to organizations.

The literature argues that the environment, perhaps more than any other factor, affects organizational structure, internal processes and managerial decision-making (Daft, Sormunen and Parks 1988). Organizations depend on the environment for scarce and valued resources, and organizations often must cope with unstable, unpredictable external events. In this way, the environment forces managers to detect and interpret problem areas, identify opportunities, and implement strategic or structural adaptations in response to environmental uncertainties (Daft et al. 1988). To not do so may negatively affect organizational performance and environment adaptation. However, the environment is not a uniform or single entity; the environment is made up of multiple characteristics where some are of little concern to the organization while others are so dominant that they can affect the entire organization.

3.3.1 Organizational Field

As noted in Chapter Two, an organizational field is a set of interactive organizations oriented around a common substantive interest, such as medical care, educational policy, or the arts. It was found that the interaction which occurs within the field critically influences individual organizational activities and tends to cause units within the field to resemble each other. From the literature a number of characteristics have been identified as defining the organizational field of museums and art museums, they are:

- Standard industrial classification codes;
- Common structure of relations/governance within which these organizations may function;
- Common information gathering systems;
- Technical and institutional aspects of organizations and their environments;
- Microprocesses;
- Predominant belief systems and related practices;
- Existence and level of interorganizational interaction and patterns of coalition; and
- Linkages that bind both similar and dissimilar organizations.

These characteristics will be explained in turn.

*Standard industrial classification codes* identify groupings of businesses, which carry out similar economic activities. In the Australia New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC 2001), classes are created if certain conditions are met. 'The most important of these are that they represent recognisable segments of Australian and New Zealand industry, meet user requirements for statistics, are homogeneous in terms of industrial activity, are economically significant, and align as closely as practicable with the international standard' (ANZSIC 2001).

'What is perhaps less obvious is the great variety of mechanisms and arrangements employed to govern different sectors or fields in the same society' (Scott 2001, p. 140). *Governance structures* are imposed by rule and sanction from higher authorities by actions of members in the field or by a combination of both. It is through this characteristic that coercive processes arise. Coercive processes are 'the external pressures exerted on organizations to adopt structures, techniques, or behaviours similar to other organizations’ (Daft 2000 p:185). That is, organizations must comply with imposed rules and sanctions in order to avoid punishment.

Theoretically organizations that confront a highly regulated environment will develop more formal internal administrative structures (Aldrich 1999). Out of these formal administrative structures, professional associations can emerge that enable an
occupation to formalise its identity, make claims about its occupational status, and participate in the governance of a field (Lounsbury 2002).

Anand and Peterson (2000) found in a study of the commercial music industry that the market 'serves as a magnet around which groups of organizations begin to cohere' (p. 270). Thus within a field a 'common information-gathering system', develops to collect, deliver and interpret market activity information that organizations can use to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity about their common markets.

**Technical characteristics** are those in which a product or service is produced and exchanged in a market such that organizations are rewarded for the effective and efficient control of their production systems (Scott and Meyer 1991, p. 123). Technical characteristics assist an organization, it is hoped, to effectively and efficiently produce its products and services. Products and services are then exchanged in a market and organizations are rewarded when they maintain effective and efficient control of their production systems. **Institutional characteristics** are the elaboration of rules and requirements to which individual organizations must conform if they are to receive support and legitimacy' (Scott and Meyer 1991, p. 123).

Standard industrial codes may have alerted organizations to their competitive set, but managers will also categorise other firms as within or outside their competitive set. Institutional theory refers to this activity as *microprocesses*. Managers will identify those firms that are relevant to their strategic choices and will continually scan the environment, evaluating what business they are in, identifying their competitors and those organizations from whom they can learn (Scott 2001).

**Belief systems and related practices** provide guidelines to field participants as to how they are to carry out work (Scott 2001). Key actors are viewed as knowledgeable and reflexive, capable of understanding and taking account of everyday situations and of routinely monitoring the results of their own and other's actions (Scott 2001, p. 76). These features arise from professionals who share a body of knowledge based on university and technical degrees and professional networks. They are exposed to
similar training and standards, and adopt shared values which are then implemented in the organizations in which they work. Institutional literature refers to them as Normative forces. Out of this characteristic arise Normative processes. Normative processes ‘mean that organizations are expected to change to achieve standards of professionalism, and to adopt techniques that are considered by the professional community to be up to date and effective’ (Daft 2000, p. 185).

According to McDonald and Mutch (2000), ways of organizing and behaving are 'created, enacted, replicated or revised, and turned into routines' (p. 131). Thus, their actions can lead to creating and transferring new ways of organising. But the strength and unity of field participants such as trade associations will affect belief systems and practices; the stronger these associations are the more influential they are. Some fields can be characterised by a single set of beliefs while others are characterised by multiple belief systems (Scott 2001). Furthermore, the articulation of shared values and beliefs leads to the formalising of principles and charters.

The existence and level of *interorganizational interaction* and patterns of coalition are considered to be a defining field characteristic because 'the structure of a field not only influences managers' cognitions but is also shaped by them' (Porac and Thomas 1990 in Scott 2001, p. 138). Organizations exhibit a particular mode of organising or way of operating, within a framework of the 'rules of the game' or widely held and articulated characteristics. Mimetic processes arise in this characteristic when organizations face uncertainty about which products, services, or technologies will realise desired goals and outcomes. In the face of this uncertainty they will look to copy or model other organizations that they perceive to be successful and innovative (Daft 2000). Regardless of what problems may arise, managers will feel more confident because they are seen to be using the latest techniques. Normative and mimetic processes are complementary. Because achieving standards of professionalism, and being up to date, are taken for granted and accepted as necessary for an organization to remain legitimate, it follows that, in a time of uncertainty, organizations will seek out interaction with other field members in order to copy practices to ensure their legitimacy within the field is maintained.
Finally, organizations are involved in both horizontal and vertical connections with similar and dissimilar organizations (Scott and Meyer 1991). This is because they are a part of and operate in broader industry sectors (Oakes, Townley and Cooper 1998). Aldrich (1999, p.300) notes that a field 'may well encompass an entire regional, national, or global economic system, depending on the core chosen'. Fields will vary in their insulation from other fields and how open or closed they are to ideas from other fields will depend on their level of coupling (Greenwood and Hinings 1996). Coupling refers to the adoption of clearly endorsed organizational templates (ways of organising) and the transmission of those templates to organizations within the field through the characteristics mention above. Tight coupling within a field will limit the amount of influence that other fields may have while loose coupling permits a greater influence.

At one level, the field of museums and art museums is tightly coupled as a result of strong coercive forces. However, during times of high uncertainty, museums and art museums are forced to be more flexible which requires them to seek organizational solutions from other fields. For example, changing market needs and increasing competition have lead museums to be more novel in the delivery of their products and services and to look to the fields of events and hospitality for innovative ideas and new ways of doing things.

Taken together, the characteristics work as a mechanism that causes firms within the field to become similar. The characteristics are not independent; they are complex and interrelated and at times difficult to disentangle from each other. Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings (2002), caution that field boundaries are constantly under review and subject to redefinition of interpretation and emphasis due to the constant process of dynamic interaction which occurs between field characteristics. Thus boundaries are subject to ongoing interpretation and negotiation that may involve encompassing more, fewer, or different functions over time.
3.4  **Internal Environment**

‘Throughout all considerations of organizational structures one is aware that structures are made up of people’ (Donovan 1977). It is the inter-relationships between individuals and between groups, which are important in the formation of patterns and these, have relevance for organizational tension, conflict and dysfunction. *internal environment* takes account of the people factor and comprises four main elements that interact and influence the efficiency and effectiveness of volunteer programs; motivation to volunteer, value commitments, interest dissatisfaction and organizational structure. Each of these elements will be discussed in turn.

### 3.4.1 Motivation to Volunteer

Understanding volunteer motivations will be central to organizational issues such as satisfaction with the volunteering experience, recruitment, retention, daily operations, the volunteer’s level of contribution, the volunteer’s continuance and acceptance of their role, acceptance of the organization and volunteers organizational commitment. Farrell et al. (1998) argue that ‘volunteer satisfaction is based upon a link between motivations and actual experience (p. 290). ‘People will continue to volunteer as long as the experience as a whole is rewarding and satisfying to their unique needs’, (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen 1991, p. 281).

Consequently, volunteers exchange their time and labour for some sort of psychological gain (Green and Chalip 1998) or reciprocity (Pearce 1980). The notion of a psychological contract refers to an individual’s beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that person and another party’, Rousseau (1989 in Farmer and Fedor 1999). Reciprocity between the volunteer and the organization may be explicit or implicit. Explicit agreements are those communicated directly by the organization such as pay, rules, regulations and benefits. Implicit agreements are based on past actions or expectations of perceived benefits that arise from individuals’ perspective of what will be provided in the future. Contracts will be
unique and will differ between individuals as they are embedded in each person’s goals, needs and personality (Farmer and Fedor 1999; Pearce 1980).

Psychological contracts have a number of functions: to reduce uncertainty by establishing agreed upon conditions of employment; to avoid overly managing employees, to give employees a sense that they are able to influence their own destiny, and to establish a bond of trust (Farmer and Fedor 1999). There are two broad types of contracts: transactional, which are economically based and spell out responsibilities; and relational, which are dynamic and based on collective interest. As volunteers select themselves into different organizations, it must be assumed that their motives play a part in determining the individual reciprocal obligations or expectations that they have. Therefore it is likely that volunteers will have a more relational contract with their organization.

Contract violations can arise out of differences of opinion, from either party going back on a promise or from a breakdown in staff relations. The latter has implications for volunteer management where organizations have a high turnover of paid staff. The departure of a paid supervisor will result in the loss of trust that has been built between supervisor and volunteer and may in turn have an unsettling effect on the volunteer’s productivity. Essentially, it is argued that breaches of the psychological contract will affect the volunteer’s level of organizational commitment (Farmer and Fedor 1999). Problems such as role confusion, incompetent or uncommitted volunteers and conflicts based on professional or functional variables, may also cause breakdowns in the staff-volunteer relationship. The resulting volunteer dissatisfaction can lead to volunteers ‘withdrawing’ from an organization, not only by quitting but also failing to execute assignments competently, placing excessive demands on a firm’s resources, or being inflexible (Pearce 1980).

In Chapter Two, it was demonstrated that volunteers have serious leisure needs that they seek to fulfil such as doing something enjoyable, having an interest in the subject, meeting people and making friends. As they self select, it must be assumed they do so in organizations, in which they share at least its core values, bringing with them an
initial commitment. The next section considers value commitments from the volunteer perspective.

3.4.2 Value Commitments

Commitment can be defined as a 'strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and definite desire to maintain organizational membership' (Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian 1974, p. 604). There are a variety of value commitments within organizations (Hinings, Thibault and Kikulis 1996), which can be viewed from two perspectives - the individual and the group. Greenwood and Hinings (1996) identify four generic patterns of commitment between organizational groups and prevailing organizational templates:

1. Status quo commitment to the prevailing institutionalized template in use;
2. Indifferent commitment in which groups are neither committed nor opposed to the template-in-use;
3. Competitive commitment in which some groups support the template-in-use whereas others prefer an articulated alternative; and
4. Reformative commitment in which all groups are opposed to the template-in-use and prefer an articulated alternative (p. 1030).

It is not clear however, from where the values by which these patterns can be measured are derived. From the individual perspective, Werkmeister (1967) argued that commitment is a manifestation of the individual’s own self, and reflects value standards that are basic to the individual’s existence as a person. Judge and Cable (1997) argue that it is the individual's perception of the organization's values that is arguably more important to predicting individual behaviour. Although an individual may be influenced by others, it is suggested that their subjective perception of the template in use, and how that template reflects organizational values, is more likely to determine his or her attitudes and behaviour to both the group and the template in use. Greenwood
and Hinings (1996) did not discuss the role of an individual's values in shaping behaviour, but they use it to support their arguments. For example:

'By hiring non-accountants from other institutional sectors, new sets of expectations and thus commitments to ways of doing things are built into the organization' (p. 1031).

'Management consultants in several accounting firms became dissatisfied with their interests and began to question the organizational assumptions of how things were done' (p. 1031).

In the first example, it is individuals who demonstrate a particular set of values, who are recruited, and in the second example it can be assumed that it is dissatisfied individuals who have come together, then, as a group, challenge prevailing templates. Thus individuals 'will be committed to an organization for different reasons and accordingly, each type of commitment may produce different effects' (Finegan 2000, p. 152).

Meyer and Allen (1991); O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991); Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) assert that commitment is multidimensional in nature. Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three components to commitment:

1. Affective commitment, which describes the emotional attachment, a person feels for the organization; (It should be noted that although not specified by Meyer and Allen, I consider affective commitment to include an individual’s commitment to their perceived ‘ideals’ of what the organization represents, its principles, its vision or for what it stands.)

2. Normative commitment, which describes the feelings of obligation, a person has to remain with an organization; and

3. Continuance commitment, which develops ‘as employees recognise that they have accumulated investments that would be lost if they were to leave the organization, or as they recognise that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited.'
The question becomes where does commitment sit for potentially self-interested volunteers? Affective commitment seems the most plausible as volunteers values are interwoven with their motivations.

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) found that each commitment component develops as a result of an individual’s different experiences, and has different implications for on-the-job behaviour. Affective and normative commitment are associated with higher productivity, more positive work attitudes and a greater likelihood of engaging in organizational leadership (Finegan 2000; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson 1989; Meyer and Allen 1991; Allen and Meyer 1996). In contrast, continuance commitment has very few positive relationships with performance indicators (Meyer et al 1993; Meyer and Allen 1997; Konovsky and Croppanzano 1991). For this reason, organizations should carefully consider the nature of commitment they inspire if they want to retain and strengthen employee commitment. It also indicates the variable nature of commitment while individuals and groups will seek to maintain their vested interests.

Using this argument it can be concluded that members will participate in organizations by supporting activities which sustain the organization’s needs and by using organizational resources to pursue their own needs as they seek to find a place within the organizations (Aldrich 1999). Pfeffer (1997) said that if an individual can be persuaded to do something, and their behaviour is not attributed to a powerful external force such as a reward or sanction, then the person will become more committed to the action and to its implications for other attitudes and behaviour. He goes on to argue that there are three conditions that facilitate commitment, choice or volition, publicness, and explicitness. Choice is required in order to ensure there are implications for an individual’s behaviour and to reflect an individual’s beliefs or perceptions. Publicness demonstrates that an individual has acted and binds the individual to their choice. Explicitness means that an individual’s behaviour has clear implications, that they are committed to have chosen one action over another.
Volunteerism by nature demonstrates these three conditions. Volunteers are there by choice, there has been no coercion. Their actions are public, while the term volunteer openly represents the bond between themselves and their choice. The act of giving their time for no monetary or material gain has explicit implications – they must like that organization and the tasks they perform, to forgo other activities or to be elsewhere.

From this discussion a number of scenarios can be developed. Given that volunteers receive no direct monetary reward, it may be assumed that, in the short term, their commitment would be affective and to the prevailing template in use. However, as they form bonds with managers and co-workers, as socialisation increases, or they learn new skills, their commitment for remaining with the organization and commitment to the prevailing template may change. Alternatively, the strength of a volunteer’s affective-status quo commitment may be so strong that the volunteer may resist change and create organizational problems for key actors. The last is reinforced by Rokeach (1973 in Finegan 2000) who found that personal values are stable entities and resistant to change and Pfeffer (1997) who states that the downside to commitment is a resistance to change and an irrational perseverance in behaviour.

According to Finegan (2000) ‘the congruence between characteristics of the individual and characteristics of the organization itself can impact on attitudes and behaviour’ (p. 149). He goes on to argue that organizations that don’t have overriding values of economic gain may have values that are more altruistic. From this perspective Scott (2001) termed these values as organizational identity, a commitment to values that are "central, enduring, and distinctive". Organizational identity provides participants with a core set of normative and cultural-cognitive elements around which to craft their narratives and sense-making activities' (p. 106). In part this may explain why volunteers are attracted to not-for-profit organizations, as they perceive a compatibility between the values of the organization and their own (which are not for monetary compensation).

Person-organization fit occurs when (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both (Finegan 2000).
If an organization can understand volunteer motivations and values, then they can place volunteers in positions or situations which won't be at odds with their values. This will enable more productive and positive experiences for both the volunteer and the organization. Moreover, it can be argued that person-organization fit predicts commitment (Finegan 2000).

It seems likely that volunteer motivation that is not income driven may place a greater emphasis on values that are central, enduring, and distinctive or as value-fit as argued by Farmer and Fedor (1999). In turn, an organization’s character is defined significantly by its non-paid members who have joined out of a belief in its goals, and not out of a desire for material reward in the form of wages or salaries (Pfeffer 1997). Therefore it could be assumed that the closer the fit between a volunteer’s values and the values of the organization, the greater the strength of the volunteer’s commitment. Furthermore, the congruence between characteristics of the individual and characteristics of the organization can affect volunteer attitudes and behaviour (Farrell et al. 1998; Cuskelly et al. 1998).

Values underly organizational structure, and organizations have value structures that attach to different groups (Greenwood and Hinings 1996) and are instrumental in the development of commitment in their members. Previously it was argued that volunteer motives for joining may arise from a synergy of values which occur between themselves and perceived organizational values. The role that values play is multi-layered, between individuals and the organization. Volunteers, it seems, are high in value commitment and will look for clear and visible indications that their work is actually contributing to the overall values of the organization (Farmer and Fedor 1999). As a result, they will have a stronger intent to stay with the organization. Thus, the preceding discussion is concluded with the following prediction:

Hypothesis 3: Volunteer values facilitate a status quo commitment to the prevailing template in use.
3.4.3 Interest Dissatisfaction

Organizations are ‘arenas in which coalitions with different interests and capacities for influence vie for dominance’ (Palmer, Jennings and Zhou 1993, p. 103). Members will seek to translate their interests into favourable allocations of scarce and valued organizational resources (Greenwood and Hinings 1996). Consequently, they will try to maintain structures and be committed to ways of organising that will realise desired outcomes. Orientation and motivation of members (Gray and Hinings 2003) will influence their interests.

Interest dissatisfaction is the outcome of affective, normative and continuance commitment (Greenwood and Hinings 1996). Some organizations are aware of the role of individual's values, and have actively sought to change the pattern of value commitments, and thus controlling members’ interests, by recruiting new members. They target particular types of members who have a new set of expectations and ‘new commitments to ways of doing things are built into the organization’, (Greenwood and Hinings 1996, p. 1031). Donovan (1997) in a case study of voluntary organizations had similar findings 'as could be seen in the interviews, there may develop a tendency for the organization to choose a certain type of staff, one which conforms to the image…' of the organization (p. 131). This is consistent with Greenwood and Hinings (1988) who argue that organizations will reorient their structures by removing existing staff and replacing them with groups and individuals who are committed to the new ways of organising, and whose interests are served by ensuring its introduction and success. The implication is that criteria for choosing volunteers may no longer be based on the best able to do the job or enthusiasm but on character references that most reflect the 'type' of person that will conform to the organizations 'way of doing things'.

However, it would be remiss under institutional theory to believe that a volunteer’s experience or dissatisfaction is alienated from the way in which volunteer programs or the organization is structured. Therefore, the role of organizational structure and its effect on volunteers’ value commitments and interest dissatisfaction are discussed in the following section.
3.4.4 Organizational Structure

Organizational structure is ‘the sum total of the ways in which it [the organization] divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination among them (Mintzberg 1979, p. 2). The activities of an organization are shaped through structure. Hinings et al. (2003) goes so far to say that the thrust of the discipline of organization theory is to understand effective and efficient organising, through structural design. Planning, decision-making, programming, communicating, reorganising are activities that are structurally led (Hinings et al. 2003). Key components of organizational structure include: formal reporting relationships, the number of levels in a hierarchy, and managers span of control; groupings of individuals into departments and of departments into the total organization; and the design of systems to ensure effective communication, coordination, and integration of effort across departments (Daft 2000). The latter of these components characterizes the patterns of interaction between organizational members, while the first two reflect the structural design of the organization and will influence the interactional form of members.

Daft (2000) identifies four options for structural design - functional, divisional, multifocused and horizontal. Functional grouping brings together employees who perform similar functions or work or contribute similar knowledge and skills from the top to the bottom of the organization. Divisional grouping brings employees together around products, services, major programs, divisions or profit centres. In a multifocused group an organization may structure by function and product simultaneously. Horizontal grouping brings employees together around core work processes and teams of workers will manage the information and material flows to customers. Organizational structure will influence the way in which shared social meanings and problem solving behaviours occur. ‘It is through structures that activities are shaped and it is through structures that emergent activities are given legitimacy’ (Hinings et al. 2003, p. 275).

Horizontal and vertical linkages, that arise from different types of departmental grouping, facilitate or inhibit the flow of communication and how well information
flows through an organization will affect the effectiveness of organizational activities. Information flow occurs through two linkages, vertical and horizontal. Historically, vertical linkages have been the focus of managers. Vertical linkages enable managers to maintain greater control through the various levels of the organization using methods such as rules, plans, and formal reporting systems. More recently, horizontal linkages have found favour as they enable greater opportunities for coordination and collaboration. Horizontal linkages refer to the interaction that occurs across departments using methods such as information systems, task forces, project teams and fostering direct contact, which enable the flow of communication between departments. It is suggested that organizations need to find the right balance between horizontal and vertical linkages to fit an organization’s needs.

Thus issues of design have much to recommend them as important ways of analysing and understanding organizations. In answering the question ‘how are volunteers organized?’ a design perspective will provide useful insights.

Finally volunteers who have not worked their life’s work or grounded their work in the field to which they volunteer, have learned organising structures and routines from other fields. It is this other institutional routine, (even if it is the routine of housework) with which they are most knowledgeable and comfortable, that they bring with them to the attraction. It would follow that the organising routine of their chosen attraction for them may not be normal or prevailing. This raises questions about their willingness to commit to the organising routines of the institution for which they are now volunteering. Are they open to conformance with existing organizational templates or are they more critical of the ways things are done because they perceive them not to be part of their ‘script’?

### 3.5 Outcome

*Outcome* relates to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of volunteers with their experience, and the organization’s satisfaction with their volunteer program. Should the outcome be positive, volunteers will continue to contribute their time and energy to the organization
and the organization will continue with current programs until such time as changes arise from internal and/or external pressures. Should the outcome be negative, this will result in a reformative commitment and the volunteer ‘withdrawing’ from the organization by quitting, failing to execute assignments competently, placing excessive demands on a firm’s resources, or being inflexible (the latter can be more harmful to the organization than the volunteer quitting). Outcome is linked back to the external environment as positive and negative experiences are shared by organizational actors with other members, agents and associations in the field through the various mechanisms described in Section 3.3.

3.6 Relationships in the framework

The framework presented in Section 3.2 proposes that the external environment can exert influence or control on organizations, which has implications for organizational and managerial capabilities. Activities, which occur in the field, will affect key decision processes within an organization if only because what happens requires a response from the organization, even if the response is to ‘do nothing’.

The two directional arrows linking the external and internal environments in Figure 1 can be understood in a number of ways. First, organizational actors will interact with their counterparts in organizations within the field, seeking new ideas, modes of organising or looking for ways to overcome internal problems. Second, changes within the organizational field can lead to structural changes within the organization, as field activity demands responses from organizations (Greenwood and Hinings 1996). Third, organizational structures may be imposed by a higher authority, such as via the coercive power of government (Aldrich 1999, p. 50). Fourth, powerful external forces can validate or invalidate organizational structures (Aldrich 1999). These pressures can serve to disrupt the interests of organizational actors at any time.

The single directional arrows to interest dissatisfaction and value commitments from motivation to volunteer indicate the role motivation plays in influencing volunteer commitment and interests. For a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic reasons volunteers are
motivated to join an institution and have a range of expectations they hope to meet through their contribution. Commitment and satisfaction are a function of volunteer motives and the benefits they gain from their experience.

The two directional arrows between organizational structure and commitment and interests represent the influence these elements have on each other. The extent to which these groups and individuals are satisfied or dissatisfied with how their interests are accommodated will affect their commitment to organising routines and the organization itself. Finally, the interaction of all the elements in the model will result in an outcome for the volunteer program, including the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of volunteers with their participation, the organization’s satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the organization of the volunteer program and the overall success of the volunteer program as it delivers organizational goals.

3.7 Summary

The framework presented in this chapter represents an effort to bring together three areas of study - tourism, leisure and organization theory. I have done so by using institutional theory to define the field characteristics of museums and art museums and to consider the interplay between an organization’s internal and external environment. In its application, the framework requires the researcher to consider a number of important aspects. First, the consideration of external pressures on the organization and the organization’s response to those pressures. Second, the role which volunteer motivation plays in understanding volunteer values, commitment and interest satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Third, the extent to which the value commitments of volunteers are supportive of organizational practices. Fourth, how organizational structure shapes the activities of the organization. In this way the framework enables the researcher to understand the whole context in which volunteers participate. Hence, this thesis makes an original contribution to existing literature on the organization of volunteers.
Chapter Four

METHODOLOGY

No single source of data is flawless, but the more numerous and diverse the sources, the less likely that they could all be influenced by the same flaw.

(Putnam 2000)

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Two discussed the research that underpins this study. It revealed that there are gaps in the literature concerning motivation, meeting expectations and values for these volunteers. It also revealed that there are gaps in the understanding of the organizational field of museums and art museums and the influence which this interaction has on volunteer programs. Chapter Three explained the overarching framework to be applied to the study. The objective of this chapter is to present the research design - selection of organizations, sampling frame and treatment of the data – used in this study.

The focus of this study is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the context in which museums and art museums operate?
2. Why do people volunteer their time to museums and art museums?
3. What is the interaction that occurs between the institution and its external environment and how does this affects organizing routines of volunteers;
4. What is the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments?
5. How can this knowledge help attractions to manage volunteers better in order to promote their objectives?

To answer these questions, a multi-method, multiple cross-sectional approach was conducted. The study was conducted at three institutions in New South Wales and the
Australian Capital Territory. Qualitative methods were employed for questions One and Three and quantitative methods were employed for questions Two and Four. The chapter explains theoretical underpinnings of the methodology, the tools for undertaking data collection and discusses methodological limitations.

4.2 Methodology

Institutional theory argued that organizations are open systems, which have rationalized patterns and social meaning systems which feed off one another. As these dimensions reflect beliefs, opinions and experiences, they are difficult to measure in a quantitative way. Qualitative research views social life of participants as being the result of interaction and interpretations. Thus, ‘qualitative research can and should be used to develop and verify or test propositions, about the nature of social life’ (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p.137). It asks the researcher to consider a range of data that adds depth to the understanding of a particular phenomenon. Principally, qualitative research is used to collect data about activities, events, occurrences and behaviours and to understand actions, problems and processes within their social context (Phillimore and Goodson 2004).

Thus to answer the questions ‘what is the context in which museums and art museums operate?’ and ‘from where are organizational templates derived?’ a qualitative approach was strategically chosen. An interpretive paradigm using an inductive approach underpins the qualitative research. Although theory was examined for what it can offer, an inductive approach was used to allow explanations to arise out of the data, rather than using the data to prove theory (Taylor and Bogdan 1998). In this approach researchers attempt to gain a deeper understanding of what they have studied and continually refine their interpretations by combining insight and intuition with an intimate familiarity with the data (Taylor and Bogdan 1998, p.141).

This study also sought to understand why people volunteer for museums and art museums and to understand the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments. By implication, a substantial amount of
information from a large population (approximately 650 people at any one time), was necessary. Because these questions aimed to build on existing theory and probabilistic inferences, an inductive approach rather than deductive reasoning was required. Achievement of this goal required the systematic gathering of the same measurable data from the target population. In order to ask respondents sets of standardised, structured questions about what they do, think or feel, a descriptive design was employed; the self-administered survey.

A self-administered survey is a data collection technique in which the respondent reads the survey questions and records his or her own responses without the presence of a trained interviewer. A major advantage of surveys is their ability to accommodate large sample sizes at relatively low cost. Additionally, the data structures that are created can increase the researcher’s ability to make generalised inductive and probabilistic inferences about the target population as a whole. This data can also be used for higher order analyses that tap into factors or concepts that are not directly observable (Lukas, Hair, Bush, Ortinau 2004).

### 4.3 **Selection of Organizations**

The data sets of this thesis include three large attractions from the field of museums and art museums. The Australian War Memorial, located in Canberra, the Capital city of Australia, in the Australian Capital Territory. The Australian Museum, located next to Hyde Park in the centre of Sydney, New South Wales. The Art Gallery of New South Wales, located in The Domain, in the centre of Sydney, New South Wales. The Australian War Memorial, houses the largest collection of war artefacts in Australia. The Australian Museum is a museum that houses a national science collection. The Art Gallery of New South Wales is an art museum that houses an extensive collection of national and international artworks.

The organizations were selected based on size and institutional standing within the field of museums and art museums and the large number of volunteers within their programs. The volunteers who contribute their time, go beyond offering immediate assistance and
make a long-term commitment to the benefit of the organizations. These characteristics, are particularly suited to complex organizational analysis. A final consideration was that these organizations were geographic accessibility to the researcher.

Initially, six large museums and art museums were approached, three in Sydney and three in Canberra. Two organizations from each state consented to being involved in the study. However, it came to my attention that one of these organizations had already consented to research being undertaken on their volunteers by another institution, which would occur around the same time as my own study. I was mindful of the potential confusion that simultaneous studies could create in the mind of the volunteers and the bias this may have on responses. Therefore, I did not include that organization in this study. It was decided to continue with the final three attractions, as it would assist in establishing the range of generality of findings and explanations to museums and art museums, and to identify the conditions under which those findings would occur. A more detailed summary of these attractions is presented in Chapter five.

4.4 Methods of Data Collection

This is a multiple cross-sectional study with the main data collection conducted in 2003. Quantitative and qualitative data were used as part of a mixed methods approach or triangulation. Four methods were used for data collection:

- Semi-structured interviews with volunteer coordinators
- Focus groups to pre-test the questionnaires
- Self-administered questionnaires were sent to the total population of volunteers at each organization.
- Institutional documentation
4.4.1 Semi-structured Interviews

This study seeks to make sense of the interaction, which occurs between the institution and its external environment, and how this affects organizing routines of volunteers. Undertaking quantitative, survey research would provide valuable descriptive data, however, it would not provide in-depth knowledge of how individual actors interact with their organizational field. In-depth interviews is a research method that enables the researcher to explore a subject matter in detail. In-depth interviews facilitate an inductive approach whereby patterns in the data can lead to the development of grounded theory in field interaction, based on the actions and experiences of the respondents (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). Semi-structured interviews are effective with busy people and the open structure allows the researcher to explore unexpected facts or attitudes (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2004). Therefore, semi-structured interviews were chosen as the method by which to understand why and how key actors interact with their organizational field.

A total of eight, semi-structured, interviews were held with serving volunteer coordinators and managers from each of the institutions between November 2002 and February 2004. Three from the AGNSW, two from the AWM and three from the AM. Two interviews, which were conducted outside the data collection period, were with permanent staff. The last interview held, was in early 2004 as the coordinator was on extended leave and did not return until late 2003. The coordinators return to work coincided with the holiday season; consequently, their heavy work schedule meant that I was unable to meet with them until February 2004. The interviews were conducted in an informal manner and in a place chosen by the participant. In each case, this was in a quiet room of the organization. Each interview was taped, ran for approximately 90 minutes or until no new information was being generated, and transcribed verbatim.

As the intention was to combine the themes emerging from the interview data, the researcher felt that it was important to ensure that each interview followed a similar structure. Accordingly, a semi-structured interview prompt list was designed to assist the researcher to cover the same topics and sub areas with each participant (see
Appendix 2). Three days prior to the interview, the prompt list was emailed to participants for reflection. Immediately prior to the interview taking place, each participant was asked to sign an informed consent form. As participant confidentiality was assured, their comments have been anonymised when presenting the data (Phillimore and Goodson 2004).

The interview opened with questions about the participant’s background and experience in the organization, and how they came to be in their current roles. More specific questions, were asked as the interview progressed. These questions related to their attitudes to volunteers, program structure, recruitment, management, their challenges and rewards and field interaction. As it is important to allow the voices of participants to emerge (Denzin and Lincoln 1994), participants were allowed to tell their own story in a way that was most comfortable for them. All interviews were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed.

4.4.2 Self-administered Survey

The self-administered survey (see Appendix 2), was mailed to the total population of volunteers across the three institutions (641 at the time of data collection) and realised a response rate of 54%. The questionnaire was designed to elicit the following data:

- Motivation - Why people contribute their time to the institution
- Met expectations – Have volunteer expectations been met in relation to their reasons for volunteering
- Value commitments - Values people hold in relation to their work environment
- Satisfaction with aspects of their volunteering experience and the organization of volunteers at the institution
- Respondent’s length of volunteering service
- Respondent’s previous volunteering experience and
- Demographics.
Questions 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7, from the questionnaire, build a picture of volunteering activity: people’s length of service, the tasks they undertake and time spent in preparing and executing their activities. Questions 3 asks people what motivated them to volunteer. Question 8 asks whether some of these expectations have been met. Question 9 explores what volunteers’ value in relation to their work environment. Question 10 identifies volunteer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with aspects of their volunteering experience and can be related to question 11 their ‘overall’ satisfaction with their experience. Question 12 seeks to identify how volunteers express their dissatisfaction. Question 13 asks respondents to rate their satisfaction with the organization of volunteers at the institution. Question 14 measures continuance, and asks respondents if they intend to continue volunteering. Questions 15 to 20 identify the socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers.

Questions 3, 8 and 9 relating to motivation, met expectations and values measured agreement and disagreement using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly agree” to 7 “strongly disagree”. Questions 10, 11 and 13 relating to satisfaction with respondents work experience, overall experience and organization used a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “very satisfied” to 7 “very dissatisfied”. Respondents were given the opportunity to make a written response to each of the questions listed above. Many took up this opportunity; consequently, those responses were treated as qualitative data.

Again, participant confidentiality was assured. Questionnaires were mailed to respondents by the institutions on behalf of the researcher. Each envelope contained a cover letter, which introduced the research and explained why the data were being collected and how it would be used.

**Questionnaire Items**

The literature review presented a compelling need for an inventory of motives especially designed to reflect, in a valid and reliable way, the social and psychological functions of volunteers in attraction settings. Motivation is a difficult concept to measure because it is subconsciously constructed. Previous studies identified a diverse range of underlying factors for volunteer motivation since each volunteer context...
required the measurement of different variables. For this reason, in devising the research design of the questionnaire, I felt that an understanding of volunteer phenomena will progress more productively if it were to follow other empirical analyses of volunteers in the tourism industry rather than areas of enquiry which are not relevant to museum volunteers or do not have the same characteristics as attractions. Therefore, methodology employed in this study, was based on the work of Calderwell and Andereck (1994) who investigated volunteer motives for a zoological society and Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1996, 1997, 1998) who investigated motivation, commitment and satisfaction of volunteers at three different sporting events. Arising from these studies, items that related to the motivational dimensions of purposive, social, external traditions and commitments were included (an explanation of these dimensions can be found in Chapter two).

The process of developing the motivational items involved omitting irrelevant items, rewording some items to suit the current study, and replacing the 5-point Likert scale with a 7-point version. The use of a 7-point scale assists in better separation of the data, assures the postulation of nominal distribution, which is required for many tests, and enables the data to undergo higher order analysis (Garson 2004). The final consideration for selecting motive items were (a) the motive was relevant for volunteers providing direct services; (b) the motive was relevant to the group under study; (c) the motive did not overlap with another motive; and (d) the combined impact of all relevant motives adds up to the motivation to volunteer for this group.

Negative wording was employed in some items in questions 8 and 9 in order to reduce response set bias. This was necessary to break up what might be an habitual response pattern and to encourage group members to consider more carefully their responses to the items (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003). The items were later reverse entered into the data file.

In line with formative methodology used by Farmer and Fedor (1999), met expectations were measured by tracking volunteer motivation items and the extent to which volunteers’ expectations were satisfied. Day to day operations of an institution also
have an influential effect on the volunteer experience. A scale, similar to that of Farrell, Johnston and Twynan’s (1996, 1997, 1998) for measuring satisfaction with operational aspects of the program, was used to measure this dimension. Value commitment was measured using commitment items arising out of the work of Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) and Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). From this data, I looked for patterns that revealed the nature of commitment and resulting interest dissatisfaction of respondents.

Socio-demographic questions are important for reasons of comparison and similarities. For this reason the demographic questions parallel the ABS national profile of volunteers and those of Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1996, 1997, 1998). The data will assist in predicting the level of voluntary activity that organizations can expect from different age groups and backgrounds. In this way it will point to segments of the volunteer 'market' and assist organizations in more effective targeting of particular groups, and more effective recruitment and retention strategies.

The questionnaires were colour coded for each attraction in order to minimise confusion, and aid in efficient collation and coding of the questionnaires. Each questionnaire was numbered in order to guard against loss or misplacement. To protect anonymity, envelopes were labelled and posted from within each of the institutions. Each envelope included a questionnaire, cover letter and reply paid envelope.

### 4.4.3 Focus groups – Pretest Method

Questionnaires can often be plagued with problems. They may comprise ambiguous, loaded or double-barrelled questions, lack important variables or response options, and be too lengthy (Aaker et al. 2004). Therefore, it is important to pretest a questionnaire in order to identify and correct any deficiencies it may contain. Pretesting refers to “the use of a questionnaire in a small pilot study to ascertain how well the questionnaire works” (Hunt et al. 1982, p. 269). Hunt et al. (1982) suggest that pretesting a questionnaire should be conducted via personal interviews, regardless of the ultimate administration method for the questionnaire following pretesting. “Personal interviews
enable the interviewer to notice reactions, hesitations, and other cues by the respondent that could not be obtained via telephone or mail” (Hunt et al. 1982, p. 270). These, plus other benefits, can be gained where interviews are conducted with groups of people. Focus groups are a ‘group interview’ tool, which involve a number of people who are encouraged to vocalise, so there are plenty of opportunities for all of participants to influence each other as to what is said (Gomm 2004).

Focus groups are a flexible tool that can be used in a variety of contexts and within a whole range of research paradigms. Focus groups are regarded as being particularly effective in capturing complexities within a given context and to explore how participants value and define key concepts, in their own words (Thomas 2004). According to Gomm (2004) ‘the hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group’ (p. 172). For these reasons, focus groups were used to pretest the questionnaire at each attraction.

Participants were self-selected, following a call for participants by the volunteer manager or coordinator. There were six participants at the AWM, eleven at the AGNSW (which included volunteers from both the Task Force and the Gallery Guides) and five from the AM. A comfortable and private location was used to hold each focus group. At the AWM it was in a boardroom, at the AGNSW it was in private room of the Task Force and at the Australian Museum it was in the volunteers tea room. Immediately prior to the start of each focus group participants were asked to sign an informed consent form, their confidentiality was assured, and the researcher later ‘anonymised’ (Phillimore and Goodson 2004) any comments presented in the data.

When conducting an interview pretest, the researcher can choose one of two approaches; a debriefing or protocol approach (Aaker et al. 2004). In the protocol method, the subject is asked to ‘think aloud’ as he or she is filling out the questionnaire (Aaker et al. 2004, p. 329). In the debriefing approach, the questionnaire is administered to respondents in the same way it is intended for the full-scale study (Aaker et al. 2004). Because a self complete questionnaire was to be mailed to
respondents to complete on their own, the debriefing approach was used. It was decided that participants should complete the questionnaire similarly to the way in which it was to be administered. Each focus group followed the same format, with the same facilitator and assistant.

On arrival, participants were welcomed and asked if the session could be taped and to complete a permission form. The purpose of the focus group was explained, and confidentiality was assured. As moderator, I explained the rules and format in which the focus group would run. It was decided that participants should complete the questionnaire similar to the way in which it was to be administered. This involved a number of stages. First, participants were provided with a copy of the questionnaire, clearly labelled as “draft only”. Second, they were instructed that while answering the questionnaire, they were not to ask the moderator or assistant for help, but instead to make note where they felt confusion or difficulty with a question. Third, the moderator and assistant observed the participants as they completed the questionnaire and made note of any behaviour that indicated confusion, difficulty or uneasiness with the questionnaire. Fourth, participants were timed in order to make note of the maximum and minimum amount of time it took to complete the questionnaire.

Every care was taken in ensuring that the atmosphere was positive, thoughtful and permissive. A guide was distributed to each participant, to assist constructive thinking whilst participants were completing the survey. The guide asked them to reflect on:

- Format – the way in which the questions are presented
- Wording – clarity
- Layout - is it easy on the eye?
- Sequence – do the questions have a logical sequence, is it confusing, could it be improved?
- Ambiguity – is the intent of questions clear?
- Understanding – do they understand the instruction on 'how' to answer each question?
• Content – are the questions appropriate, should any be removed, is there anything else that should be included?

Participants were asked to silently answer the questionnaire as they would under normal circumstances, noting either on the questionnaire or the sheet provided any problems, concerns or issues they may have with the questionnaire. The time was recorded and it was found that the questionnaire could be completed within a maximum time of 21 minutes.

Following completion of all the questionnaires, the moderator ‘debriefed’ respondents. Starting with the first question participants were asked to put forward any comments that they may have. This process continued until all the questions were covered and concerns were addressed. The process proved insightful for both the researcher and the volunteers. Many participants had never met each other before, or worked in different areas, therefore this was their first opportunity to interact with volunteers from within their own area or with those from other parts of the organization. At times the group engaged in lively discussion as they compared notes, sought clarification and ‘understanding’ of each other. Even though the focus groups had a clear objective, the former interaction proved insightful for understanding ‘the volunteer’, particularly in relation to recognition.

All focus groups ran for approximately two hours. Overall, pretesting revealed that each focus group had similar issues. Participants confirmed that the majority of questions were relevant, reflected volunteer sentiments and that the format was clear. Participants requested minor word changes to maintain clarity while some major changes were required in question content, including changing the sequence of questions so that motivational items were asked early in the questionnaire, deleting four motivational items that participants felt were not relevant to them and adding five motivational items that reflected gaining and using skills, and personal interests of volunteers relating to science, history or art. Each focus group was recorded on mini-disc and later transcribed and inputted into QSR NUD*IST Vivo software program.
The final volunteer questionnaire can be found in Appendix 3.

4.4.4 Documentation

Documents were collected in relation to organizational structure; roles and tasks of volunteers; employment practices; and volunteer program rules and regulations. These documents included annual reports, induction manuals, volunteer information packs and business plans. The availability of documents varied by institution.

The contents of the documents were used to provide background information on each institution, to gain information on organizational structure and procedures, and where necessary, to cross reference perspectives put forward by participants. Annual reports were collected for the two years prior to the study, as well as the year of the study, to help provide consistency to the organizational perspective.

4.5 Methods of Data Analysis

This section outlines the procedures used to analyse and interpret qualitative and quantitative data.

4.5.1 Qualitative Data

Data analysis was conducted with the aid of QSR NUD*IST Vivo software program; a program designed to specifically facilitate analytic induction. Analytic induction is ‘the thesis that there are regularities to be found in the physical and social worlds’ (Huberman and Miles 1994). Constructs used to express these regularities are obtained by an iterative procedure not too dissimilar from grounded theory where emerging concepts, theories and propositions come directly from the data and not some form of priori assumption, other research, or existing theoretical frameworks (Huberman and Miles 1994).

Following recommendations from Taylor and Bogdan (1998) data analysis involved three distinct activities: ongoing discovery, coding and review of findings. First,
ongoing discovery was conducted by identifying themes and developing concepts and propositions. Then as the data were collected, the researcher constantly theorised and tried to make sense of the data. As notes and transcripts were read, emerging themes were tracked and developed, and concepts and propositions of the data were interpreted. Second, following data collection the data were coded and the researcher’s understanding of the subject matter was refined. The final activity was to review findings by understanding the data in the context in which they were collected (Taylor and Bogdan 1998). During all stages, attention was paid to negative cases in order to redefine the phenomenon (Taylor and Bogdan 1998) and to assert a more valid claim on the general nature of what was found.

There is no hard and fast rule of coding (Taylor and Bogdan 1998). For this study, data were recorded, and each transcript was read to gain familiarity with the contents. Paragraphs and sentences within each transcript were open coded; notes were kept on hunches, interpretations and ideas for use later in analysis. As different themes and categories were identified, they were analysed for underlying similarities between them. NVivo, works in a number of ways: first, as a storage and referencing system and second, as a tool where concepts, themes and categories can be stored at open nodes from which they are subsequently refined and grouped into meaningful tree nodes. ‘Nodes are like filing cabinets for coding’ (Bazeley and Richards 2000, p. 24). Tree nodes enable hierarchical organization of coded nodes into conceptual dimensions. Third, within NVivo data frequencies can be identified, relationships can be cross-referenced and memos, notes and ideas can be recorded and later incorporated into the data analysis. Using the field defining characteristics identified from the literature (see section 3.3.1) NVivo was helpful in aiding the researcher to tease out field defining characteristics from volunteer coordinator interviews, reports and documents. These themes were incorporated into section 5.3.1.

Qualitative responses captured by the questionnaires were thematically analysed in relation to the question in which the response was made.
4.5.2 Quantitative Data

Quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 12.0.1. When analysing quantitative data, demographic questions can be interpreted in a straightforward manner using cross tabs, mean and percentages. However, questions that relate to a respondents beliefs, feelings or perceptions are more problematic. For example, the study asked respondents why they volunteered at a museum or art museum, using a number of variables that were of interest in measuring their motivation. The question generated thousands of similar, difficult to interpret, responses. The question is: do these wide range of motivations grow out of a smaller set of underlying needs or dispositions? ‘Factor analysis is a statistical procedure that establishes whether different people group a certain set of items or variables in the same way’ (Franken 2002). It explores the relationships among measured variables and tries to determine whether these relationships can be summarized in a smaller number of latent constructs (Thompson 2004). If people group things in a similar way it may be because they are operating out of similar psychological structures.

Factor analysis transforms variables into new, noncorrelated variables, called factors (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003). In this way, it generates an understanding of the underlying structure of questions, variables, or objects, and combines them into new variables or groups (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003, p. 562). A factor then, is a construct that is not directly observable but needs to be inferred from input variables. Thus, factor analysis can reduce these thousands of responses into a much smaller number of conceptually meaningful factors. In this study, it will assist in identifying linear combinations of variables (eg. purposive, social, external traditions) that help to identify the underlying dimensions of motivation. It is an empirical tool for establishing the underlying psychological structure of human motivation (Franken 2002).

Statistically, factors are identified by variance. Variance is the ‘measure of dispersion based on the degree to which elements of a sample or population differ from the average element’ (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003, p. 570). The two most common factor analytic procedures are Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Principal Axis Factoring
(common factor analysis or PAF). If the objective is to summarise the information in a large set of variables into fewer factors then PCA is used (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003; Garson 2004; Graetz 2002). This method assumes that all variance in an item should be used in the analysis. ‘PCA gives a unique solution with some very nice mathematical properties, but the difficulty comes in trying to relate PCA to real-life situations’ (Garson 2004, p. 9). PCA is useful in situations where factors (underlying dimensions) have not been previously identified. However, if the objective is to attempt to uncover the underlying dimensions surrounding the original variables, then PAF is used (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003; Garson 2004; Graetz 2002). PAF uses only the variance in an item that it has in common with the other items. Thus, the goal of PAF is to detect structure rather than to simply summarise the data. It was decided that in order to identify the underlying dimensions that may explain volunteer motivation, PAF using SPSS version 12.0.1, was carried out on the 27-item motivation question.

In factor analysis, variance measures the amount of information conveyed by each factor and for this reason each factor is arranged in order of decreasing variance (Aaker, Kumar and Day, 2003). It means that the most informative factor is first, and the least informative is last. When assessing the adequacy of factors there are four important considerations: sample size, factor loading, communality and rotation.

**Sample size**

According to Kline (1994) sample size must be representative of a population and of sufficient size to produce reliable factors. There are different views on the number of cases required for factor analysis. The rule of 10 states there should be at least 10 cases for each item in the instrument being measured (Garson 2004). Bryant and Yarnold (1995) believe that subjects to variables (STV) should be no lower than five. Hutchinson (1999) argues for at least 150 – 300 cases but more toward the 150 where there are a few highly correlated variables. Gorsuch (1983) argues there should be at least 200 subjects. The approach adopted passed all ‘rules of thumb’ as there were 26 variables and 345 cases.
Factor Loading

Factor loadings are the correlation of a variable with a factor. Factors and their associated variables should be sufficiently correlated to be meaningful. Again, there are differing opinions as to what constitutes meaningful correlation. Zwick and Velicer (1986) suggest that for major components there should be three or more substantial loadings with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and for minor components there can be less than three substantial loadings as long as the eigenvalue is still greater than 1.0. Comrey and Lee (1992) allocate a grade to the factor size and suggest loadings that are .71 or greater are excellent; loadings .63 to .70 are very good; loadings .55 to .62 are good; loadings .45 to .54 are fair; and loadings .32 to .44 are poor. In contrast, Stevens (2002) argues that statistical significance is linked with the number of responses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Responses</th>
<th>Significant Loading</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>.51</td>
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<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>.43</td>
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<td>200</td>
<td>.36</td>
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<td>.26</td>
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<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Steven’s measure of statistical significance (1992)

Each measure is acceptable, however, Graetz (2002) suggests that greater confidence can be gained by drawing on other criteria such as Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. This measure is an indicator of how much variables have in common. Values that are close to zero indicate that variables have little in common (Graetz, 2002) thus a measure that is closer to 1.0 is preferred. This research has employed all these criteria in evaluating the appropriateness of factors.

Communality

Communality measures the percentage of variance in a given variable that contributes to the correlation with other variables, or is “common” to other variables, and may be
interpreted as the reliability of the indicator (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2004). If the indicator variable has a low communality .25 or less, it is considered the factor model is not working well for that variable. If the indicator variable has a high communality .75 or above, it is considered the factor model is working well for that variable (Garson 2004). However, he goes on to say that what is critical is not the communality coefficient per se but, rather the extent to which the item plays a role in the interpretation of the factor. For instance .25 can be meaningful if the variable is contributing to a well-defined factor, .75 is meaningless if the variable is not interpretable.

Rotation

Rotation is used in factor analysis to simplify the pattern of factor loadings to facilitate the interpretation of factors. There are two main approaches, orthogonal methods and oblique methods. A rotation that requires the factors to remain uncorrelated is orthogonal and is the most commonly used form of rotation. In oblique rotation the factors are allowed to become correlated. Oblique rotation is proposed on two grounds. First, the clusters of variables will be better defined (Rummel 1970). The second reason is epistemological, ‘the world can not realistically be treated as though basic functional unities represented by the factors are uncorrelated...phenomena, whether singly or in clusters, are interrelated, and the factors themselves must reflect this reality’ (Rummel 1970, p. 388). Thus, it is appropriate to sacrifice orthogonality for better interpretation (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2003). As motivational items were designed to test a single construct, motivation, it is expected that the factors extracted would be highly correlated therefore oblique rotation is an appropriate choice for analysis (Coakes and Steed 2001).

4.6 Limitations

Focus groups, as a pretest tool, hold some limitations. The setting can be a somewhat artificial one (Thomas 2004). In this study the setting was one in which participants felt comfortable and provided an atmosphere of importance; participants felt that they were involved in something meaningful. In one focus group, there was a dominant
individual, who at times tested the researcher’s group management skills, in order to not allow responses to be socially biased. This was achieved by inviting other participants to comment and demonstrating an interest in each participant’s views. There is also the potential for the researcher as moderator to influence participants (Thomas 2004) however, the moderator was aware of this limitation and every precaution was made, to allow participants to rationalise their views and to probe participants on areas that were unclear.

Another limitation in the study is respondent characteristics. Because many respondents have been with the organization for a long period of time, asking them to recall why they joined may not be the most accurate way to assess their motives. However, care was taken to construct motivation items to assure that they would relate to entry level of volunteers in museums and art museums. Questionnaire items are specific to the field of museums and art museums and, for this reason results should not be generalised across other organizational fields. Nonetheless, they may be very useful for theory building.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998), ‘All observations are filtered through the researcher's selective lens’ (p.160). Researcher bias and the influence of the researcher on participants are important issues in any qualitative study. In reference to the former, the researcher’s biases were acknowledged by recording the researcher’s personal perspectives, logic, and assumptions. A conscious effort was made to avoid steering interviewees towards expressing views that agreed with the researcher’s themes or ideas. With respect to influencing participants, three volunteer managers stated that the questions they were asked, gave them cause for reflection with respect to the programs they manage. This impact is acknowledged, as it would be unwise to assume that a learning exchange does not take place when a rapport is established between the interviewer and interviewee. The researcher is not a valueless interpreter; participant comments ranged from funny, to sad, to rude, which evoked emotive responses of laughter, sadness and anger in the researcher. However, at all times, the researcher acknowledged these feelings and took great pain not to let them affect the analysis.
4.7 Summary

This research is a multi-method, multiple cross-sectional study for understanding volunteers in museums and art museums. Three methods were employed, 1. semi-structured interviews were held with managers and coordinators of volunteers; 2. application of a questionnaire in which scale items were adapted from previous research on motivation, expectations and values; 3. focus groups were held to pretest the questionnaire from which necessary items were deleted or added as a result of input from focus group participants. The focus groups also assisted in a greater understanding of how participants value and perceive volunteering in the attraction context. An integrative approach to data collection facilitated a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. Chapter 5 presents analysis of the data. In particular, it highlights subtle variables in relation to volunteer expectations, that would not have been uncovered had a purely quantitative approach been taken. A discussion of the data and their implications can be found in Chapter 6.
Chapter Five
UNDERSTANDING HOW VOLUNTEERS ARE ORGANISED

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the empirical investigation. The findings are presented according to the framework for understanding organising routines of volunteers outlined in Chapter Three. The results are presented in this way to demonstrate the practical application of the framework. These results address five questions. What is the context in which museums and art museums operate? Why do volunteers contribute their time to museums and art museums? What interaction occurs between the institution and its external environment and how does this affect organizing routines of volunteers? What is the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments? What are the implications for better management of volunteers in order to promote organizational objectives.

The first section presents a detailed summary of the organizations, their volunteers, organizing routine, recruitment and training processes and volunteer benefits. The next section uses qualitative data from both the semi-structured interviews and the volunteer questionnaire to explain the external environment - the organizational field of museums and art museums - by extending field-defining characteristics as identified in Chapter Three. I then set out the findings for the internal environment including volunteer motivation, value commitments, interest dissatisfaction, and organizational structure. Finally, volunteer satisfaction and the institutions’ satisfaction with their volunteer programs are considered. These sections extend the work of institutional theorists into tourism, which I hope provides valuable insights for theorists and managers interested in investigating the phenomenon of volunteers in large not-for-profit visitor attractions.
5.2  Detailed Summary of Attractions

This section presents a detailed summary of each attraction. For a more comprehensive account, please see Appendix 1.

5.2.1  Australian War Memorial

The Australian War Memorial (AWM or Memorial) was officially opened in 1941. The purpose of the AWM is to ‘commemorate the sacrifice of those Australians who died in war’ (Australian War Memorial 2003, p. 1). Its 2002-2003 Annual Report states that the outcome of this purpose is to enable Australians to remember, interpret and understand the Australian experience of war and its enduring impact on Australian society through maintenance and development of the national memorial and a national collection of historical material, and through commemorative ceremonies, exhibitions, research, interpretation, and dissemination’ (Australian War Memorial 2003, p. 1). The Memorial has been recognised, as a Major Australian Tourist attraction for three consecutive years and has been inducted into the Australian Tourism Association's Hall of Fame.

The AWM is open daily except for Christmas Day, Boxing Day and New Year’s Day. Admission and tours are free. Forty-two general tours - six a day - are offered on a weekly basis. For the financial year ended 2003 the museum was host to 794,000 visitors. Another 35,400 people attended the national ANZAC Day and Remembrance Day commemorative ceremonies.

AWM Organization

The Director is responsible for the management and implementation of strategies and policies within the Memorial. The Memorial adopts a functional structure with outputs achieved through cross-branch activities. The AWM has three major functional departments including:
• **National Collection** - This branch is responsible for developing, managing, preserving, and interpreting the national collection.

• **Public Programs** - This branch is responsible for commemoration at the Memorial and throughout the Australian community.

• **Corporate Services** - This branch is responsible for the management of the Memorial’s resources, including staff, finances, facilities, information technology, and office services.

**Volunteers**

The volunteer program is situated under Education and Visitor Services in the Public Programs branch. At the time of data collection, there were 224 active volunteers. Their various activities include: conducting interpretive guided tours, VIP tours for the general public and special interest groups, assisting the public with research enquiries, assisting with functions and formal ceremonies, assisting conservators in preparing relics for storage, and working in laboratories treating textiles and paper based artefacts.

There are three broad groups of volunteers within the Memorial; voluntary guides, discovery room guides and research centre volunteers in the Online Gallery. Volunteers are managed by the Volunteer Coordinator, Education and Visitor Services, and an assistant volunteer coordinator. They are both paid staff. At Treloar Technology Centre and Treloar A Conservation Laboratory, volunteers are managed by a paid Coordinator. Team leaders, who are fulltime conservation staff assigned to specific restoration projects, support the coordinator. The manager at Treloar is on a lower pay level to the E&VS Volunteer manager.

National Collection volunteers are managed on a one to one basis by section heads. Both managers are instructed to liaise with Volunteering ACT, and to be involved in the Volunteers Managers network and the Cultural Volunteers email discussion group.
Organising Routine

There are three broad groups of volunteers within the Memorial: voluntary guides, discovery room guides and research centre volunteers in the Online Gallery. All volunteers are managed by the Volunteer Coordinator, E&VS, whom I will call B1, and an assistant volunteer coordinator. They are both paid staff. However, during the period of this study, it was found that due to staffing constraints in the E&VS Volunteer Services Unit, the volunteer manager was often unsupported in the role.

The Treloar Technology Centre and Treloar A Conservation Laboratory volunteers are managed by the Volunteer Coordinator Treloar. The position at this site is relatively new, having only been created in 2000. Their responsibility is to manage the daily activities and recruitment of the volunteers at the site. This role is supported by team leaders, who are fulltime conservation staff assigned to specific restoration projects. The manager at Treloar is on a lower pay level to the E&VS Volunteer manager. Although recruitment for the site is carried out by the Treloar volunteer manager, any advertising is conducted through the E&VS Volunteer manager.

National Collection volunteers are managed on a one-to-one basis by section heads. Both managers are instructed to liaise with Volunteering ACT, be involved in the Volunteers Managers network and the Cultural Volunteers email discussion group.

Recruitment and Training

There are two recruitment processes, one for the Treloar Centre and one for E&VS. They are undertaken by the relevant volunteer managers for each venue. Both recruitment processes are formal; however the manager at Treloar adopts a somewhat informal approach. The new guides are trained for a period of six to eight months by two experienced guides.
Benefits

Volunteers receive a range of benefits including: access to the research centre, discount at the bookshop and kiosk, concessional entry to other Museums in Canberra, invitations to ceremonies, presentations and services organized by the memorial, and payment for guides to be members of the Association of Australian Gallery Guides Organization (AAGO). Certificates of appreciation are given to recognise significant periods of service and contributions to projects.

5.2.2 Australian Museum

The Australian Museum (AM or the Museum) was Australia's first natural history museum and was founded in 1827. The Australian Museum is a New South Wales Government statutory body administered by the Ministry for the Arts. The Museum operates within a framework of corporate governance, between general public sector statutory requirements and regulations, together with the AM Trust. The AM trust consists of nine trustees who have been nominated by the Minister for the Arts and appointed by the Governor of New South Wales. The purpose of the AM is to ‘propagate knowledge about the natural environment of Australia and to increase that knowledge specifically in the areas of biology, anthropology and geology’ (Australian Museum 2003, p. 2). To achieve it’s purpose the mission of the AM is ‘to research, interpret, communicate and apply understanding of the environments and cultures of the Australian region to increase their long-term sustainability’ (Australian Museum 2003, p. 2).

The AM is open daily except for Christmas Day, Boxing Day and New Years Day. There is an admission which includes tours. For the financial year ended 2003 the museum was host to approximately 397,000 visitors.
AM Organization

The Museum adopts a functional structure with four major functional areas that are overseen by the director and deputy director. Functional areas are:

- **Strategic Initiatives and Information Management** - This division is responsible for information and knowledge management, communication, and establishing a strategic focus to fulfil longer term objectives of the AM.
- **Corporate and Commercial Services** - This division is responsible for the AM's operational activities including Financial Services, Facilities Management, Organizational Development, the Australian Museum Business Services, the Australian Museum Shop, the Museum as a Venue and the Multimedia unit.
- **Public Programs** - The responsibility of this division is to develop the Museum’s facilities, facilitate visitor access to research and knowledge through the Museum itself and its regional and outreach programs.
- **Science** - The science division is responsible for the research and maintenance of collections that will enable the Museum to: gain insights into the world and its cultures; communicate that knowledge more effectively to government, the community and stakeholders; and to use that knowledge to participate in and influence debate about conservation and sustainability.

Volunteers

The volunteer program is situated within Visitor Services under the Division of Public Programs. It comprises two areas: Public Programs and Behind the Scenes. Public Programs' volunteers meet and greet Museum visitors, help visitors feel welcome and oriented to the Museum, conduct guided tours, and interpret Museum content. Public Programs volunteers also assist in special events such as Science Week. Behind the Scenes volunteers assist in a wide variety of roles supporting scientists and other Museum staff in clerical and other diverse duties such as cataloguing, researching and classification.
The AM 2002/2003 Annual Report states that, for the period 2002-2003, there were 186 people actively volunteering within the Australian Museum, 41 as guides and 145 Behind the Scenes. 'They contributed a total of 57,408 hours of service to the Museum which represents an increase of 146% on the hours recorded for 2001/02' (Australian Museum 2003, p. 37).

**Organising Routine**

Management of the volunteer program is overseen by three paid staff members; the volunteer coordinator A1, the front of house manager A2, and an interpretive officer A3. The estimated number of hours given in volunteer service was 10,192 hours in working directly with the public, and 47,216 hours in working Behind the Scenes (Australian Museum 2003). For a number of reasons, (see Appendix 2), the management of volunteers at the AM has been consistently disjointed and continued to be so during the writing of this thesis. Tours at the AM are conducted by both paid staff and volunteer staff.

**Recruitment and Training**

Public Programs' volunteers are recruited approximately once a year. Behind the Scenes volunteers are recruited when a request is made by one of the museums scientists. Volunteers in the Public Programs section are expected to work a minimum of 22 days a year as well as attend regular meetings and training days.

**Benefits**

Volunteer benefits include a T Shirt, free access to the Museum and special exhibitions, free subscription to Nature Australian Magazine, discounted attendance to any public and staff lectures, discounts at the Museum shop and honorary membership of The Australian Museum Society.
5.2.3 Art Gallery of New South Wales

The Art Gallery of New South Wales (AG or Gallery) was opened in 1879. The AG operates under the Art Gallery of New South Wales Act, 1980. The AG trust consists of eleven trustees who have been recommended by the Minister for the Arts and appointed by the Governor of New South Wales. The purpose of the AG is to 'develop and maintain a collection of works of art, and to propagate and increase knowledge and appreciation of art' (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003, p. 1). To achieve it’s purpose the mission of the Gallery is to: ‘acquire, collect and present to the public the finest works of art available, with special emphasis on the artistic traditions of Australia; to explore and inspire through our collection and exhibitions, the emotional and intellectual resources of our audiences; and to create a sense of belonging and provide our visitors with an enjoyable and enduring experience’ (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003, p. 1).

The AG is open daily except for Good Friday and Christmas Day. Admission and tours are free but entry to special exhibits attract a fee. Thirteen general tours are offered on a weekly basis. For 2003, a total of 2,907 adult tours were undertaken by the voluntary guides (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003).

AGNSW Organization

The structure of the AG comprises five major functional divisions, each of which is managed by a member of the AG’s senior management team. The major functional divisions are:

- **Curatorial Services** – This division is responsible for collection and management of Australian, Western European and Asian art.
- **Finance and Management Services** – This division is responsible for human resources, administration and records management, copyright services and image production, finance, information technology, the Gallery shop and venue management.
- **Exhibitions and Building Services** – This division is responsible for security and Gallery services, exhibitions, installation, building management, workshop and graphics.
- **Marketing** – This division is responsible for the publicity office, the information desk, and marketing of the museum.
- **Business Development** – This division is responsible for identifying opportunities for sponsorship within the museum. Originally situated in the division of marketing, it was given its own status in 2003.

**Volunteers**

Volunteers in the Gallery come under Public Programs within the division of Curatorial Services. There are two distinct volunteer programs; the Volunteer Guides and the Task Force. Both programs are self-managed. At the time of data collection there were 278 volunteers across the two programs. The Gallery’s Annual Report states that the value of volunteer services to the Gallery is 1.357 million dollars (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003). The Volunteer Guides provide guided tours of the Gallery's collection and major exhibitions, for the public, school children and special groups.

A recent addition, (for 2004), to the Gallery’s public programmes, is the Community Ambassadors Programme that serves to provide introductory tours on the Gallery’s history, and key works from its various collections, in a variety of languages other than English. These tours are lead by volunteers specifically recruited for the task, called Community Ambassadors.

The Volunteer Task Force is a group of Society members who provide voluntary support to both the Gallery and the Society. They are a multi-function support group who undertake a variety of activities such as ticket and catalogue sales, assisting in the members’ room, mail outs, opening mail, counting votes, clerical and library assistance, and serving at a variety of day and evening functions hosted by the Gallery.
**Organising Routine**

The Gallery guides were established in 1972 and the Task Force was established in 1982. Management of the guides and task force is not dissimilar to self-managed teams. The Gallery guides are self-managed by a coordinator and an assistant coordinator, who are both unpaid. The coordinators are in the position for one year. The position of volunteer guide coordinator is the most senior within the Gallery guides.

The Task Force is managed by the Volunteer Coordinator Task Force and a committee of eight members. The committee is elected each year at the Annual General Meeting. The duties of the Task Force are carried out on a roster basis.

**Recruitment and Training**

There are two separate recruitment processes. Gallery guides are formally recruited approximately once every four years at the beginning of the year. The guides undergo a year’s training programme studying the Gallery’s collection and learning guiding strategies. Guides are expected to do a minimum of 42 hours guiding per year and attend 75% of lectures. The Task Force recruits volunteers on an ‘as need basis’ and at the time of data collection they had a waiting list of two years.

**Benefits**

The benefits for being a volunteer include attending lectures by curators, special exhibitions and seminars at reduced cost, a small reduction in the parking fee for the Domain car park, an annual general meeting and Christmas luncheon, free access to exhibitions, and a badge.
5.3  **External Environment**

5.3.1  **Organizational Field of Museums and Art Museums**

Chapter three identified from the literature, characteristics that can be used to define an organizational field, they were:

- Standard industrial classification codes;
- Common structure of relations/governance within which these organizations may function;
- Common information gathering systems;
- Technical and institutional aspects of organizations and their environments;
- Microprocesses;
- Predominant belief systems and related practices;
- Existence and level of interorganizational interaction and patterns of coalition; and
- Linkages that bind both similar and dissimilar organizations.

This section will relate these characteristics to museums and art museums, and explain the manner in which they give boundary to the field of museums and art museums.

**Standard industrial classification codes**
The subdivisions and groups of ANZSIC (for explanation see section 3.3.1) listed under division 'P' are units that engage in providing cultural and recreational facilities and services (ANZSIC 2001). Grouping 92 is libraries, museums and the arts. From this perspective, museums and art museums in Australia have their own institutional order distinct from that of other organizational fields such as theme parks or accommodation. Additionally, Australian museums are aligned with international associations such as the International Council of Museums (ICOM) through a national committee that represents the interests of Australian museums within ICOM.

**Governance structures**
External pressures in the museum field come from Federal government, State government, professional associations, regulatory agencies, and leading organizations that act to communicate a consistent set of expectations and to monitor compliance of
field members. In Australia, large museums and art museums are subjected to similar enforced hierarchies and regulatory structures. Their institutional processes are linked by governance structures to the wider environment and the rules and conceptions, which arise from these agencies. They are responsible to their relevant minister, and to financial accountability under the Commonwealth Authorities and Companies Act. They are administered through a Council or Board of Trustees and are managed by a Director or General Manager. These activities represent a high regulatory environment, which facilitates the adoption of structures, techniques, and behaviours that lead them to resemble each other in structure and approach. This is evidenced by large museums, as they formalise their volunteer management systems similar to bureaucratic human resource practices in order to tighten control of program activities. In response, volunteers who are self-managed state that changes would not be made without their involvement because ‘they wouldn't try that here, there would be a revolt’. Volunteers who are in programs that are managed by a paid staff member will either comply with changes or reluctantly accept them.

A professional association has emerged within the volunteer guides. The Australian Association of Gallery Guides Organization (AAGGO) was formed in 1976, as volunteer guides sought to cope with changes in their institutions, a lack of information, and a lack of general organizational guidance (Wharton and Harper 2003). Today, the aim of AAGGO is to advance the professionalism of Gallery guides through two-yearly conferences, which are held at a different Gallery and in a different geographic location, on each occasion, and the circulation of newsletters twice a year. More recently the Australian War Memorial has been working with the Canberra Institute of TAFE to develop an accredited award for volunteer guides.

**Common information-gathering system**

Museums and art museums derive market data from a wide variety of sources including museum and art museum associations (Australian Museum Online; ICOM), volunteer associations (Australian Volunteering; AAGGO), the ABS, national and state tourist offices, and their own specific information gathering systems (ticket sales, visitor counts etc). These sources provide objective information about field activities to all museums, which can be analysed and used to guide strategic plans and organizational action.
Specifically, the analysis of visitor needs has influenced museums identify more innovative ways to present and deliver their displays. This has had an impact on 'old guard' volunteers who are critical of 'production for the masses' and who find it difficult dealing with increasing numbers of children.

Technical and institutional characteristics
Museums have become more accessible to a broader range of societal classes, while the sovereignty of the consumer and trends in popular taste, together, are transforming the role of the museum (Chong 2000). These pressures are forcing management to re-think the presentation and interpretation of displays and package the institutions corporate identity. Museums are affected in two ways: Firstly, they must view 'visitors as knowledgeable consumers of attraction experiences with opinions and expectations' (Graham and Lennon 2002, p. 218) and creatively interpret their exhibitions to meet changing visitor demands. Secondly, they will have to re-evaluate their dominant field-belief systems and related practices in order to deal with new efficiency and effectiveness challenges that arise from the first outcome.

Technology and the internet are providing museums with a rich opportunity for dealing with some of these issues. Larger museums are expanding and developing their electronic capabilities in order to provide greater opportunities for people to access their products and services. Multimedia are also being used to innovate displays in order to: enhance presentations that will provide more variety in interpretation; provide deeper layers of information; and to increase opportunities for visitor interaction and participation in the museum experience. Simultaneously, to meet these new challenges, museums are pressured into reviewing their training, management and the organization of volunteers in front of house and guiding activities. Programs that are managed by the organization, are provided with constructive support. Autonomous volunteer groups are often left to cope with these challenges as best they can.

Microprocesses
Microprocesses refer to the ability of key actors to identify those firms that are relevant to their strategic choices. As a result, they will continually scan the environment,
evaluating what business they are in, identifying their competitors and those organizations from whom they can learn. Key actors of larger museums and art museums in Australia have, over the past 10 years, become increasingly aware of their role in tourism. This is most evidenced by their active participation in competing for coveted tourism awards, against other attractions such as theme parks and entertainment facilities. Even though they compete with organizations outside their field, museum managers consider their product and services to be clearly differentiated from those other attractions. The major differentiating feature is their use of large numbers of volunteers. Differentiation is important as it influences managers’ perceptions of their field while enforcing beliefs about the appropriateness of particular organizational practices and forms across the field (Scott 2001). Volunteer coordinators from museums and art museums in Canberra come together quarterly as an informal group to share information, discuss issues and compare strategies related to the management of volunteers. Thus managers, in categorizing other firms with whom they have organizational and operational commonalities, are performing boundary-setting processes. The outcome is a divergence in the perceptions and beliefs of managers that leads to acceptable rules of organizational behaviour, both in procedures related to the organization's tasks, and in terms of the organizational structures they have adopted from those inside their competitive set (McDonald and Mutch 2000).

Belief systems and related practices
Belief systems and related practices of organizations provide guidelines to field participants as to how they are to carry out work (Scott, 2001). The actions of key actors within the field are created, enacted, replicated or revised, and turned into routines that lead to creating and transferring new ways of organising. While trade associations provide an arena in which the strength and unity of field participants can be enhanced. Museum guides are networked through AAGGO, which provides an opportunity for guides to hone their skills, increase their knowledge and become technically efficient. AAGGO is open only to volunteers, and membership and participation is taken very seriously. It has become an arena in which membership and formal interaction enables volunteers to play a notable role in centralizing beliefs within the field. DiMaggio and Powell (1991), in a study of American art museums,
demonstrates how the fragmentation of organizations enabled a professionalizing occupation, (museum workers), to dominate reform and influence the emergence of field-wide structures. For the first time, at the 2003 AAGGO conference, accreditation of guides was raised as an important consideration, the implementation of which would lead to the professionalizing of the occupation of volunteer guides. Some fields can be characterised by a single set of beliefs while others are characterised by multiple belief systems (Scott 2001). Furthermore, the articulation of shared values and beliefs leads to the formalising of principles and charters. For example, Australian museums and art museums are characterized by a coherent set of beliefs that are enforced by strong national and international associations, including:

- Conserving and promoting cultural identity,
- Professional cooperation, collaboration and exchange
- Access to multiple stakeholders
- Dissemination of knowledge and raising public awareness of museums
- Training of personnel
- Advancement of professional standards
- Elaboration and promotion of professional ethics
- Promoting the role of museums in society
- Fostering excellence in museum practice in Australian museums
- Advocate for, and support, indigenous peoples to claim, control and enhance their cultural heritage

(International Council of Museums ICOM 2003; Museums Australia 2003)

In turn they become reinforced by museum staff at museum association meetings, in museum journals and by members positioned within the field.
Existence and level of interorganizational interaction and patterns of coalition
Organizations within organizational fields operate within 'rules of the game' or widely held and articulated characteristics. The structure by which museums and art museums operate requires them similarly to deal with Commonwealth, State and Local Government agencies, as well as embassies, universities, galleries, other museums, art schools, and other professional associations within Australia and internationally. Key occupational groups within museums and art museums interact and share their beliefs, opinions and conceptions through the many opportunities available to them, such as Australian Museums On-Line, email discussion groups, AAGGO, Australian Museum Forum, Australia Council for the Arts, Australia's Cultural Network and Council of Australian Museum Associations. These organizations and associations allow members to interact, collectively representing themselves and it is from these interactions that understandings of reasonable conduct and the behavioural dues of membership emerge' (Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings 2002, p. 61). Large museums and art museums dominate the field and are influential through their links with regional museums and galleries across Australia. They provide collaborative and ongoing dialogue, strategic alliance, and relationships with other cultural institutions (National Museum Australia 2002). It is this repeated interaction and coalition that strengthens the rules of the game, enforces organizing routines, and standardises organizational practices within the field. It is exemplified by the following comment:

"My director gave me this the other day. It is a system for recruiting volunteers. They said it was a good way of doing it. They got it from a meeting they attended. So we will adapt this for our own program" (B2).

Linkages that bind both similar and dissimilar organizations
Although the AGNSW, AWM and AM are part of the field of museums and art museums, they are linked to other fields through the broader sector of 'visitor attractions'. For example, vertical linkage occurred when the Powerhouse Museum, a contemporary museum in New South Wales adopted (and subsequently adapted) a volunteer program that was developed by the New South Wales National Parks and Wildlife Service. Additionally, attractions outside the field, such as theme parks and leisure precincts place pressure on museums to compete with them for visitors. As a
result, museums and art museums must diversify their product and become more market-orientated. This has led to a growth in the development of prominent museum shops and cafés, product partnering with hotels, and staging spectacular displays or hosting events that are both related and unrelated to core activities.

Fields can encompass an entire regional, national, or global economic system, depending on their vertical and horizontal linkages. The field of museums and art museums crosses state borders, and are horizontally linked through associations, conferences, and discussion lists such as, International Council of Museums, Australian Museums Online, Australian Association of Gallery Guides and Museums Australia. It is these connections that provide opportunities for institutions to stay abreast of a range of museum issues, including volunteer management practices, and ultimately to discuss and adopt new ways of organising.

Discussion

All coordinators interacted within their organizational field. They do so with similar organizations from whom they believe they can learn. Adoption of organising routines and policies is accepted as a way in which coordinators can improve their volunteering practices and has lead to ways of organising becoming replicated or revised, and turned into accepted routines.

‘I did find it quite revitalizing, it certainly made me (sic) reinforce some of the things I was doing was in the right direction, and it made me think about some other things that need to be done.’ (A2).

Field interaction occurred through associations, conferences, informal meetings with similar people and email. Coordinator A1 has had extensive interaction with Volunteering Australia. A1 has undertaken courses and attended forums and breakfast meetings. Through this interaction they have predominantly met people from the welfare sector and have found that volunteers in the cultural sector are very different to the welfare sector.
‘Their motivations are absolutely totally different...most of the volunteers who start here want to give something back, but they certainly want to get something, they want to learn, they want to be stimulated they want to be able to be in a place where their values can be met.’ (A1)

For coordinator A1 the benefit they gained from their interaction with volunteering Australia was the development of improved volunteer management practices. In particular, as part of a major project for a course they undertook, they wrote an induction manual that also doubles as a volunteer review guide. A1 has visited other museums and art museums with the aim of comparing volunteer programs and to identify policies and procedures that can improve their own programs. Prior to A1 taking leave, it had been their intention to push for improved facilities and benefits for their volunteers similar to what they had found in other museum programs.

Coordinator B1 started the Volunteers Managers network. The group meets informally three times a year to discuss different issues, experiences, and problems relating to volunteers. Participants are volunteer coordinators and managers from major public attractions in Canberra (predominantly museums and art museums). Since the networks inception, they have shared methods, manuals and policies that they have found to be effective for organising their volunteers. In particular, B1 seeks advice from field participants when developing handbooks and volunteer-management documents. B1 believes that other non-cultural institutions in other industry sectors have ideas that may be worthwhile, but focuses on obtaining information from those organizations they perceive to be most similar to their own.

‘I think you can pick up on a lot of things from listening to different things outside your area. though we concentrate fairly well on cultural institutions.’ (B1)

C1 is a committee member of the Australian Association of Gallery Guides Organization. They attend AAGGO conferences in order to network and continue to professionalize their volunteer activities. Four volunteer coordinators are members of the Cultural Volunteers email discussion group. The email group is useful for staying abreast of volunteer issues and being informed of workshops, courses and social occasions. All coordinators and managers participate in different forms of
interorganizational interaction specifically to increase their knowledge and skills as volunteer managers. ‘I’ll go to workshops that I think I’m going to get something out of, that I can give back to this place’ (B2).

Some coordinators lamented that they don’t have enough time to implement practices they had identified from similar organizations, as demonstrated in the following comment:

‘I took lots of notes, but things have been so busy I haven’t had time to refer back to them to work out how I’m going to fit them in. It’s just because the nature of the moment, people are on ... leave and whatever. Because there are certainly a lot of things that we could be doing that aren’t done yet.’ A2

For B2 their current volunteer application form was modelled on an application form obtained from Museum Victoria:

‘I don’t know who they spoke to, obviously someone in the museum. At a conference I suppose, to produce this document, which we re-worded in part to suit...our needs. So really that’s all we use, it’s probably common practice throughout the museum environment.’ B2

This comment suggests that the use of methods obtained from other institutions in the field is taken for granted and accepted as normal practice. However, volunteer coordinators are discerning in their adoption of practices. A2, attended ‘The Essential Volunteer’, a volunteer recruitment workshop held by Volunteering Australia, and found that recruitment suggestions were not consistent with museum volunteer needs:

‘A lot of it was about recruiting volunteers, and how to recruit volunteers for their skills. Saying ‘young and enthusiastic people’. That’s really not what you want. You want people who can put the energy into something; it doesn’t matter if they are 83, as long as they have the energy and enthusiasm to do the job.’ A2

The findings demonstrate that a high level of interaction occurs between the organization and the organizational field. They show how volunteer managers and coordinators use this interaction to influence, shape, and legitimize their programs. However, the interrelationships, between individuals and groups within an organization
also have a major influence on an organization's activities, structures and processes. Therefore, I now present the findings from the study on four key elements of the internal environment that influence volunteer programs: organization structure, volunteer motivation, value commitments and interest dissatisfaction.

5.4 Internal Environment of Museums and Art Museums

In order to understand how the activities of the organizations are shaped, I first consider their structure. Study findings for the three institutions are presented in the following section. The data were collected through document analysis and semi-structured interviews with volunteer coordinators.

5.4.1 Organization structure

The Governance structures of each organization are similar. Each organization is responsible to its relevant minister and financially accountable under the Commonwealth Authorities and Companies Act. They exist in a framework of corporate governance and are administered through a Council or Board of Trustees. Operationally, it is managed by a director, and in one case an assistant director. Each organization adopts a functional structure, where employees who perform similar functions or work are brought together and rules and regulations are communicated from the top the bottom. This does not mean that the Director has absolute power; on the contrary, the curators in each organization have a major role to play in setting the activities of the organization.

Horizontal linkages occur through interdepartmental meetings with direct, formal, reporting relationships. A top down approach to management is employed, where decisions are made further up the line to ensure control of members at the bottom of the organization. Although there is some limited access to senior members by a very few individual volunteers, it could be said that volunteers are at the very bottom of the organization. The volunteer programs are expected to be self-supporting with the
expectation they will not cause a strain on the organization’s resources. This functional structure is even in place where the volunteers are self-managed. According to the managers, decision-making is inclusive. However, respondent comments raise doubts as to whether this is really the case, for example:

‘We used to (work) ‘with’ now it is (work) ‘for’.’

‘The rules change according to the committee member’s views, and these can vary considerably and every two years!’

‘I am a volunteer in the Art Gallery and do as I am told. I make suggestions but generally, we do not use our own initiative.’

In two programs, the AWM and AGNSW first discuss changes, issues and ideas at committee level before presenting them to the volunteers for consideration; in effect they are controlling the direction of the outcome. None of the volunteer managers is at a level where they can go to a departmental, or manager meeting. They must rely on representation through their immediate supervisors; therefore, volunteer managers can only indirectly influence decisions that impact on their volunteer programs. One paid manager used organizational change to try to improve the alignment between the volunteer program and the organization:

‘When there was a museum restructure it helped me, to give me impetus to hopefully make an opportunity for the volunteer program to fit into the structure a bit more because it was floating.’ A1

Volunteer manager A1 also felt that volunteers were not valued the same as paid staff. Volunteers at each institution participate in highly structured environments and have specific, defined job functions. Overall, they are viewed, as a separate entity to the organization, expected to be self-supporting whilst at the same time representative of the organization’s values and image. From the volunteer’s perspective there was nothing in the data to suggest that the organization-managed model is better than the self-managed model. From the organization’s perspective, paid managers and coordinators were less satisfied in the operation of their programs than those in the self-managed program were.
Who are these volunteers? The next section presents evidence that volunteers come from distinct groupings within communities.

5.4.2 Respondent demographics

Aggregated demographic data of respondents is presented in Table 3. Of the 90.1% of respondents who chose to answer the demographic questions, 65.1% were female and 34.9% were male. Consistent with other studies (ABS 2001 and Wilson 2000, 2004), the majority of respondents were either living with someone or were married and had 2-3 children. A large proportion of respondents is in the later life-cycle stages with 82% in the 55-74 age groups. The majority of respondents (60.50%) are retired and well educated, with 69.5% of respondents having gained either a college certificate or university degree. The results show that respondents’ contribute their services for long periods of time. At the time of data collection, a quarter of respondents had been with the institutions for up to 5 years, while 53.9% continue volunteering for much longer periods.

Table 3: Aggregated demographic data of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender (N= 312)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age (N= 311)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>Under 24</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service-Yrs (N= 322)</td>
<td></td>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>65-74</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>75+</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-14</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>No of children (N= 312)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-17</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>No children</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-23</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-26</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-29</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>4 or more children</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-32</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Primary employment/occupation (N= 311)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (N= 311)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 10</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 12 or High School Certificate</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>Paid employment</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Volunteer activity

Table 4 presents the main types of roles undertaken by volunteers and a breakdown by gender. Guiding is the main activity carried out by volunteers (48.9%), followed by front of house (27.5%), and research (23.6%). Numbers don’t add up to 100 because respondents were allowed to tick more than one activity.

The figures show that there is a gender difference in the types of roles that volunteers undertake. Proportionally, more females undertake roles in guiding, front of house, and administration while proportionally more males undertake roles in research. Discovery Room and Treloar Centre are place specific. Here, there is also a gender difference with more females working with children in the Discovery Room and males working with large equipment at the Treloar Centre.

The types of activities carried out in these roles include: taking visitors on guided tours; working on various day and evening functions serving drinks and food, manning activity stations, working in the library, training guides, conservation field work, making costumes and designing activities for children, opening mail, filling envelopes, working in the coffee shop, selling tickets to special exhibitions, counting votes, and organizing rosters.
There is some diversity between men and women and the types of qualifications they have. Table 5 shows gender differences in qualifications. Among those with higher degree qualifications, the main gender difference occurs in postgraduate studies, with 20.2% of men as compared to 13.9% of women holding a postgraduate degree. Trade certificates are more common among men 6.4%, as compared to women 1%. By contrast, nearly twice as many women 31.7%, than men have a college certificate/diploma. Only one respondent was an indigenous Australian.

**Table 5: Crosstabulation gender and education (N = 311)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate degree</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University graduate</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College - certificate/diploma</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAFE</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 12 or high school certificate</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 10</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Time Spent Volunteering**

In order to understand how much time volunteers committed to the organization respondents were asked to indicate both the average weekly amount of time they spent...
carrying out their task/s and, the average weekly amount of time they spent preparing for those tasks. The findings are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Average hours spent carrying out and preparing for tasks (N = 333)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average hours spent carrying out tasks</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Average hours spent preparing for tasks</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 5</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>69.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 10</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>4 to 6</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>7 to 9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>10 to 12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 to 25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>13 or more</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of respondents (67%) spent between one and five hours per week carrying out their tasks. Volunteers spend extra time in preparing for their tasks, 69% undertook an extra one to three hours per week, while 11% spent between six and ten hours per week preparing for their tasks. Extra time was spent on research, reading, studying, photocopying, attending lectures, seminars and meetings, and studying the works and material for new exhibitions and tours. It indicates that the majority of volunteers are spending considerable time in carrying out and preparing for their activities that is well in excess of the initial commitment expected by each institution. Both volunteer rate and the number of hours volunteered was greatest among people aged 35-75.

In summary, the majority of respondents are in a relationship, educated, have dependents and are female. Predominantly, education and activity are gender related. People commit significant time to their volunteering activities. Demographic data tell us who is volunteering; the next section, tells us why they are volunteering. It presents empirical evidence to suggest that volunteers are motivated by serious leisure interests.

5.4.3 Descriptive statistics and reliability testing

Table 7 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and scale alphas for variables: motivation, values, met expectations, satisfaction with aspects of their work, satisfaction
with how volunteers are organized and satisfaction with their experience. It illustrates that internal reliabilities for all variables were high with coefficient alphas ranging from .74 to .87. Standard deviation for satisfaction with aspects of their work and satisfaction with the organization of volunteers suggests that there may have been some highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied people.

Table 7: Mean scores, Standard Deviations (SD) and Reliabilities (α)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean$^b$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectations</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Aspect of Work</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Organization</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>N/A$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Volunteer Experience</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>N/A$^a$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Lower scores indicate higher levels for each variable; $^b$Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable.

5.4.4 Motivating factors for museum and art museum volunteers

Motivation plays an important role in shaping volunteer intentions. To understand why volunteers contribute their time to museums and art museums, respondents were asked to rate on a seven point Likert scale, ranging from 1 strongly agree to 7 strongly disagree, their reasons for becoming a volunteer. Table 8 displays mean scores for volunteer motivation in ranked order from highest to lowest. The item ranked highest as respondents’ reason for volunteering was ‘I have an interest in art, science, natural history’ and the item ranked second highest was ‘I have an interest in the activities of the organization’. Giving back to the community, doing something worthwhile, and making the organization a success ranked third, fourth, and sixth consecutively. Total mean score for motivation was 3.47. Respondents are in agreement on only 15 of the 28 items. These items tend to reflect an internal drive of people, indicating that volunteer motivation is predominantly more self-driven rather than taken up in response to some external stimuli.
It is notable that seven out of the top ten motivations for volunteering are focused on the self-interests of the respondent. Even the item ‘making the organization a success’ has a self-interested quality to it.

Table 8: Reasons for volunteering (N = 343)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for volunteering highest to lowest - grouped</th>
<th>% Agree</th>
<th>% Disagree</th>
<th>% Not applicable</th>
<th>Mean(^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Interest in art, science, natural history</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Interested in the activities of the organization</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Wanted to do something worthwhile</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 To interact with others</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>10.14</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 To put something back into the community</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>9.86</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Help make the organization a success</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Vary my regular activities</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>11.59</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Broaden my horizons</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 To feel part of the community</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>18.26</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Gain New skills</td>
<td>73.6</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>19.71</td>
<td>2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 To make new friends</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>20.87</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 More free time than used to</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>11.88</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Continue using skills</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Skills were needed</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>27.54</td>
<td>3.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Make me feel better about myself</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>20.87</td>
<td>26.67</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 To meet artists, ex-serviceperson, scientists</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>33.04</td>
<td>28.99</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Working for this organization is considered</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>26.96</td>
<td>35.07</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prestigious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Have past experience</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>34.49</td>
<td>29.86</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Chance of a life time</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>30.72</td>
<td>33.62</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Family member is an ex-serviceperson, artist,</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>38.84</td>
<td>27.54</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 A relative or friend is a volunteer</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>41.74</td>
<td>26.09</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 I am an ex-serviceperson, artist, natural</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>43.48</td>
<td>25.51</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Gain work skills</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>37.39</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Most people in my community volunteer</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>37.10</td>
<td>42.32</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Asked by a friend who is a volunteer</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>56.23</td>
<td>25.22</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 No one else to carry out the work</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>60.58</td>
<td>28.41</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 Nothing else to do with my time</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>23.48</td>
<td>5.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 Asked by a family member who is a volunteer</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>63.77</td>
<td>30.72</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Lower scores indicate higher levels for each variable; \(^b\) Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable.
Respondents were asked why they agreed or strongly agreed to ‘I wanted to help make the organization a success’. There were a total of 181 responses which were grouped into 12 common themes. These themes are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Why respondents wanted to help make the institution a success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education - Passing on heritage and history</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal attachment</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique role of the institution in tradition, preserving history,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science, culture</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Viability</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iconic institution</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution to community and broader society</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help it to continue it's reputation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future enjoyment</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>181</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents wanted to make the organization a success because they felt the institutions had an important educational role in passing on heritage, history and art. These values are also aligned with the mission and outcome statements reported in 5.2.1, 5.2.2 and 5.2.3. Respondents talked about wanting to help Australians remember their military history, become more educated with respect to the environment, and to appreciate art as a reflection of society and culture. Respondents are expressing their own personal values and working in the institutions seems to help them to translate those values into tangible outcomes, for example:

‘Helping Australians to remember Australian sacrifice in war is a worthwhile goal. In Canberra this can best be done by volunteering at the AWM’

‘I believe that Australians need to reconcile their activities to be more in tune with the natural environment and as a leading educational and scientific institution the AM can play a leadership role. My part may be small but attitudes can be changed through direct contact with the public.’

‘I feel that introducing art to school age children in an interesting and enjoyable way is very important.’
These comments also indicate that it is respondents’ interests or passion for these institutions that are driving them to contribute their time and energy for the institution’s continued success. Another 34 respondents spoke about a personal attachment to the institutions; comments included:

‘I have grown up with the AWM and have a strong feeling of 'kinship' with it. My dad used to take me through it regularly as a boy.’

‘I have always enjoyed visiting the Museum and so have my children. I want to see the Museum continue to be a great place to visit and I am a biologist and hoped I would be able to interest visitors at the Museum and help make them feel they had a good day at the Museum. I hoped I’d have something worthwhile to contribute to the Museum.’

‘I have always enjoyed visiting the AGNSW it is such a pleasant place to be - I really know very little about art. I wanted others to have the opportunity to visit the Gallery free of charge.’

Respondents were also concerned that without their contribution the institution would have difficulty in achieving cost efficiencies, remaining viable, or not be able to present the best possible products and services. This sentiment was expressed in the following ways:

‘Without volunteers the War Memorial wouldn't operate.’

‘I have the perception that museums get very little budget consideration, and if seen to be having difficulty in maintaining standards, are likely to be rationalised, privatised, downsized, right sized etc.’

‘Cultural organizations are important in society but the government continues to reduce funding so volunteers are needed to keep them viable.’

‘Volunteer work saves millions to the Art Gallery, which results in free entry to visitors and purchase of new works.’

For some respondents the institution for which they volunteered held iconic status and it was important to them that it remained so.

‘It's very important that such an ICON in the community can fully undertake its role given the commitment of significant financial and other resources
since its establishment. Volunteers can make a valuable contribution in this regard.’

‘It is a national treasure, which needs support.’ (Australian Museum)

‘The Art Gallery of NSW is a state/national ICON and I would hope the contributing, however small, I can make will provide means to allow the Gallery to move forward.’

Respondents had the opportunity to state any other motivations they may have had for volunteering. There were a total of 66 responses which were grouped into 12 themes. The twelve themes are listed in Table 10.

Table 10: Other motivations for volunteering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Nº</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Leisure interests</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Career function</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Continue being useful and using skills</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Value the institution</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Was asked</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Employment opportunities</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Institutional goals</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Something different to normal job</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>People shortage</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Give back to community</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Except for responding to an advertisement and being asked, these motives are all internally driven. Of the motives, there was only one response ‘give back to the community’, which was altruistic. Self-interest, social interaction and a connection to their career were the most common themes, for example:

‘After retiring from Department of Veteran Affairs, I was interested in the Art collection at AWM and wanted an interest that would give me a reading program. The AWM seemed appropriate.’
'My reason - to have an interest outside my other life.'

'I enjoy working with others who have similar interests. I am a retired professional Mechanical Engineer.'

'I needed a complete change of environment and to meet new and intelligent people who did not know my history.'

'I had done some science subjects when I did my Human Biology degree course as a mature age student, but would never be employed in that field due to lack of experience in a lab. I now work in the evolutionary biology unit doing DNA frequencing. I don't meet other volunteers and am not looking to make new friends.'

'Because I had a degree in fine arts, have been a teacher, I thought being a guide would be an opportunity to learn more, use what I already know and contribute to the community.'

**Underlying dimensions of motivation**

To identify the underlying dimensions of motivation, Factor Analysis using SPSS 12.0 was applied to the 28 item motivation question. Principal axis factoring with an oblique rotation produced the clearest results. Direct Oblimin is considered to be an efficient method for reaching simple structure where the items are highly correlated (Kline, 1994). Item correlation was measured using Reliability analysis (see Appendix 4) and items were found to be significantly correlated. Cronbach’s Alpha .823 suggests that motivation is internally reliable (Bryman and Cramer 2001). Split-half measure was also used to test item correlation and it found items were reliable with the Guttman Split-Half coefficient at .7.

One variable was eliminated from the analysis ‘I wanted to meet ex-servicemen/artists/scientists’ as it was found to have a low chi-square significance to the other items. Missing cases were dealt with using the pairwise method. This approach produced eight factors that accounted for 64.15% of the variance. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is .79, indicating a good commonality between the items. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant at 3160.833, p<.01, which indicates that the factor model is appropriate. Loadings of variables on factors, communalities...
and percents of variance are shown in Table 11. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. The cut-off point was <0.30 and loadings under .30 are replaced by zeros. Interpretive labels are suggested for each factor in a footnote.

Factor one explained 20.94% of the variance factor two 11%, factor three 7.6%, factor four 6.1%, factor five 5.14%, factor six 4.9%, factor seven 4.5% and factor eight 3.9%. The understanding of these factors was structured on the basis of: the content of the items that loaded on each factor (Kline 1994); and the relationship that the items have with each other. Factors 3, 4, 5 and 7 had negative coefficients. The sign of the loadings was reversed so that a higher score indicated a higher level of ability across tasks. Similarly, the sign of the factor scores and scales based on Factor 3, 4, 5 and 7 were also changed. This procedure simplifies the presentation and discussion of results while remaining consistent with the substantive findings (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey 1999).
Table 11: Pattern matrix for volunteer motivation

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. (Rotation converged in 21 iterations)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$F_2$</th>
<th>$F_3$</th>
<th>$F_4$</th>
<th>$F_5$</th>
<th>$F_6$</th>
<th>$F_7$</th>
<th>$F_8$</th>
<th>$h^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>.32</td>
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<td>.66</td>
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<td>.33</td>
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<td>.34</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalue: 5.7 3.0 2.0 1.7 1.4 1.3 1.2 1.1

% Var: 20.94 11.01 7.59 6.14 5.14 4.89 4.55 3.90
Table 12 below is generated to further assist interpretation. The variables are listed in order of size under their relevant factor.

Factor one is labelled ‘personal needs’ and includes seven motives that could be considered internal reasons that reflect the needs of the volunteer. They want to broaden their horizons, vary their regular activities, and do something that for them was a chance of a lifetime in an organization they considered to be prestigious. Volunteering makes them feel better about themselves, as they are doing something worthwhile and it enables them to gain new skills.

Factor two is labelled ‘relationship network’, these motives relate to factors outside of themselves but familiar to them such as being asked by a friend or family member who is/was a volunteer at the institution or they have a friend or family member who is currently involved in the museum.

The third factor was labelled ‘self expression’. Volunteers have skills that they would like to continue to use and they believe are needed by the organization. Their past experiences at providing similar services may support their understanding that their skills are needed. The Protestant Work Ethic may also be a contributing aspect to this factor as a number of volunteers commented that they wanted to do something after retirement and to continue being useful.

The fourth factor is labelled ‘available time’. For any number of reasons (i.e. retirement, loss of a partner, children grown up) respondents find that they have available time in which to do something. Coupled with their interests in the activities of
the institution (art, science, natural history), and a complementary relationship they have to the institution through their education, training or work, they are motivated to volunteer in their available time.

The fifth factor was labelled ‘social’. The social factor relates to respondents’ need for social interaction. They want to make new friends, feel part of the community, and to interact with others.

The sixth factor is labelled ‘purposive’ and refers to the respondents’ need to do something useful and to contribute to society. Respondents want to make the organization a success and to give something back to the community. The third item loaded low in this factor. However, it can be argued that respondents have a sense of obligation that arises from seeing others contributing their time to a chosen cause.

The seventh factor is labelled ‘free time’. During the focus groups, volunteers were very specific that ‘free time’ and ‘having nothing else to do’ were two different concepts. They argued that it wasn’t that they had nothing else to do; they had in fact plenty to do, but volunteering is what they chose to do as well. Respondents are saying that they make time to volunteer. By volunteering they are able to vary their regular activities, and gain work related skills.

The eighth factor was labelled ‘personal attachment’. Here the respondents have an affiliation to the institution through a personal interest in the area or they or a family member were an ex-serviceperson, artist or natural scientist. These people identify with the subculture of the institution and their involvement facilitates this socialisation into the history, science or art subculture. Although item 26 had a low communality it has added equally to the other items and its contribution can be interpreted meaningfully to the factor.
Table 12: Order by size of loading in which variables contribute to factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
<th>Factor 6</th>
<th>Factor 7</th>
<th>Factor 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Needs</td>
<td>Relationship Network</td>
<td>Self expression</td>
<td>Available time</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>Time and need for a change</td>
<td>Personal attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted to broaden my horizons</td>
<td>Asked by a friend who was/is a volunteer at the institution</td>
<td>Wanted to continue using my skills</td>
<td>Did not have anything else to do with my time.</td>
<td>Wanted to make new friends</td>
<td>Wanted to help make the organization a success</td>
<td>Wanted to vary my regular activities</td>
<td>A family member is an ex-serviceperson, artist, scientist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted to vary my regular activities</td>
<td>Asked by a family member who was/is a volunteer at the institution</td>
<td>My skills were needed</td>
<td>If I did not volunteer, there would be no one to carry out this volunteer work.</td>
<td>Wanted to feel part of the community</td>
<td>Wanted to feel part of the community</td>
<td>Had more free time than I used to have.</td>
<td>Have an interest in art, science, natural history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was a chance of a lifetime</td>
<td>Have past experience providing similar services</td>
<td>Have an interest in the activities of the organization</td>
<td>Have an interest in the activities of the organization</td>
<td>Wanted to interact with others</td>
<td>Wanted to interact with others</td>
<td>Wanted to gain work related skills</td>
<td>Am an ex-serviceperson, artist, natural scientist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a volunteer at this organization is considered prestigious</td>
<td>A relative or friend is involved in the institution</td>
<td>Am an ex-serviceperson, artist, natural scientist</td>
<td>A relative or friend is involved in the institution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering would make me feel better about myself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted to do something worthwhile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanted to gain new skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cross loadings

It is ideal for each original item to load only on one factor, however in most cases this does not happen (Lukas, Hair, Bush, Ortinau 2004) suggesting that the items are more complex. Only two items in the solution, ‘wanted to vary my regular activities’ and ‘I am an ex-serviceperson, scientist or artist’ were complex. Item 2 loaded across Factor 1 and 7 and item 27 loaded across Factor 4 and 8. When each of these items was removed and the analysis rerun, the pattern structure did not improve.

Relationships between factor scores

As oblique rotation was used, correlation between factors was attained to further support interpretation. Correlations are displayed in Table 13. In general, correlations are weak to moderate. Most noteworthy correlation is Factor 5 correlated moderately with Factor 1 $r = .52$, $p < .01$, indicating that higher social needs are positively related to personal needs.

Table 13: Intercorrelations between factor scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N=342</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Personal Needs</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Relationship Network</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Self Expression</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Available Time</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Social</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Purposive</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.11*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.33**</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Time and Need for a Change</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Personal Attachment</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In summary, the most common motivations for volunteering arise out of individual’s interests in the foci and activities of the organization. Volunteer motivation was found to be multi-dimensional. Factor analysis identified eight underlying dimensions which explain motivation for these individuals. What the findings suggest is that these respondents are self-directed by primary interests, obligations, and personal needs. Their self-interests push them to seek out organizations that they perceive can satisfy
those needs. For these people, volunteering is a leisure choice. They have more free time than they used to have and have chosen to volunteer for an institution that reflects their interests and which they perceive to be able to satisfy their needs.

However, it is unlikely that volunteers would choose an organization that did not reflect similar values to their own or bring with them an initial commitment. The next section investigates volunteer values and commitment to the organization.

5.4.5 Value commitments of museum and art museum volunteers

As described in Chapter 3, commitment is a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organization's goals and values, and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian 1974, p. 604). Respondents were asked a series of questions about what they valued in relation to their work environment. The results shown in Table 14 suggest that although the majority of items were important, what they valued most was how well they fulfilled their tasks. They take pride in their work; they are proud to work for the organization. It is important to them that they get the job done and they consider the work that they do for the organization to be important. These values were more important to volunteers than the goals of the organization. This suggests that volunteers place a very high value on the work they do, and for reasons that have been previously mentioned. Being involved in decision making and having a job description were least valued, scoring a mean of 3.47 and 4.06 respectively. These volunteers are also self-selecting into organizations, in which they share core values. A majority of respondents (80.6%) felt they had similar values to the institutions for which they volunteered.
Table 14: Values in relation to work environment (N = 342)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% Agree</th>
<th>% Disagree</th>
<th>Mean&lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Take pride in the work they do</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Proud to work in the organization</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Getting the job done is important</td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Work they do is important</td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Important to use initiative</td>
<td>91.3</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Goals of the organization are important</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Important to do the job as instructed</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>2.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Working independently is important to me</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>13.91</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Important to have regular training</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>12.75</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Similar values</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Work plan is important</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Important to receive recognition</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>21.45</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Involvement in decision making is important</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>34.20</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Job description is important</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>45.80</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Lower scores indicate higher levels for each variable; <sup>b</sup>Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable.

Even though recognition was not valued as highly as other factors, it is an issue of some concern to volunteers. This was evident in the qualitative responses to this question (see Table 15) where twenty out of the 45 themes were centred on recognition. Some volunteers were appreciative of the recognition they received:

‘Although I would continue to do the same work without acknowledgment (at weekends and supervisors are never there when I work) it is nonetheless REALLY (respondents emphasis) nice that we are publicly thanked so warm-heartedly. It wasn't always done so well and I appreciate the efforts made now.’

‘Many organizations don't even bother to thank volunteers. The Art Gallery treats volunteers with respect and thanks them for their efforts. I appreciate that.’

Others felt it necessary to point out that recognition was important to them, for example:

‘Question 'n’ is the most important question, as a volunteer you want to be recognised and thanked.’
'In any organization (including the AWM) it is paramount to acknowledge the work of volunteers - if not the organization will be considered arrogant and uncaring.'

'Much more appreciation needs to be given by trustees etc of work done by volunteers.'

'I like to take a professional approach to my voluntary role. It is important that the organization supports and appreciates my efforts.'

Respondents made a number of negative comments, for example:

'Fact that (coordinator’s name withheld) was not replaced for a year is a negative factor. Is it important to (institution’s name withheld) to have volunteers? Clearly, not really.'

'There is often a feeling that volunteer guides are important to (institution's name withheld) only because they save money.'

Recognition was discussed at some length in each of the focus groups and being recognised by the organization’s director was important to them, if this didn’t occur they were disappointed and didn’t feel valued.

'Together we get great acknowledgement. Individually we just don’t exist. Together he’ll tell you, ‘you are all very wonderful’; then he’ll tread on you as you walk down the floor.'

'It’s taken 16 years for him to say ‘hello’ to me'

Many obtained their recognition from the visitors:

'I enjoy the recognition I receive from the visitors I take through the Memorial, but recognition from the institution is not there.'

'It’s a reward when people appreciate what you’ve done, that’s the way I see it anyway. Whatever your contribution is, in your capacity as a guide, that you give a really good guided tour, that people appreciate the explanation you’ve given them, everything else, they show that at the end. That is the reward.'

Those who volunteer at other institutions compare their experiences between each of them:

'I’ve worked for an organization that gives very high recognition for its volunteers. They’re very outgoing in their recognition.'
‘Most of the recognition for the guides here comes from the people you show around.’

‘My wife is a volunteer at a visitors centre, and she is always getting free dinner and things. That is a monetary value. We’re not remotely like that.’

Recognition is important to volunteers. What is more, recognition they receive from visitors works in two ways. First, it gives volunteers intrinsic satisfaction that what they are doing is worthwhile, and second, it supplements the recognition they don’t receive from the institution.

In addition to recognition, respondents valued having a job description, encouragement, support, being independent, using their skills and a management style that was responsive to their workplace needs. These were areas in which they wanted positive outcomes. Again they expressed that they personally gained from being involved and in doing something that was for themselves.

Respondents least agreed that being involved in decision-making was important while 45.8% disagreed that a job description was important.

### Table 15: Comments on values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>N°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appreciate/ recognised/ thanked/ valued</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition is important</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of recognition</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job description, instruction is important</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal attachment / self satisfaction</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition is not important</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills not used</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence is valued</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraged</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unresponsive management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>45</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All volunteer managers indicated that they valued their volunteers. This was particularly evidenced in the way they spoke about the volunteers, the inflection in their voices, and, in the case of two attractions, the general criticisms of the way in which they felt management was lacking in its recognition of volunteers.

‘They need to feel appreciated and respected and valuable. I think that’s really important, and I try, I think it is really important to recognise that things like that.’ A3

‘...and what we are doing at the moment is having the guides’ room refurbished, we are getting a couple of new sofas. Public programmes are financing that, or most of it. And that, I think, will really make the guides feel appreciated, because at times they of course, they do feel that they are not adequately appreciated or acknowledged. There is a token we can’t live without you occasionally. I’m not sure what else they can do, mind you.’ B1

‘They’re a great bunch of people the guides, there are a few who’d you prefer had different personalities, and I guess I’ve always been interested, and people have no idea out there how hard these people work. It’s a constant thing, and now in this role you’re seeing too just what people contend with to get there.’ C2

Some of us also go out and speak at Probis clubs. I did 2 down to Palm Beach and Newport, and I did one out to Sutherland. The one out to Sutherland is nearly a 100 Kilometres from where I live, and I said about getting petrol money, and the girl who organised it checked and said “no, we can’t pay you petrol money, you’re a volunteer.” C3

Volunteer managers also compare their program’s resources against other programs, for example:

‘The one that really, really impressed me was the Melbourne Cricket Ground Museum. Their treatment of volunteers was fabulous they have quite a bit more money they put a lot of money in, a lot of effort, they attach quite a lot of prestige, they value them incredibly.’ A1

‘I was talking to one of the coordinators from one of the volunteer organizations round here; she was saying her budget was what we spend on the Christmas function for ours.’ B1
What these findings suggest is that volunteers take enormous pride in their work, have an emotional attachment to the institutions, value their roles highly, and like to be recognised for their contribution.

5.4.6 Interest Dissatisfaction of museum and art museum volunteers

Motivational factors imply that volunteers have expectations that require to be realised to achieve satisfaction (Graham and Edwards 2004). A first step in investigating the link between motivation and satisfaction is identifying respondents met expectations on a range of motivational items. Table 16 compares 10 items with respondents’ initial motivations for the same items.
Table 16: Met expectation (N = 342)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Expectation</th>
<th>% Agree</th>
<th>% Disagree</th>
<th>% Don’t know</th>
<th>Mean&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I wanted to do</td>
<td>Doing something worthwhile</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>something worthwhile</td>
<td></td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I wanted to put</td>
<td>Being able to put something back into the</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>something back into</td>
<td>community</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I wanted to continue</td>
<td>Use my skills</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>using skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I wanted to feel</td>
<td>Feeling part of the community</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>part of the community</td>
<td></td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I wanted help</td>
<td>Making the organization a success</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>make the organization a success</td>
<td></td>
<td>77.7</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I wanted to make</td>
<td>Being able to make new friends</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>new friends</td>
<td></td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Working for this</td>
<td>Working with a prestigious organization</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organization is</td>
<td></td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>considered</td>
<td>considered prestigious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organization is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I wanted to make</td>
<td>Making me feel better about myself</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>me feel better</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>about myself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I wanted to gain</td>
<td>Gain work skills</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>work skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I wanted to meet</td>
<td>Meeting ex-servicemen, artists,</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>artists, ex-</td>
<td>scientists</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>servicemembers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Lower scores indicate higher levels for each variable; <sup>b</sup>Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable.

Respondents’ motivations were met on six out of the ten items measured – wanting to do something worthwhile, wanting to put something back into the community, wanting to continue to use their skills, working for a prestigious organization, wanting to feel better about themselves, and gaining work related skills. In each of these items, met
expectations exceeded initial motivation, while there was significant movement in both ‘disagree’ and ‘don’t know’ categories. For these respondents, regardless of whether these items were an initial motivation, these benefits were realised anyway. The following qualitative responses for this question are indicative of this finding:

‘Being a guide brought out in me skills I didn't know I had. I went on to help train incoming volunteers.’

‘The WM has provided me with far more valuable experiences than I ever imagined.’

‘Re j and k; I was not expecting nor searching that the AGNSW should make me feel better about myself 'nor' about feeling part of the community' - this has just been a side benefit in retrospect.’

‘I enjoy my work at the museum because it draws on an ability I have, and which I had not specifically considered to be a skill.’

Respondents’ expectations were not met with regard to feeling part of the community, making the organization a success, making new friends and meeting ex-servicepersons, scientists or artists. Comments included:

‘There is ... little effort to make research volunteers feel part of the overall volunteer team.’

‘AWM could include research volunteers more in overall volunteer information/activities.’

‘Have little contact apart from Christmas gathering.’

‘I put 3 there, because it has disillusioned me quite a lot. It has always been apparent to me that the volunteers are prepared to put more effort into detail and background and information and dissemination than the hierarchy does.’ (Comment made with respect to working in a prestigious organization.)

It appears that respondents were more indecisive rather than in disagreement with these four items. Other themes arising out of respondents’ comments to this question can be found in Table 17.
## Table 17: Responses to met expectation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>N°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Fulfilled expectations</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   No expectations</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4   Work related problems</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5   Rewarding</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6   Disillusioned dissatisfied</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7   Skills not used</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons why some respondents felt their expectations were met had an underlying self-interested quality, for example:

‘I work at the AWM because I like it. What I make of it is up to me, not the organization.’

‘I am here to achieve something for myself not necessarily the community or the organization.’

‘Because I enjoy my time at the Gallery, sometimes I feel I should be a volunteer for something less frivolous.’

Others said that they had no expectations (9), while the remaining 14 responses referred to why their expectations were not met. Comments varied from being disappointed that their skills were not being used, to poor management and other work related issues, for example:

‘The hesitancy about 'somewhat' answers refers to my feeling about lack of an appropriate system when one is uncertain about things.’

‘The volunteer guide group is ‘cliquy’ only those who are considered "good guys" get any special privileges - special VIP tours.’

‘The Gallery itself is poorly run from a business point of view. The society office is particularly inefficient.’

‘There could be improvement in the way volunteers are used. Often our skills are not utilised and often our time is wasted.’
Overall, respondent expectations have been met, but when written responses are taken into consideration, it is apparent that there are underlying tensions that require discussion.

Three areas of volunteer satisfaction were measured: satisfaction with specific aspects of their volunteering experience, satisfaction with their overall experience and satisfaction with the overall organization of volunteers. Table 18 shows that, overall, respondents were satisfied with their volunteer experience. They were most satisfied with the support (92.8%) and information (91.9%) they received to do their job, and were least satisfied with the recognition they received from the organization (79.4%). At 79%, satisfaction with recognition could be perceived to be satisfactory. However, comparably, it is somewhat lower than other levels of satisfaction. Therefore when taken into consideration with the many negative comments that relate to this issue, it can be concluded that recognition is of concern to respondents.

Table 18: Satisfaction with volunteering experience (N = 334)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How satisfied are you with specific aspects of your volunteering experience...</th>
<th>% Satisfied</th>
<th>% Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Mean (^a)</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support you receive to do your job</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information you receive while doing your job</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior information you receive to do your job</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direction you receive from your supervisor</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information you receive regarding daily activities</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition you receive from the organization</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Lower scores indicate higher levels for each variable; \(^b\)Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable.

A further 49 comments were made in response to this question. Interestingly, the most frequent comments were regarding work related issues. All of these comments were negative, for example:

‘While the support received during the job is good, not much forewarning is given regarding next job (animal) and therefore no research i.e. colours, type of environment, information can be obtained to understand, foster more knowledge and increase my personal learning about the subject.’
'Regarding special exhibitions, new works, rehangs; it's sometimes difficult to obtain information early enough.'

'Poor communication in some areas.'

When respondents were asked how satisfied they were with their ‘overall experience of volunteering’, overwhelmingly 97.3% of volunteers were satisfied. Positive work environment, personal satisfaction and supportive staff were some reasons that underpin this satisfaction. But, respondent satisfaction with the organization of volunteers was not as high; 88.9% were satisfied and 6.4% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and 4.64% were dissatisfied. Additionally, in contrast to the responses made to other questions, the responses to this question (30) were all negative. Dissatisfaction issues included: staff not listening to complaints, lack of organization, lack of funds allocated to volunteer activities, their roles are overly regimented, management is authoritarian, a lack of cohesiveness amongst different volunteer groups and inefficient full time staff.

A total of 80 dissatisfied comments were made in response to all questions. Table 19 lists the questions in which the comments were made, the responses and number of responses. Overall dissatisfaction centred on management issues such as, poor systems, poor organization, lack of work variety or skills not used, supervision and lack of direction.
Table 19: Aggregated Dissatisfaction comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Dissatisfaction Response</th>
<th>Nº</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Insufficient training</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>No team building</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Lack of systems for work related problems</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Not enough work / More varied work</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Skills not used</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Time wasted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>Disillusioned dissatisfied</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment Values</td>
<td>Guides under-utilised / skills not used</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment Values</td>
<td>Unresponsive management</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Lack of direction, instruction, communication, improvement needed</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Do not feel they have a supervisor or are supervised – expressed by weekend volunteers / volunteers in other areas, apart from guiding</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Lack of recognition</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Dissatisfied with supervisor / management/ organization</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Unequal treatment of volunteers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Skills not used</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteering experience</td>
<td>Us and them culture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Like to be busier, greater work variety, greater use of skills</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Need improved organization of volunteers</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Would like increased benefits for volunteers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Lack of recognition</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Would like to give more</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Institution could be more inclusive of volunteers from all areas</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Disappointed with changes in programs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment Dissatisfaction</td>
<td>Poor management – rostering, allocation of activities, poor information, lack of reciprocity, complaints not acknowledged, poor time management.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance</td>
<td>Management don’t try to retain volunteers, boredom, lack of encouragement and acknowledgement, increasing demands are stressful</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked, ‘if they were dissatisfied, how did they express their dissatisfaction?’. Respondents could tick more than one response. The results are presented in Table 20. There was reluctance by both men and women to answer this
question. For those who did, the most common method for expressing dissatisfaction was speaking to their supervisor 33.6%, while absenteeism was used by 4.8%.

Table 20: How respondents express dissatisfaction (N = 122)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you are dissatisfied how do you express this dissatisfaction...</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complain to supervisor</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decline in work performance</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being inflexible</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring directives</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another 11% chose to answer the ‘other’ category and their responses can be found in Table 21. Speaking to their supervisor was reinforced as the way in which respondents expressed their dissatisfaction, while some respondents (13) used the question as an opportunity to raise issues that they were dissatisfied with such as, problems with poor management, inappropriate rostering, no reciprocity and complaints not being acknowledged.

Table 21: Other ways respondents express dissatisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Nº</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speak to supervisor</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stated dissatisfaction issues – poor management – rostering, allocation of activities, poor information, lack of reciprocity, complaints not acknowledged.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resign</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written communication</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whinging with other volunteers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave early</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment Office</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak to member of advisory committee</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, the question drew a surprising, emotive response from 14% of respondents. For example, even though only those who were dissatisfied were required to answer the question, 30 people wrote ‘not applicable’ or drew a line through the question, 12 people wrote ‘I am not dissatisfied’ and 5 people wrote ‘I am satisfied’. These responses were often in bold letters, with added exclamation marks and written with force, as evidenced by the indentation their writing made on the paper. This strong emotive response to the question is interesting given the many complaints and issues raised in other parts of the survey. Even those who complained, or raised issues that they were dissatisfied with, would write ‘I am not dissatisfied’. Dissatisfied comments included:

‘I give more time to another organization where planning and use of volunteers is superior. I used to volunteer every week - now only 2 days each month.’

‘Rosters not always well done. Poor co-ordination between staff and volunteers’ rosters. Seems a lot of front of house overstaffing.’

‘General Whinging with other volunteers.’

‘Volunteering in my view comes from a passion - to help for subject etc. This organization reaps the benefit of this passion without it they lose productivity. Without recognition for our efforts makes me feel used. I’m a passionate volunteer I need to be managed well. This does not always happen.’

Similar ways in which volunteers express their dissatisfaction were stated by volunteer managers. Because volunteers seem to avoid appearing as though they are dissatisfied (hence the ‘whinging’ amongst themselves’), volunteer managers are not aware that a number of volunteers would simply express their dissatisfaction by doing less hours or leaving. Therefore, volunteer managers may incorrectly attribute reduced volunteer commitment to reasons arising from outside the institution.

In summary, the results are somewhat conflicting. The majority of respondents were satisfied, but many made negative written responses to these questions.
5.4.7 Correlations between variables.

A correlation matrix was performed to determine relationships between the variables. All variables were found to be significantly correlated. Table 22 shows that there is a strong relationship between satisfaction with how volunteers are organized $r = .64$, $p < .001$ and satisfaction with aspects of their volunteer experience. Volunteers who are satisfied with aspects of their volunteer experience are more likely to be satisfied with how they are organized. The table demonstrates that if volunteers’ expectations are met they are more likely to be satisfied with their work environment, how they are organized and their whole volunteering experience. All relationships are moderate ranging from $r = .45$, $p < .01$ to $r = .53$, $p < .01$. Finally, there is a positive moderate relationship between motivation $r = .45$, $p < .01$ and values and met expectations $r = .44$, $p < .01$ and values.

Table 22: Correlations between variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Motivation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Met Expectations</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Values</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Satisfaction with Aspects of Work</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Satisfaction with Organization</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.64**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Satisfaction with Volunteer Experience</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=326

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
5.5 Outcome

5.5.1 Intention to Continue

Finally, 97.6% of respondents said that they would continue volunteering for their institutions. The reasons for their commitment are represented in table 23. Given the predominant older age group of respondents, it is understandable that a number of responses focused on an individual’s capacity to continue. This was followed by, the personal satisfaction that they received, and the enjoyment they got out of their participation. The more altruistic notion of making a contribution came in as the fifth reason for continuance and this is not inconsistent with previous comments. The following statement best captures the underlying reason for such a high continuance rate:

‘I love volunteering at the AM - really look forward to my days there. I particularly love wet Sundays because we are busy then. Sometimes I feel a fraud especially when we are thanked generously for our help - I think I get so much from my experiences at the AM. The only regret I have is that work commitments mean that I can not get to the Museum more often. Meeting the interesting and interested visitors to the Museum is such a treat, and a privilege; it makes the long journey there worthwhile.’

Those respondents who said that they would not continue volunteering cited work related problems as the reason.

‘Certainly not because of anything the volunteer office has done to try and retain volunteers. Know of dissatisfied volunteers and others who do the training and drop out after a short stint as feel they are not supported.’

‘The increasing demands made on the Task Force by the proliferation of social, corporate, artistic activities is causing some strain on the members. We must be 'professional' at all times, and are subject to occasional harangues and some culling of those deemed unsuitable. The notion of the 'volunteer' has been prescribed by the obvious success of the Gallery.’
Table 23: Reasons for continuing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Nº</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Availability - time, health, location</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Satisfaction</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the Work</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewarding experience</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental Rewards – resume, new skills,</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue using skills</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6 Conclusion

In summary, volunteers are highly motivated and committed to the institutions in which they participate. Their motivation is based primarily on their self-interests, and their commitment arises out of an emotional attachment they have for the organization (affective), which is often there prior to their joining. A majority of respondents are willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization regardless of the issues and problems they face. They operate not too dissimilarly from self-managed teams, where they are responsible for completing a specific, and well-defined, job function and appear to enjoy their autonomy. However, their high level of affective commitment may prevent them from admitting to being dissatisfied, as to do so would mean that they were somehow being disloyal to the organization. The personal benefits they receive from their participation, and their commitment to the institutions, mean that they will continue to volunteer regardless of their satisfaction with the experience.
Chapter Six

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

Curious as to why volunteers contribute their time to attractions and how they are organized, I went on a journey of exploration. I asked, “How are volunteers organised?” From this there arose five objectives:

- To understand the context in which museums and art museums operate;
- To understand why people volunteer their time to museums and art museums;
- To make sense of the interaction that occurs between the institution and its external environment and how this affects organizing routines of volunteers;
- To identify the relationship between volunteer motivation, interest dissatisfaction and value commitments;
- To understand the implications for better management of volunteers in order to promote organizational objectives.

Next, I investigated these issues from three different disciplines; Leisure and Social Sciences, Tourism, and Organization Studies. From the leisure perspective, museum and art museum volunteers are considered as serious-leisure participants. These are people who seek to continuously participate in an activity in which they are interested; thereby making a career out of their continued participation. From the tourism perspective museums and art museums are seen as attractions; places for people to visit. As attractions, museums and art museums are negotiating a new external environment, one that is more market focused, in which they need to rethink the museum product and the delivery of that product. It was found that volunteers in these attractions play an important role in the delivery of the museums’ products and services. But volunteers are under-researched in this area. From the Organizational studies literature I concluded that first, in order to understand what is happening internally, greater attention should be paid to the organization’s interaction with its external environments. Second, structure
is an important construct for understanding organizational routines and operational activities.

From here, the thesis argues that a holistic approach to understanding volunteers is required; an approach that considers both the internal environment in which volunteers operate and the external environment with which the organization interacts. I developed a framework that would consider these elements in a connected way. This framework extended the work of others who are committed to understanding organizational fields, by identifying the field-defining characteristics of museums and art museums.

Chapter Four laid out the methodology for this study; a multi-method, multiple cross-sectional approach. The lens was applied to volunteer programs in three large museums and art museums. The candidate employed semi-structured interviews, focus groups, a self-complete questionnaire and document analysis to investigate the questions arising from the study. Chapter Four set out the quantitative and qualitative tools used to analyse the data and discussed methodological limitations.

Chapter Five analysed the data and presented the findings according to the Framework for Understanding the Organization of Volunteers, in order to demonstrate the frameworks practical application. Chapter Six specifically addresses the research questions and hypotheses, draws conclusions from the results and discusses implications for volunteer managers and coordinators. It sets out the contributions to be made by this thesis and concludes with recommendations for further research.

6.2 What is the Context in which Museums and Art Museums Operate?

Museums and art museums operate within a well-defined organizational field. The field is heavily constrained by governance structures including regulatory and financial accountability. The forming of a professional association for Gallery Guides, and the development of an accredited award for guides, are having, and will continue to have, significant impacts on the field. It means that members will be inclined to continue to
comply with field behaviours and practices as they professionalize, and increase their institutions’ legitimacy within the field. In this way, these activities can only serve to advance the position of volunteers. In the near future, we may also see a shift in training, away from being coordinated and conducted in the organization, to being taught either in conjunction with, or solely by educational institutions, as has happened in other fields.

Consistent with McDonald and Mutch (2000), Aldrich (2000) and Daft, Sormunen and Parks (1988), it was found that the environment had a shaping influence on the internal processes and managerial decision-making in relation to volunteer programs. However, in the field of museums and art museums this influence was actively sought by volunteer managers and coordinators as they tried to manage their programs in what they believed would be the most efficient and effective way. They were consciously aware that they were shaping their programs to conform to practices and beliefs systems of those in the field from whom they felt they could learn. They see other practices in organizations as having positive outcomes and are willing to mimic those practices in the hope that they, too, will realise positive outcomes. This is similar to findings of Slack and Hinings (1994). Other reasons for why this occurs are discussed in the next section.

This mimetic process is continual. At no time did managers and coordinators state that they had the ‘best’ program. On the contrary, they felt there was always room for improvement. Therefore, they were continually scanning the environment for other organizations, programs and key actors from whom they could learn. It has been argued that the environment, more than any other factor, affects organizational structure, internal processes and managerial decision-making (Daft, Sormunen and Parks 1988) but the findings here demonstrate that the decisions of coordinators and managers, and the way they choose to interact with their environment, play an equally, if not greater, instrumental role than the environment.

At the level of the volunteer program, the field is an open and cooperative one. By this, I mean that key actors willingly communicate and share behaviours and practices with each other. As the study focused on interorganizational interaction between volunteer
managers and coordinators, it can not conclude that similar interaction would occur at more senior levels within the organizations. However, it does confirm earlier findings by DiMaggio and Powell (1991) that interaction among not-for-profit firms is hailed as coordination rather than collusion; that they are less likely to be competitive and depend more on institutional legitimacy.

6.2.1 Social Contribution of Volunteering

According to Butcher, Glen, Henderson and Smith (1993) social values give meaning to actions and interactions with community members. They identified three types of community values: solidarity, participation and coherence. Solidarity refers to the emotional relationships, which exist between community members. Participation refers to shared activities of community members which help realise common goals and aspirations. Coherence refers to the adoption of a set of meanings and values by individual members of the community that provide some overall sense of their world. Linkages between these values and volunteering at museums and art museums can be drawn. Solidarity was identified as an underlying factor for volunteer motivation. Respondents volunteered because they wanted to make new friends, to feel a part of the community and to interact with others. Respondents demonstrate participation through their common goals and aspirations: of wanting to pass on Australian art, science and history; keeping the institutions viable; and preserving important cultural institutions. Respondents demonstrate coherence through a shared belief that these institutions are a reflection of culture and society and, by volunteering, they can pass on the knowledge the institutions hold, and contribute to providing some overall sense of ‘Australia’ – of their world.

‘Participation in culture and leisure activities assists in developing identity and forming community networks and bonds important for social cohesion’ (ABS 2002). It is not clear whether these institutions appreciate the contribution they can and do make to social attachment. As institutions of culture, and places where people can spend their leisure time, museums and art museums are playing an important role in social attachment. They contribute to the ‘bridging’ (Woolcock 2000) between people who are
from different socio-economic strata, from different generations or different ethnicities. They have achieved this through the development of sound volunteer programs that facilitate strong and healthy relationships between the institution and the community, and between community members. A greater contribution can be made by recruiting volunteers from specifically targeted diverse community groups. By appealing to, and involving, different community groups, the social values discussed above can be further enhanced. Through participation in volunteer programs, members from different community groups can build networks that increase communication and make sense of common experiences as they work towards common unifying goals. This can also serve to build tolerance, acceptance and trust between individuals.

However, it was found that there was a very narrow representation of community groups within volunteer programs at these institutions. Nearly all respondents were white, middle-class, Caucasians. The AGNSW is a recent exception with the introduction of their Ambassadors programme. An indigenous volunteer was very proud of the fact that she was, at the time, the first and only aboriginal volunteer at the museum. There is an opportunity, for large museums and art museums, to develop initiatives aimed at achieving greater participation within their volunteer programs by more diverse community groups. Art, science and history can appeal to many people in society regardless of their nationality or social status, by engaging different representations of community in their volunteer programs they would realise important benefits for themselves and the community. Diverse community engagement would contribute to social attachment and community cohesiveness as these different groups come together around a core of common interests, form new relationships with the institutions and with others in the community, whom they would otherwise not normally meet or come into contact. Finally, it would enable a broader representation of the community to engage with visitors.

Volunteers, who act as guides for visitors and have a special interest in the activities of the museum, will contribute to positive social exchange. Respondents reported experiencing high levels of enjoyment when engaging visitors from outside their own communities and took pride in passing on knowledge about science, history, or art. In this way, volunteers can also enhance exhibits through their local knowledge and
understanding. Through appropriate interpretation, they can ensure local culture and customs are not exploited in satisfying visitor needs (Presbury and Edwards 2004) and are more likely to treat them with the sensitivity that comes from a deep understanding of a community and its people. Volunteers were found to be well-educated therefore, by providing training that builds on their interests in the museum, the attractions can become better integrated with the community in which it resides. Finally, such a strategy will provide greater opportunities for meaningful social exchange and cultural understanding between volunteers and the people who visit.

How this interaction affects the organizing routines of volunteers will be answered in the next section.

6.3 How Does the Interaction Between the Institution and its External Environment Affect the Organizing Routines of Volunteers?

Earlier in 2.4.2 it was hypothesised that that organizing templates for volunteer programs were both institutionally and field derived. The findings presented in Chapter five support this hypothesis. Clear linkages have been established, between volunteer programs in the field. Volunteer managers and coordinators feel they can learn from each other, similar organizations and related associations. In 2.4.2 I asked ‘how are organizational templates adopted: through happenstance, active pursuit, subtle incorporation or a combination of drivers?’ This study has found that the self-managed program and the institutionally managed program adopt templates differently. Paid managers and coordinators actively pursued organizational templates from the field, and readily modified organizational practices to their volunteer programs in relation to field practices. This active pursuit occurred through informal networking, formal associations, conferences and informal meetings.

Paid managers and coordinators actively adopted templates from field participants for two reasons. Firstly, they are insecure over their own management practices. Volunteer management for this field is in its infancy, the programs may have been around for a number of years, however, the formal management of these programs has not been a
priority for the organizations; they have predominantly been left to look after themselves. As a result, these programs have evolved through a process of trial and error. Secondly, volunteer coordinators and managers have gained their positions, not because they have the specific skills and training necessary for volunteer management, but because of the position they have been in at the time. Consequently, the skills they bring with them come from experiences gained in previous organizations, or from being a volunteer themselves. However, they don’t feel that these skills adequately meet the requirements of the position. Hence, they are somewhat insecure and each manager believes that ‘things could be done better’ and looks to the external environment for how this could be done.

Coordinators of the self-managed volunteer programs (task force and guides from the one institution) were more confident in how they organized themselves. Their practices have evolved over time and have been modified in response to internal and external changes. The adoption of new organizational templates or the modification to existing ones, is both institutionally and field derived. When methods are institutionally derived it is done so in a formal manner. Suggestions are discussed by the committee and put to volunteers at a formal meeting. Here, a motion is made for the suggestion to be trialled, and a vote is taken. Templates adopted from the field occur more through happenstance than active pursuit. In this case, informal networking, formal associations, and conferences provide opportunity for networking with those in their field. During the course of this interaction, they share their experiences in managing volunteer programs. If this happens to highlight a better method of organizing, the new approach would be taken to the committee, discussed, and then to the volunteers to vote on. However, some members felt the decision had already been made at committee level and was merely a formality when taken to the volunteers for voting.

These findings confirm Hypothesis 2, that organizational templates, for volunteer programs, are both institutionally and field derived. However, as previously discussed, the way in which templates are derived, is dependent on whether the program is managed by volunteers or by paid staff.
6.4 Why Do People Volunteer Their Time to Museums And Art Museums?

This thesis seeks to understand why volunteers contribute their time to museums and art museums, and what underlying dimensions or constructs help explain volunteer motivation for this group. Chapter Five presented eight factors that explain the underlying dimensions of museum volunteers. This section discusses these dimensions in relation to the literature.

Factor one, Personal Needs was the strongest of the eight factors, and represents a combination of variables that relate to an individual’s personal needs. It is labelled ‘personal’ because each of the variables can be viewed as a personal motivation, an internal process that drives behaviour. That is, people want to broaden their horizons or vary their regular activities or do something worthwhile, but the reasons why, would be personal to each person. In effect, the variables explain a myriad of other reasons that would differ between individuals. There is a small similarity between Factor one, Personal Needs, and Snyder and Omoto’s (1992) personal development factor. Personal development centred on issues of personal growth such as challenging oneself, testing skills, and gaining experience with emotionally difficult topics.

Factor two, Relationship Network, is an external motive that has some similarities with what Farrell et al. (1998) and Strigas and Jackson (2003) termed ‘External Traditions’. These authors found that this factor assessed the extent to which volunteers are engaged in volunteering, by motives related to factors outside of their immediate control, including family, having nothing else to do and being appreciated by family and friends. Similarly, Relationship Network relates to external incentives that energize and direct behaviour of museum respondents. In this case, it is their family and friends. Focus group respondents were very specific that being asked to volunteer by a family member or friend and volunteering because a family member or friend was a volunteer at the institution, were different motivational reasons for volunteering. In some instances they may have been asked to volunteer by family or friends, but in others they did so
because their family or friends were there: ‘I thought, my daughter is there, and she seem to be having a good time, so I volunteered as well’.

The term used to label Factor three, ‘Self Expression’, is taken from Stebbins (2001a) who used it to describe one of several types of personal rewards. He argues that people gain personal rewards from being able to express their skills, abilities and knowledge, which they had developed during the course of their life. In this study, respondents believe that they have acquired skills which, they are confident, are still needed by institutions within society, and they can deliver them because their past experience at providing similar services supports this. In using their skills, respondents reported feeling a sense of self-satisfaction, which is a reward in itself. It is an internal cognitive belief that energizes them and motivates their behaviour.

The fourth factor ‘Available Time’ had no similarities with the literature. A reason for this is that it does not appear that the question ‘I volunteered because I did not have anything else to do with my time’ has been asked before. The variable ‘I have an interest in art, science or history’ logically loads with time because if someone doesn’t have anything to do with their time, and then seeks out something to do, it follows that they would seek out an activity in which they are interested. It is a synergy that arises from them being an ex-serviceperson, artist or natural scientist and a perception that if they didn’t do it then no one else would. For these respondents their motivation arises out of their personal beliefs and expectations.

The fifth factor, ‘Social’, strongly supports the literature, and is an internal need that drives respondents behaviour. It is consistent with Farrell et al. (1996, 1997, 1998), Caldwell and Andereck (1994), and Clary, Snyder and Stukas (1996) and relates to respondents’ need to make new friends, to feel a part of the community and to interact with others. There was a moderate correlation between this factor and factor one suggesting that higher social needs are positively related to personal needs. As a person’s social needs increase, there is a resultant increase in their personal needs. It suggests that social needs may explain some of the reasons that are behind personal needs. For example, someone may want to make new friends but this is difficult in their
current situation therefore, they need to vary their regular activities or broaden their horizons in order to do so.

The sixth factor is labelled ‘Purposive’ and has similarities with Farrell et al. (1997, 1998) and Caldwell and Andereck (1994). This factor referred to the respondents’ cognitive beliefs and emotional feelings that they can do something useful, and want to contribute to society. Respondents want to make the organization a success and to give something back to the community. The third item loaded low on this factor. However, it can be argued that respondents see others in their community volunteering and feel a certain obligation to be purposeful in their own behaviours. It represents the empathetic nature of respondents. There was a very small negative correlation between this factor and Self Expression, Available Time and Social factors.

There are no similarities in the literature with Factor seven, ‘Free Time’. Many volunteers are already busy people who ‘make time’ in their lives to pursue activities that are of interest to them. This factor explains an internal cognitive need by respondents to vary their regular activities, by making time to do so, and volunteering was perceived to be a good way of using their time to gain work related skills.

The eighth factor, Personal Attachment, is an internal drive that has similarities with outcomes of a study by Green and Chalip (1998) who found that sport volunteers like to identify with a sport subculture and their volunteering amplifies their socialisation into the sport subculture. In this study, respondents have an emotional attachment to the institution because they or someone they know, were an ex-service person, artist or scientist or they personally have an interest in art, science or natural history. Volunteering enables them to become involved with the subculture of art, science or military history.

The factors identified in this study differ from other studies conducted on volunteer motivations in non-tourism sectors. In this study, self-interests play a very important role in motivation. One reason that different factors emerge across studies is that researchers begin with a different set of items or select different items for inclusion. Although not openly evident at the time, it was going to be so from the moment focus
group participants requested a modification to some of the motivation variables, and subsequently by their qualitative responses in the questionnaire.

Additionally, Zappala and Burrell (2001) have argued that ‘variables are likely to be influenced by the particular characteristics of the organization and sector they (people) volunteer in’ (p. 2). However, what this study has shown is that it is more likely that a person’s motivation will lead them to look for an organization in which they perceive that their particular set of needs can be met. This is consistent with the underlying principal of the functional approach; ‘quite different reasons and motivations are required for the very same acts depending on who will be the recipient’ (Omoto and Snyder 1992, p. 224). For these respondents, they seek settings in which they can pursue their particular leisure activities, while meeting their various needs (i.e. personal, relationship network, self-expression, available time, social, purposive, free time and personal interest needs).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that volunteers have multiple motivations that are both altruistic and self interested. The findings presented in Tables 8 and 9 partially support this hypothesis. The researcher did not expect to find that self-interest would play a major role and altruism would play a minor role in volunteer motivation. Respondents are expressing intrinsic motivation that drives their behaviour. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivation that emerges spontaneously out of people’s needs for competence and autonomy (Reeve 2005). In this case, it is a drive to realise competence and autonomy in their self-interests that push them to seek out organizations that reflect their interests, and that they perceive to be able to satisfy their needs. Working in these institutions helps them to translate those needs into tangible outcomes such as social interaction, varying their regular activities or feeling useful.

That altruistic reasons were not as important, is evidenced in three ways. First, in the focus groups, participants asked that three questions which related to altruism be changed as they felt they were not relevant to them. Second, mean scores for variables relating to self-interests rated more highly than purposive variables. Third, only one out of 66 responses for ‘other motives’ for volunteering had an altruistic sentiment, which was ‘to give back to the community’. All other reasons were related to self-interests,
such as pursuing an interest in art, science or natural history; being in an interesting environment; and having an interest outside their ‘normal’ life.

The findings support a number of theories arising out of the leisure studies literature. Volunteering for these respondents is a serious leisure activity and is consistent with Henderson (1979), Holmes (1999, 2003) and Stebbins (1982, 1996, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2004). In this study, respondents made time to volunteer and chose to do so at places that interested them. Volunteers are passionate about their volunteering activity, will systematically pursue it with a temporal continuity, such that it has become a form of leisure career. This career focus is similar to people who would undertake education and training in a field that reflects their interests and strengths, and look to gain a position in that field so they can use their skills and knowledge to earn an income. Similarly, these respondents are pursuing their interests as a form of career, but earning an income is no longer important. Now, what is important is the activity itself and, the non-monetary benefits they derive from their participation.

The language respondents use also takes on a career orientation - 'It's a lovely place to work'; ‘to work at the AWM has always been a wish of mine’; ‘I work at the AWM because I like it; ‘I find the flexibility of working hours particularly attractive’; ‘My work at the Australian Museum is part of my life’. Similar to pursuing a hobby, the reward is in the activity itself and they take their pursuit very seriously. They report for duty on a regular rostered basis, and many will spend extra time outside their tasks preparing for those tasks.

Because these respondents see their volunteering as a form of leisure career, it does not mean that they should be managed as paid employees. On the contrary, being treated like a paid employee could be perceived as insensitive. As one volunteer complained:

> 'the increasing demands made by the proliferation of social, corporate, artistic activities is causing some strain on the members. We must be 'professional' at all times, and are subject to occasional harangues and some culling of those deemed unsuitable. The notion of the 'volunteer' has been prescribed by the obvious success of the institution.
There is a dichotomy here. Because volunteering is a serious leisure choice, respondents want to be able to enjoy what they do, being managed as paid staff makes what they do less enjoyable, which defeats the purpose for them being there. Managers can recognise this by acknowledging that the considerable amount of time volunteers willingly give, adds to the financial sustainability of the institution.

*What are their interests?*
There has been much talk of the self-interests of respondents, so what are they? Volunteers expressed an interest in:

- Contributing to the preservation of the institution, for future use by both the community and visitors. Respondents felt that by giving their time to the institution they could ensure that links with the past would not be lost.
- Ensuring the institutions remain viable in order that their children and grandchildren could visit and have positive experiences.
- Making art, natural science and history more accessible and contributing to the enjoyment people have when visiting the gallery.
- Immersing themselves in art, natural science and history for their own personal enjoyment.
- Simply continuing to use their knowledge of art science or history.
- Interacting with people.

### 6.5 How Do Motivation, Expectations And Values Influence Volunteer Commitment?

The study supports findings by Green and Chalip (1998) and Pearce (1980) that volunteers exchange their time and labour for some sort of psychological gain or reciprocity. Although the institutions have provided explicit agreements regarding rules, regulations, and benefits, there also exists an implicit agreement on the part of the volunteer, in terms of what they expect to gain from their volunteering. The implicit agreement relates to the volunteer’s needs and motivations. It is their needs and
motivation that play an integral part in their participation and determine each person’s reciprocal obligation and expectations, in this way they have a relational contract with the organization, which is dynamic and based on collective interest.

The study found that museum and art museum volunteers were motivated by self-interests, their expectations were met, and what they valued most was how well they conducted their tasks. They have an extremely high level of commitment, as evidenced by 97% of respondents indicating that they would continue volunteering for their respective institutions. But it is not conclusive that the above-mentioned variables are predictors of commitment, as it was found that there was no correlation between intention to continue and these variables.

The findings equate with Pfeffer’s (1997) conditions for commitment; choice, publicness and explicitness, as proposed in 3.4.2. Pursuing their leisure activity, by choosing to volunteer for an institution in which that activity can take place, provides these people with rewards such as training, learning new skills, personal satisfaction, continuing to be useful, being in an environment they find interesting and social interaction. They are publicly demonstrating their choice, and are bonded by this choice through fulfilling their commitment that they will volunteer for the specified hours, required by the institution. Their values are similar to the mission and outcome statement as reported by the institutions in which they are volunteering. Whilst their attachment to the organization is such that they are willing to forgo other activities or to be elsewhere.

There are also other reasons that explain commitment for these volunteers. First, in each of the institutions, volunteers must go through a somewhat rigorous recruitment process where the coordinators explain what is required of them in terms of their time and expected weekly or yearly hours. Second, in each organization they must commit to an extensive training program that ranges from a minimum of six months at one institution to a maximum of a year at another institution. Taken together, the last two points indicate the level of effort and commitment that is required to gain membership into these organizations. Third, respondents already have a high level of attachment to the organizations before joining. Fourth, they have a high level of personal interest in
the activities of the organization. Fifth, for the large number of retirees, serious leisure volunteering in an activity they are interested in, provides them with opportunities to continue using acquired skills in an enjoyable way.

Therefore, these findings do not support Hypothesis 3 that volunteer values alone facilitate a status quo commitment to the prevailing template in use. For these people status quo commitment is a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic drivers. In summary, recruitment procedures work to instil an initial high level of commitment in volunteers by asking them, upon joining, to commit to a certain number of hours as a volunteer. The person has chosen an institution in which they are most interested, to which they already have a personal attachment and which they perceive holds similar values to their own. Respondents accept the organization's goals and values, are willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and have a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. They are more likely to ‘put up’ with things than to complain. It seems that as a group, they tacitly recognise the commitment that they have all made and this serves to bond them as a group. Taken together these findings demonstrate what Greenwood and Hinings (1996) identified as ‘status quo’ commitment.

In line with Meyer and Allen (1991), these respondents’ individual commitments is a combination of both Affective commitment, which signifies their emotional attachment to the organization and Continuance commitment, which has developed as respondents have recognised that they have accumulated investments in the form of personal benefits which they don’t want to lose by leaving the organization. The findings confirm research by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and Porter et al. (1974) that people who have organizational experiences that are consistent with their expectations tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organization. Add to this the personal benefits they receive and their Affective and Continuance commitment is further strengthened.

Finally, the high, affective and continuance commitment of volunteers indicates that organizations need not do anything because, if they continue as normal, volunteers would remain committed for all the reasons discussed so far. However, this would
represent a neglect of responsibilities on the part of the organization. In accepting volunteers, the organization has a responsibility and an obligation to manage them appropriately: it is implicitly expected by these volunteers that they will give their time to a large institution that has the resources and staff appropriate for managing them. Policies are still required to provide a supporting work environment and assist in overcoming their organizational problems and issues.

6.5.1 Organizational Loyalty

What emerges from the commitment of volunteers is a very strong sense of loyalty to the organizations in which they work. Respondents stated a number of issues in relation to the management and organization of volunteers in the respective programs, but, when asked if they were dissatisfied, the majority of them stated a categorical ‘no’. Moreover, not one of the respondents who stated that they were extremely dissatisfied said they would not continue. It suggests that volunteers have a heightened sense of loyalty, which prevents them from complaining because if they were to complain they may be perceived as being disloyal to the organization.

6.6 How can this knowledge help attractions to better manage volunteers in order to promote organizational objectives?

6.6.1 Implications for Management

The museums studied here have evolved from what DiMaggio and Powell (1991) termed the dominant and alternative models of the 1920s. According to DiMaggio, the mission of the dominant model was collection, conservation and selection/sacralization. The mission of the alternative model was education, exhibition and interpretation. Today, the mission of these museums is the collection, maintenance, interpretation and education of their specific repositories of art, natural science and Australian war history, for dissemination to people. Operational programs of the organizations are focused on achieving these goals. The study has found that volunteers are highly committed, do as they are told, make a valuable contribution to the mission and outcome of the respective
institutions, and do not make a major claim on organizational resources. The tasks performed by volunteers are designed to assist the institutions in achieving their goals.

The volunteer programs within these attractions are well structured. Volunteers operate under an explicit agreement similar to a contract of employment. The role of the volunteer is to support and/or supplement the work of paid staff, by undertaking activities for the organization, in the form of predetermined and specific tasks. The organizations invest heavily in initial training. A volunteer manager or coordinator (can be either a paid or an unpaid position), organize volunteer workloads and supervise the activities of volunteers. They are also responsible for recruiting, training, deploying and supporting volunteers.

As stated in 6.5, if the organizations continue as normal, volunteers will remain committed and goals will continue to be achieved. Nevertheless, this superficial approach does not fully capitalise on the volunteer resource or take account of the implicit, reciprocal nature of their participation. Volunteers raised a number concerns about how they are organized and managed, and the institutions have a responsibility as part of their relational contract to manage these concerns. The following implications are focused on the issues raised by volunteers and the responsibility the organizations have in ensuring that they are well managed.

Volunteers want their skills and knowledge to be utilised, and are disappointed if this does not happen. They willingly give of their time, and are disappointed if the organization does not manage their time well. While some don’t require a job description, for others this is important. Poor organization in terms of communication, rostering, allocation of activities, lack of information, lack of reciprocity, and complaints not acknowledged add to the dissatisfaction of volunteers. They require the work that they do to be managed well, but don’t want to be managed as though they were paid staff. These issues are not too dissimilar to those reported by the United Parcel Service (1998).

The functional structure of the organizations add to the problems mentioned above. The integration of the volunteer programs into the institutions is different at each
organization. In one institution the program is given equal member status to other programs in the institution. In another institution the managers role is less valued, evidenced by the difference in resources the volunteer program receives as compared to other areas within the organization. Whilst in another, the self-managed volunteer program tends to function outside the normal operations of the institution; involvement is on an ‘as need’ basis. The practices in the latter two organizations have served to isolate volunteer managers and coordinators leaving them to feel undervalued. These organizations need to recognise their volunteer programs as legitimate, by committing appropriate levels of resources and involving them in decision-making, consequently demonstrating that they value the contribution of both volunteers and the paid and unpaid staff that manage them.

Museums and art museums are sustaining volunteers serious leisure involvement by enabling them to participate in a chosen serious leisure activity. Findings have shown that volunteers hold a personal attachment to the institutions in which they volunteer. According to Franken (2002) attached adults have higher interest in their jobs, experience greater job satisfaction, are less fearful of being evaluated, and are happy to work alone. This is true for museum and art museum volunteers. Respondents find it rewarding to be able to use their skills, acquire new skills, or both, while doing an activity that interests them, so much so, that they seek to make a career out of their serious-leisure activity.

Because of the factors mentioned above attractions have an opportunity to better utilise volunteer skills, knowledge, willingness to learn and intrinsic drive. They can do so by utilising volunteers in areas that are understaffed and overworked and for which there are no available resources to recruit paid staff. This could be in normal operational areas such as accounting, management, visitor services or building services. There would be some challenges involved as reported by Lockstone, Deery and King (2004) including difficulty in attempting to meet volunteer needs, lack of time away from other important tasks and volunteers being viewed as a threat by paid staff. In addition, organizational growth and complexity can make a focus on individualism and needs problematic. What is organizationally suitable at one time may not be suitable at another.
Each volunteer program already contains elements of management practices used for paid staff including: principles of recruitment, induction, equal opportunity, occupational health and safety, training and rewards. There is also no doubt that in large institutions, these practices are a necessity. What seems to be missing to some extent, in each of these programs, is the personal factor. The volunteer is different; they are not just like paid staff and they don’t want to be managed like paid staff. They have chosen to be there for reasons other than income. Therefore, the relationship they expect to have with the organization is different. It must be noted that volunteer coordinators and managers do have a more personal understanding of their volunteers, but this does not appear to be shared by staff outside the programs, as evidenced by volunteer comments.

These issues call for the development of a more personal, integrated, model of volunteer management which is practiced by all staff in the institution. Such a model may look similar to Rochester’s (1999) co-worker model or flexibility practices proposed by Lockstone, Deery and King (2004). But there is still more that needs to be understood about these organizations. Developing a new mindset in a paid workforce that already views volunteers as complementing and expanding the roles of paid staff will not be a difficult task. However, if volunteers are viewed more sceptically, and are seen as problematic by paid staff, changing the management model will be more difficult. These issues raise questions about the impact of organizational culture on volunteer/staff relationships. The culture of the organization may be a powerful influence on staff and their perceptions of volunteers. Therefore, a better understanding of organizational culture in each institution is required in order to identify strategies that will assist in creating positive mindsets and belief systems of staff in those organizations.

In addition to the development of a new volunteer management mindset, there are a number of ways in which organizations can meet volunteer expectations of doing something enjoyable and satisfying their interests, whilst simultaneously realising organizational outcomes through their participation. They include:
• Don’t make offers that can mislead the prospective volunteer and result in an unsatisfying experience.
• Provide volunteers with opportunities which satisfy their motives for joining.
• Provide them with clear information on organizational needs so that volunteers have a clear understanding on their roles within the institution.
• Provide opportunities for volunteers who work on their own to integrate with other volunteers and staff in different areas.
• Develop a database that facilitates the recording, managing and mining of volunteer information for use in organizational activities such as, identifying skill capabilities, matching volunteers to tasks and developing relevant recognition and reward strategies. Developing and maintaining a database could be the responsibility of a volunteer.
• Where possible, use their skills and knowledge, as they want to demonstrate that their skills are useful to the organization.
• Don’t waste their time. Use their time wisely, as many have made the time to volunteer not because they have nothing else to do.
• Communicate with them. Volunteers want to be informed about all the activities of the organization, (where practical), so they can provide accurate information on request and to assist in their own decision-making when working within the institution.
• Ask volunteers what training they would like.
• Create a supportive working environment. Develop strategies for bridging the staff/volunteer divide.
• Develop a more personal model of management, which is practised by all staff in the institution.
• Where appropriate, involve volunteers in the programming and coordination of organizational activities in which they have a role.

Reward and recognition are also important management tools. In 5.3.5, they were found to be a significant issue for museum and art museum volunteers. For this reason, the next section is devoted to this topic.
6.6.2 Rewards and Recognition

According to Franken (2002) recognition is important as it communicates to a person that what they are doing has value. Stebbins (2001a) holds that there are 10 rewards which someone motivated by self-interestedness hopes to achieve through volunteer work. He classified these rewards under two types, personal and social. They are set out below:

**Personal Rewards**
1. Personal enrichment (cherished experiences)
2. Self-actualization (developing skills, abilities, knowledge)
3. Self-expression (expressing skills abilities, knowledge already developed)
4. Self-image (known to others as a particular kind of serious leisure participant)
5. Self-gratification (combination of superficial enjoyment and deep satisfaction (Satisfaction can be a major part of this reward))
6. Re-creation (regeneration) of oneself through serious leisure after a day’s work
7. Financial return (from a serious leisure activity)

**Social Rewards**
8. Social attraction (associating with other serious leisure participants, with clients as a volunteer, participating in the social world of the activity)
9. Group accomplishment (group effort in accomplishing a serious leisure project; senses of helping, being needed, being altruistic)
10. Contribution to the maintenance and development of the group (including senses of helping, being needed, being altruistic in making the contribution) (Stebbins 2001a, p. 13)

Stebbins noted that people experienced rewards in special ways unique to their pursuits. However, in this study it has been found that people experience these rewards both unique to their initial motivation, and unexpectedly. Although respondents were not asked about the benefits or rewards they gained from volunteering, many chose to comment on them. Table 24 below displays a comparison of the rewards and benefits,
respondents reported experiencing, with those identified by Stebbins (2001a). Column one, represents the question in which the reward was stated, Column two, is the stated reward and Column three represents the reward type as classified by Stebbins (2001a).

The majority of rewards experienced by respondents were personal: personal enrichment; self-actualization; self-expression; and self-gratification. The only social reward reported as being experienced, was social attraction. That respondents didn’t report experiencing group accomplishment, or contribution to the maintenance and development of the group is attributed to the following reasons: Many of the tasks undertaken by volunteers are individual, such as guiding, managing children’s activities, researching, staffing activity stations and working in libraries. Therefore, experiencing those rewarding feelings of being a part of group accomplishment, or contributing to the organization, may only be realised when volunteers are recognised as contributing to part of a greater whole. For some, the recognition they receive from visitors provides them with a sense of intrinsic satisfaction that their contribution is worthwhile. However, others are seeking recognition from the attraction that they are valued; indicators that communicate to the volunteer that their efforts contribute to a greater whole; the sustainability and success of the institutions in which they participate.
Table 24: Rewards experienced by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Reward Response</th>
<th>Reward Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other Motivation</td>
<td>Social Interaction</td>
<td>Social Reward 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continue being useful</td>
<td>Personal Reward 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met Expectation</td>
<td>New Skills</td>
<td>Personal Reward 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>Personal Reward 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valuable experience</td>
<td>Personal Reward 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feel better about themselves</td>
<td>Personal Reward 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>Social Reward 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with experience</td>
<td>Recognition from staff</td>
<td>Personal Reward 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>Personal Reward 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall experience</td>
<td>Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>Personal Reward 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training benefit</td>
<td>Personal Reward 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance</td>
<td>Personal satisfaction</td>
<td>Personal Reward 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Interaction</td>
<td>Social Reward 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interesting environment</td>
<td>Personal Reward 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rewarding experience</td>
<td>Personal Reward 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instrumental Rewards - resume, new skills</td>
<td>Personal Reward 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author survey

Recognition is important to these volunteers, because they have placed a high level of importance on what they do. They take pride in their work, they are proud to work for the organization and getting the job done is important to them. Reciprocally, they expect their work to be valued by the organization. However, as discussed in 5.3.5 and 5.3.6, current recognition methods are only somewhat satisfying, or are viewed as a waste of valuable resources, or worse, what Green and Chalip (1998) refer to as ‘condescending’. The issue is complex, for example a lack of recognition may have resulted in volunteer expectations not being met, on making the institution a success. If management does not communicate to volunteers that their efforts contribute to organizational success then how are volunteers to understand that their contribution is meaningful? The problem lies in the type of reward/recognition given. A reliance on extrinsic tangible rewards, such as money, awards, food, tends to undermine intrinsic motivation, while verbal, symbolic, or abstract rewards, such as praise, do not (Reeve 2005). Reeve (2005) states that ‘the imposition of an extrinsic reward for an
intrinsically interesting activity typically undermines future intrinsic motivation’ an effect that is termed the ‘hidden cost of reward’” (p. 143).

‘Rewards and recognition can be given in a controlling way, where the aim is to shape, influence or control a person’s behaviour, or an informing way where the aim is to inform the person about their competence at a task’ (Reeve 2005, p. 150). Essentially managers and coordinators need to ask themselves ‘what is the purpose of this reward: to control behaviour?’ or, to ‘inform competence?’ If it is the former, then they will need to be mindful that the type of reward chosen will probably undermine the intrinsic motivation that is characteristic of these volunteers. Greater consideration needs to be given to reward and recognition methods that inform volunteers that they are competent, and that they are contributing to the sustainability of the organization. Respondents made numerous comments to the effect that they felt they were not valued because the director failed to acknowledge them when he was moving through the organization. Two things occur as a result. First, the director has missed an important opportunity to recognise volunteers and heighten intrinsic motivation. Second, by not acknowledging volunteers in this casual way, he has undermined their intrinsic motivation and conveyed messages that they are not important, that their role in the organization is not as meaningful as others.

Praise can be used as a function to inform people about a job well done (Reeve 2005). For example, any person more senior than the volunteer (in particular the director) could praise the volunteer by saying ‘excellent job; I noticed that you have a warm and sincere tone in your voice when talking to the visitors’ or ‘excellent job, I noticed that your explanation about that painting was informative and interesting’. Both of these comments speak informatively to the volunteer’s sense of competence and say much more than a vague ‘excellent job’ or the more controlling ‘excellent job you did just as you should’. Recognition then is not in the praise, but in the way it is delivered (Reeve 2005).

The benefit of using such a technique is that it supports, and facilitates, the intrinsic motivation people already have. This leads to other benefits such as persistence, creativity, conceptual understanding and subjective well-being (Reeve 2005) and they
will be more willing to adhere to organizational templates, and be flexible in their response to organizational changes. Coordinators and managers can acknowledge volunteer time and input through rewards that are motivation focused. For example, where an individual has joined an institution for social reasons or to improve their skills then work that provides opportunities for social interaction and training would be seen as rewarding for the volunteer. Rewards that fit with motivations found here, include opportunities for:

- cherished experiences;
- working autonomously;
- demonstrating competencies;
- developing skills, abilities, knowledge;
- expressing skills abilities and knowledge already developed;
- participation in the social world of the institution;
- intangible recognition by key organizational actors.

This task will not be easy as it requires managers and coordinators to provide non-homogenous, recognition and rewards that are attuned to the underlying dimensions and intrinsic motives that drive volunteers: rewards that are, informational and competence focused, and come from different key actors within the organization, not just the volunteer coordinator or manager.

6.6.3 A Model for Volunteer Management

The discussion above leads to a recommendation of a Model for Volunteer Management shown in Figure 3. This model has been adapted from Pearce (1980) who first developed ‘A Model for Volunteer Placement’ for managing the relationship between an organization and its volunteers (Pearce 1980). Pearce developed the model to strengthen the match between a volunteer and a tourism business. The model is still relevant today, with minor alterations, for museums and art museums.
The suitability of the model lies in both its fit with the *internal environment* of the framework for understanding how volunteers are organized, and, in its usefulness as a practical guide for managing volunteers. The Framework aids in understanding the whole context in which volunteers contribute their time, the Model demonstrates how knowledge gleaned from the Framework can be used to better manage volunteers. That is, the model focuses on the micro level of the organization suggesting a way in which the relationship between volunteer and organization can be managed.
The needs of the volunteer, Box 1, must be matched with an appropriate recognition system, Box 2, such that the organization creates an environment in which the contribution of volunteers is recognised in a meaningful way. The skills and abilities of the volunteer, Box 3, must be matched with the task requirements of the museum organization, Box 4, such that a volunteer’s skills and abilities are well utilised, and the organization achieves its objectives. Matching task requirements with volunteer skills and abilities may require organizations to rethink the types of tasks they require volunteers to undertake. However, the problem of paid staff potentially perceiving these new volunteer tasks as threatening to casual and full time positions, is one that will need to be addressed.

How well the organization matches task requirements with volunteer skills and abilities, and a recognition system with volunteer needs and interests, will determine the level of satisfaction that both the volunteer and the organization have with the volunteer.
program. A weak match will lead to insufficient or moderate satisfaction by the organization and the volunteer, and subsequent withdrawal. Volunteer withdrawal is characterised by the volunteer ignoring directives, being absent, decreasing their performance, or leaving. Organizational withdrawal is characterised by the organization failing to provide adequate resources and support, or letting the volunteer go. The strength of a volunteer’s satisfaction will be moderated by the volunteer’s perception that their serious leisure interests are being met through their participation in the organization. The strength of the organizations satisfaction with its volunteers will be moderated by the organization’s perception of the volunteers’ satisfaction with their tasks. The organization should be striving for the strongest match in both areas in order to realise a mutually satisfying relationship. Task requirement and recognition system are embedded in the organization’s structure. Should there be a weak match the organization may need to reconsider the way in which it divides and coordinates volunteer labour.

There are a number of benefits to be gained from this management approach. The museum will retain experienced volunteers who understand the functioning of the organization, its operation and staff. These volunteers will provide a more meaningful experience for visitors. As a consequence, the organization will use fewer resources in recruiting and training new volunteers and will improve its knowledge of the volunteer’s skills and abilities. The volunteer benefits from improved recognition and appreciation by the organization and a sense that their skills and abilities are being adequately utilised. Additionally, the volunteers’ sense of satisfaction gained from their meaningful participation in the maintenance of cultural and natural resources, will help to strengthen the community’s ownership and support of those organizations. Finally, the organizations proactive management approach to their volunteer program will build a positive corporate image of the organization, in the mind of the community.

6.7 **Strengths and Weaknesses of the Framework**

This thesis set out to answer the question, ‘how are volunteers organized’? The framework used in this research has answered this question, and was successful in
providing a sound understanding of the environment in which volunteering takes place. It also served to clarify the type of management model that may be required to manage volunteers in museums and art museums. As stated in Section 3.2 the aim of the framework was to understand the whole organizational context of volunteering in a specified tourism field, that of museums and art museums. The framework did assist the researcher to realise this task. The broad scope of the framework captured the internal complexities of the organizations studied and clarified the way in which those organizations have interacted with their external environment. Yet, it was the scope of the framework that made working with it complex, because this required simultaneous attention to a range of issues. Due to this complexity, the framework was sometimes difficult to operationalize. The framework was suitable for the purposes of this research; however, the prescriptive elements of the internal environment may vary depending on the area of analysis.

6.8 Suggestions for Further Research

It has been argued that ‘we can’t think about emotions without considering motivation and we can’t think about motivation without considering emotion’ (Franken 2002, p. 238). Research that continues to incorporate both sociological and psychological aspects of volunteering will improve our understanding of this very complex area. Questions such as:

- What sort of relationship do volunteers expect to have with the organization and its staff, and are these relationships different in the minds of the volunteers?
- What rewards and recognition do volunteers want, and what form should they take?
- What is the impact of organizational culture on the relationship between paid staff and volunteers?

This study examined large non-profit museums; however, there are many small cultural and heritage attractions managed entirely by volunteers. Studies are required to identify whether motivations and expectations for these volunteers are the same or different as compared to volunteers in larger museums and art museums.
It would be valuable to extend this research to both large and small non-profit museums in other countries to identify whether the same field characteristics apply. The study also found that museum volunteers are professionalising themselves. Therefore, it will be important to track this phenomenon, and its impact, on both volunteering and the institutions in which they are engaged.

An interesting extension would be to identify whether the field-defining characteristics identified here, could be used to define other tourism fields. So little work has been done in this area that future studies would extend the theory developed here. This research could also further investigate the way in which tourism fields impact on each other, and the types of changes which occur as a result.

The study highlighted the role that the institutions in this study play in building social attachment through their volunteer programs. Research that empirically measures this aspect would be advantageous for museums and art museums in influencing government policy and gaining government funding to assist in supporting existing volunteer programs and initiating new ones.

### 6.9 Contributions of the Study

The study investigated how volunteers are organized at visitor attractions, specifically museums and art museums. It has contributed to the body of knowledge concerning the organization of volunteers in several areas.

An important theoretical contribution to tourism and organization studies is the development and extension of a framework that considers the whole context in which museums and art museums operate. It has adapted the work of Greenwood, and Hinings (1996) and placed it in a new industry, tourism, in the field of museums and art museums. By using a holistic focus to understand how a program is organized, it offers an interesting theoretical extension to tourism, institutional and neo-institutional literature.
DiMaggio and Powell (1991) demonstrated the structuration of US art museums and Oakes, Townley and Cooper (1998) considered the use of business planning to affect the position of symbolic and cultural capital, of museums and cultural heritage sites in Alberta, Canada. My contribution is the identification of the characteristics that define the field of museums and art museums within the sector of visitor attractions. These characteristics can form the basis for the identification of other fields in tourism.

Another major contribution was the strong support for the hypothesis that organizational templates for volunteer programs are both institutionally and field derived. This study has varied from those undertaken by Meyer and Rowan (1977), DiMaggio and Powell (1983), Slack and Hinings (1994) and Greenwood and Hinings (1996), as it focused on the micro level, and answered the question of how templates are adopted within a particular setting. It has focused on the roles that organizational actors have played in this process. In programs, managed by paid staff, volunteer managers and coordinators were more likely to actively seek new ways of doing things from the field, in order to legitimize their practices. In self-managed programs, a more inclusive method was adopted whereby template changes were made through a voting process. This research suggests that field-derived templates are seen by individuals as opportunities for improving their practices and contributing to perceived Best Practice.

The study contributes to a more holistic understanding of volunteers. It identified the motivations of people who volunteer for museums and art museums, and found them to be serious-leisure volunteers. This conclusion adds weight to the findings of leisure theorists, Stebbins (1996) and Holmes (2003), and as such has extended the knowledge of volunteer motivation. Additionally, these conclusions partially support the hypothesis that volunteers have multiple motivations that are both altruistic and self-interested. They also cast doubt on widely held beliefs that volunteers operate out of altruism. The study also found that these volunteers have expectations and needs that they expect to satisfy whilst volunteering. This knowledge is important for volunteer managers such that they can meet volunteer expectations of doing something enjoyable and satisfying, whilst simultaneously realising organizational outcomes. Importantly it
contributes to the theoretical understanding of why people contribute their time in this way.

With respect to volunteer values facilitating a ‘status quo’ commitment to the prevailing template in use, my results did not support the early hypothesis. It appears that a volunteer’s commitment is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic drivers resulting from recruitment practices, personal attachment, self-interests and a perceived congruence with the values of the organization. These factors taken together serve to bond volunteers such that they have a ‘status quo’ commitment to the prevailing template. This finding makes an important contribution to theoretical development of commitment within organizations and the source of that commitment.

This study also contributes to theoretical development of individual commitment and offers theoretical support for the work of Meyer and Allen (1991). Furthermore, it supports theoretical assertions by Snyder and Omoto (1992), Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and Porter et al. (1974) that people who have organizational experiences consistent with their expectations, tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organization.

The study, in employing a rigorous and thorough methodology that combines quantitative and qualitative tools, contributes to the tourism, organizational and leisure studies methodological and theoretical literature. The use of focus groups to pilot test the questionnaire rather than personal interviews, was a format that resulted in rich data for subsequent analysis, as well as valuable feedback on the questionnaire. This approach may be useful for other studies in the tourism, organization and leisure studies areas.

6.10 Conclusion

In summary, each of the institutions in this study has explicit transactional contracts that guide volunteer participation in the organization. As these volunteers join their respective institutions, they know what to expect and what is expected of them.
Volunteers have an explicit understanding of where they fit into the organization and are well informed of the organization’s expectations of them in terms of their role, obligations and commitment. Volunteers will expect to receive training, a safe working environment and benefits. What’s more, volunteers have their own set of implicit transactional contracts that arise from their motivations and that they hope to satisfy while giving service to the organization. Thus, an explicit and implicit exchange agreement is present between the volunteer and the organization. The needs identified in this study are the most central to museum and art museum volunteers and, because they have chosen to turn motivation into behaviour that satisfies their leisure interests, they will continue to volunteer for as long as those interests are being met. It doesn’t matter that volunteers at museums are predominantly self-interested because what they do is in the public interest. They provide a range of valuable services to the community and, in return, receive a range of personal benefits. Both of these activities build trust, reciprocity and other social norms.

Volunteer managers and coordinators are responsible for ensuring that their programs run smoothly. However, those managers who are paid are challenged by their own insecurities; in contrast, unpaid managers (who are also volunteers) are confident in their abilities but feel somewhat alienated from other programs. What is clear is that volunteers need to be understood if they are to be managed well. Organizations should not be too complacent with respect to their volunteers; volunteers require recognition and should be genuinely appreciated for the services they provide to the institution. A Model for Volunteer Management has been suggested as a tool for facilitating this process. Museums and art museums also have the opportunity to consider more carefully, the potential they have to contribute to social attachment and the health of the communities in which they operate.

There are many much smaller not-for-profit attractions that are only managed by volunteers and I recognise that the findings from this study may not be transferable to these small organizations. Thus, I am cognizant of the fact that my interpretations and conclusions apply to a specific field of the visitor attraction sector. Nonetheless, it is through studies of one field that we build theory for testing in another. Whilst social
science can never escape contextual delimitation, it can make a difference through theory building (Flyvberg 2000).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Background to Attractions

Australian War Memorial

The Australian War Memorial (AWM or Memorial) was officially opened in 1941. It is located in Canberra in the Australian Capital Territory. The purpose of the AWM is to commemorate the sacrifice of those Australians who died in war. The 2002-2003 Annual Report states that the outcome of this purpose is to enable Australians to remember, interpret and understand the Australian experience of war and its enduring impact on Australian society (Australian War Memorial 2003). It aims to achieve this through; the maintenance and development of a national collection of historical material, commemorative ceremonies, exhibitions, research, and interpretation and dissemination of war artefacts and history (Australian War Memorial 2003). The vision of the AWM 'is to be an outstanding Memorial that is acclaimed for its commemorative ethos, activities and exhibitions; engages with the greatest possible number of people; undertakes continuing revitalisation; and is recognised as a pre-eminent national institution' (Australian War Memorial 2002). The Memorial has been recognised as Australia's Major Tourist attraction for three consecutive years and has been inducted into the Australian Tourism Association's Hall of Fame. The memorial has also won Silver in the Department of Finance and Administration's Service Charter awards.

The AWM is a statutory authority within the Veterans' Affairs Portfolio, and functions in accordance with the requirements of the Australian War Memorial Act 1980 and the Commonwealth Authorities and Companies Act 1997. The AWM operates within a framework of corporate governance by a thirteen-member council in accordance with the requirements of the Australian War Memorial Act 1980. The Council's role is to establish the policy and strategic direction of the AWM and maintain responsibility for the conduct and control of the affairs of the Memorial.

The AWM is open daily except for Christmas Day, Boxing Day and New Years Day. Admission and tours are free. Forty-two general tours - six a day - are offered on a weekly basis. For the financial year ended 2003 the museum was host to 794,000 visitors.
AWM Organization
The Director is responsible for the management and implementation of strategies and policies within the Memorial. The Memorial adopts a functional structure with outputs achieved through cross-branch activities.

The AWM has three major functional departments including:

- **National Collection** - This branch is responsible for developing, managing, preserving, and interpreting the national collection. Its function is to make the national collection accessible through exhibition and research and to meet the information needs of inquirers, researchers, academics and official organizations. The National Collection includes five sections: Art, Collection Services, Military Heraldry and Technology, Photographs Sound and Film, and a Research Centre which is accessible to the public.

- **Public Programs** - This branch is responsible for commemoration at the Memorial and throughout the Australian community. Public Programs include five sections: Education and Visitor Services, Gallery Development, Marketing and Public Affairs, Military History and Travelling Exhibitions. The branch conducts a program of public events and a range of visitor services, including those provided by the Memorial’s volunteers. It conducts research to identify the needs and expectations of major interest groups and evaluates the extent to which those needs are being met. The branch delivers education programs, which are linked with national education curricula, for delivery onsite and as part of its outreach strategy.

- **Corporate Services** - This branch is responsible for the management of the Memorial’s resources, including staff, finances, facilities, information technology, and office services. Corporate Services includes four sections: Buildings Security and Services, Finance, Information Technology, Memorial Shop, and People Management and Development. The branch undertakes corporate planning and issues relating to administrative law, including public liability, fraud control, and ethics. Its activities include property management, communications strategies, security and records management services and e-Business. Executive functions,
evaluation, and Ministerial and Parliamentary liaison are also coordinated in this branch.

The AWM has a published set of values that cover 5 elements and form the basis of their service charter, they are:

**Leadership**
- Excellence in all relevant fields.

**Access and Quality**
- The highest quality exhibitions, facilities, services and outreach programs, and access to them for all Australians.

**Stakeholders**
- Respect for the needs and values of all stakeholders, particularly ex-Service men and women, especially when developing exhibitions and commemorative programs.

**Collection**
- The care, enhancement and preservation for future generations of an outstanding collection of historical and commemorative significance.

**Staff**
- A work environment of trust, equity, respect, creativity and productivity that is harassment-free, where all staff have the opportunity to develop their talents, contribute to the maximum of their abilities, use their creativity and initiative, and be acknowledged and respected for what they achieve. (Australian War Memorial 2002, p. 10)

**Volunteers**
The volunteer program is situated under Education and Visitor Services in the Public Programs branch. At the time of data collection, there were 224 active volunteers. Although, the bulk of volunteers participate in three main areas, the voluntary guides,
the discovery room, and the online Gallery, they can be found in many areas within the AWM, specifically:

1. *Treloar Technology Centre*: the restoration site for the Memorial's large technology collection.
2. *Education and Visitor Services* (*E&VS*) which delivers ceremonies, public events and programs, customer services for visitors, educational programs for school children about Australian's experience of war.
3. *The Discovery Room*: a hands-on Gallery for families and younger visitors.
4. *The Research Centre* which provides access to a collection of official and unofficial diaries and papers, photographs, film, sound and art.
5. *The Photo, Film and Sound Section*, which documents, preserves, interprets and manages photographs, sound, and film components of the National Collection to make them accessible for exhibition and research. This area also provides photographic services, audiovisual support and technical support to the Memorial.
6. *The Military Heraldry and Technology Section*, which documents, preserves, interprets and manages the military heraldry and technology components of the National Collection so they can be presented to the public.
7. *The Art Section*, which documents, preserves, researches, exhibits, interprets and makes accessible the art component of the Memorial's collection.

The various activities undertaken in these areas include conducting interpretive guided tours, VIP tours for the general public and special interest groups, assisting the public with research enquiries, assisting with functions and formal ceremonies, assisting conservators in preparing relics for storage, and working in laboratories treating textiles and paper based artefacts.

**Organising Routine**

There are three broad groups of volunteers within the Memorial voluntary guides, discovery room guides and research centre volunteers in the Online Gallery. All volunteers are managed by the Volunteer Coordinator, E&VS, and an assistant volunteer coordinator. They are both paid staff. The volunteer manager was self-
employed for 30 years before joining the War Memorial as a security officer. Prior to his current position, he was at the Treloar Technology Centre as acting manager organizing and running tours, and promoting the centre. Treloar was eventually closed as a visitor site and is now only used for the restoration of large technology. During the period of this study it was found that due to staffing constraints in the E&VS Volunteer Services Unit, the volunteer manager was often unsupported in their role.

The Treloar Technology Centre and Treloar A Conservation Laboratory volunteers are managed by the Volunteer Coordinator, Treloar. The position at this site is relatively new, having only been created in 2000. Prior to joining the AWM as a E&VS volunteer in 1997, the coordinator was a project manager. The coordinator moved to Treloar in 1998 and while there applied for the volunteer coordinators position when it was advertised in 2000. His responsibilities are to manage the daily activities and recruitment of the volunteers at the site. He is supported by team leaders, who are fulltime conservation staff assigned to specific restoration projects. The manager at Treloar is on a lower pay level to the E&VS Volunteer manager. Although recruitment for the site is carried out by the Treloar volunteer manager, any advertising is conducted through the E&VS Volunteer manager.

National Collection volunteers are managed on a one-to-one basis by section heads. Both managers are instructed to liaise with Volunteering ACT, be involved in the Volunteers Managers network and the Cultural Volunteers email discussion group.

**Recruitment and Training**

There are two recruitment processes one for the Treloar Centre and one for E&VS. The relevant volunteer manager for each venue undertakes each process. Both recruitment processes are formal; however the manager at Treloar adopts a somewhat informal approach to recruitment. In this instance, the volunteer manager registers interests from individual enquiries as well as advertising on an as-needs basis. The initial point of contact is over the phone. During the conversation, the volunteer manager will make a subjective assessment by noting their backgrounds and the skills that the person can bring to the role. If the manager feels that the person may be suitable the manager will
than ask the team leaders if the skills are required. If the applicant’s skills are required, the applicant is invited in for an interview. At the interview the applicant will be taken on a tour of the workshop and is shown the collection and what they might be expected to work on. This is done so the applicant can become familiar with the working environment, which can be noisy, has no windows, artificial lighting and noxious fumes. This interview-come-orientation session acts as a culling tool as some applicants withdraw their interest when they understand the environment in which they will be working. At the end of the interview and if the person is still interested in volunteering they are given an application package. If there is no immediate position their details will be recorded on an excel spreadsheet with an indication of whether the person is an active, inactive, or potential candidate. Successful applicants undergo a security check and are required to sign a confidentiality agreement. The volunteer initially goes on a probation period of 50 hours.

The recruitment process for E&VS is conducted on an ‘as needs’ basis. Predominantly, the manager will advertise through the major newspapers. However many people approach the AWM and express an interest. These people are sent an information package and invited in for an interview. They are interviewed by the volunteer manager and two guides. Applicants must be willing to commit to working for a minimum of one year following recruitment. Successful applicants are given a Voluntary Guides manual that outlines the policies, rules and procedures regulating volunteer involvement and a teamwork agreement document that sets out the working guidelines to which volunteers must adhere. Again, volunteer guides must undergo a security check and are required to sign a confidentiality agreement.

The new guides are trained for a period of six to eight months by two experienced guides. During the course of their training, they are required to present a paper to the training team on how they intend to conduct tours through the AWM. Having completed their presentation, they are taken around the AWM by an experienced guide to ensure they can find all the levels and not get lost. Following this the new recruits are required to take 12 tours on which they undertake a self-assessment. During this time they can ask a member of the training team to provide them with feedback. Once the 12 tours have been completed they are evaluated by the training team and, assuming
there are no major problems, they become a full guide. The guides are evaluated three times a year to ensure that they are maintaining a professional standard.

**Facilities and Benefits**

Volunteer benefits include full access to the research centre and facilities; 5% discount at the AWM bookshop and kiosk; concessional entry to other Museums, Galleries and Institutions in Canberra; invitations to ceremonies, services and other activities organized by the memorial; insurance cover for injury or illness arising out of work at the Memorial; invitations to listen to presentations; and payment for guides to be members of the Association of Australian Gallery Guides Organization (AAGO). The institution also pays the full cost for the Memorials’ AAGO representative to attend the conference. Occasionally, funds permitting, they will cover the cost for up to a further eight Gallery guides to attend. All volunteers receive an invitation to listen to presentations.

Certificates of appreciation are given to online Gallery and discovery room volunteers who have given 2000 hours of time. The Gallery guides have a separate Christmas function. The patron of the guides is the wife of the Governor General who has afternoon tea with the guides and attends selected volunteer functions.

Volunteers at Treloar receive free tea, coffee and biscuits and volunteers are reimbursed for their safety boots after they have completed 50 hours of work and are continuing their commitment. They receive certificates of appreciation on the completion of a project, no matter how many hours they have contributed or whether they are still a volunteer at Treloar. Treloar volunteers also receive a badge indicating 200, 500, 1,000 or 2,000 hours of service.

**Australian Museum**

The Australian Museum (AM or the Museum) was Australia's first natural history museum and was founded in 1827. The Australian Museum is a New South Wales Government statutory body administered by the Ministry for the Arts. The Museum
operates under the Australian Museum Trust Act 1975 and Australian Museum Trust Regulation 1998 within a framework of corporate governance between general public sector statutory requirements and regulations, together with the AM Trust. The AM trust consists of nine trustees who have been nominated by the Minister for the Arts and appointed by the Governor. The purpose of the AM is to propagate knowledge about the natural environment of Australia and to increase that knowledge specifically in the areas of biology, anthropology and geology (Australian Museum 2002). The vision of the Museum is 'Sustainable environments and cultures for future generations achieved through documenting and understanding the past and present' (Australian Museum 2003, p.2). To achieve the vision, the AM's mission is to 'Research, interpret, communicate and apply understanding of the environments and cultures of the Australian region to increase their long-term sustainability' (Australian Museum 2003, p. 2).

Principally, scientists at the AM conduct ongoing research into the origin, development and diversification of Australia's environments and culture; contemporary biodiversity; geodiversity; cultural diversity; and into maximising the sustainability of Australia's environments and culture (Australian Museum 2003). Its collection comprises invertebrate and vertebrate animal specimens, minerals, fossils, anthropological artefacts and photographic and art collections. The collections are presented to the public through exhibitions, community programs and an online collection website. Additionally the AM also has a research library and an online catalogue. For the financial year ended 2003, the museum was host to approximately 397,000 visitors. The AM is open daily except for Christmas Day, Boxing Day and New Years Day. There is an admission charge and tours are free.

**AM Organization**

The AM adopts a functional structure with four major, functional areas that are overseen by the director and deputy director, these include:

- **Strategic Initiatives and Information Management** - This division is responsible for information and knowledge management, communication, and establishing a strategic focus to fulfil longer term objectives of the AM. It incorporates the
Australian Museum Research Centre, the Marketing and Sponsorship unit, the Strategic Initiatives unit and the Publishing and Information Management unit.

- **Corporate and Commercial Services** - This division is responsible for the AM's operational activities. It incorporates Financial Services, Facilities Management, Organizational Development, the Australian Museum Business Services, the Australian Museum Shop, the Museum as a Venue and the Multimedia unit.

- **Public Programs** - The responsibility of this division is the development of the Museum’s facilities, to facilitate visitor access to research and knowledge through the Museum itself and its regional and outreach programs. It incorporates Education and Visitor Services, Exhibition Development and Production, Museum Outreach Services and House Services.

- **Science** - The science division is responsible for the research and maintenance of collections that will enable the Museum to; gain insights into the world and its cultures; communicate that knowledge more effectively to government, the community and stakeholders; and to use that knowledge to participate in and influence debate about conservation and sustainability. The division incorporates Anthropology, Invertebrate Zoology, Vertebrate Zoology, Earth and Environmental Sciences, Centre for Biodiversity and Conservation Research, Centre for Geodiversity research, People and Place Research, Centre for Evolutionary Research, Materials Conservation, Centre for Materials Conservation, and the Built Environment and Science Communications Group.

**Volunteers**
The volunteer program is situated within Visitor Services under the Division of Public Programs. It comprises two areas: Public Programs and Behind the Scenes. Public Programs' volunteers meet and greet Museum visitors, help visitors feel welcome and oriented to the Museum, take guided tours, and interpret Museum content. Public Programs volunteers also assist in special events such as Science Week. Behind the Scenes, volunteers assist in a wide variety of roles, supporting scientists and other Museum staff in clerical and other often-diverse duties such as cataloguing, researching and classification.
The AM 2002/2003 annual report states that, for the period 2002-2003, there were 186 people actively volunteering within the Australian Museum, 41 as guides and 145 Behind the Scenes. They contributed a total of 57,408 hours of service to the Museum which represents an increase of 146% on the hours recorded for 2001/02' (Australian Museum 2003, p. 37). However at the time of data collection, a total of 139 questionnaires were distributed. Volunteers are organised and responsible to two volunteer coordinators. The estimated number of hours given in volunteer service was 10,192 hours in working directly with the public, and 47,216 hours in working Behind the Scenes (Australian Museum 2003). In 2002 a number of new initiatives were introduced including a uniform, registration to record volunteer attendance, and benefits.

**Organising Routine**

A paid staff member whom I will identify as A1 coordinates the volunteers program. A1 started with the museum as a volunteer in 1994. A1 was eventually offered a full time position as an interpreter officer. In 1998, A1 moved into the position of assistant volunteer coordinator in a job-share arrangement where they managed the volunteers two days a week and the other coordinator managed the volunteers for three days a week. That same year the other coordinator left and A1 moved into the position of fulltime volunteer coordinator. In 2000 A1 subsequently completed a diploma of volunteer management practices, through Volunteering Australia.

The management of volunteers at the AM has been consistently disjointed and continued to be so during the writing of this thesis. Initially, they were supervised by a paid full time volunteer coordinator five days a week on a rotating roster who was relieved by an interpretive officer for two days. A1 went on maternity leave and during this time the role was shared by the front of house manager, A2, and an interpretive officer, A3. The volunteer coordinator returned to work three days a week, one of which they worked from home with the other days being covered by the front of house manager and an interpretive officer. This lasted for approximately 8 months after which A1 resigned for family reasons. Management of the volunteer program was then left up to A2 and A3.
Tours at the AM are advertised over the PA system and conducted by both paid staff and volunteer staff. Volunteers are instructed to take no more than forty-five minutes when guiding visitors. This is to avoid the problem of volunteers 'over talking' the visitors. There is no 'specified' tour and volunteers are free to decide what route to take guide visitors provided the tour is conducted throughout the whole museum.

**Recruitment and Training**

Public Programs volunteers are recruited approximately once a year. Throughout the year, any enquiries from people interested in volunteering are noted in a 'record book'. The information recorded includes name, contact details, any particular skills and abilities, and in what areas they would like to be involved. If a person is interested in working Behind the Scenes, then additional information is taken regarding the persons skills and area of interest. There are two different recruitment processes. Those people interested in working in front of house are invited to an information day. On this day they learn more about volunteering at the Museum including the Museum’s expectations, commitment that will be required, activities they can be involved in and training requirements. At the end of the information session participants are invited to fill in an application form if they are still interested. These application forms are subsequently reviewed and prospective volunteers are invited in for an interview. For the interview, the applicant is asked to bring with them an object from nature, which they are expected to talk about for approximately three minutes. Interviews are conducted by the volunteer coordinators, and are similar to a job interview but not as formal.

Volunteers in the Public Programs section are expected to work a minimum of 22 days a year as well as attend regular meetings and training days. On initial entry, volunteers are put through a four-day induction course that covers customer service, basics of museum interpretation and education, museum content and conducting guided tours. Volunteers are expected to commit for a period of 12 months which is then followed by an appraisal and review for further commitment.
Commitment for Behind the Scenes volunteers varies with the type of task performed. Ongoing projects will require regular attendance, while short-term projects will require volunteers for a set period. Training for Behind the Scenes volunteers is provided by their specific supervisor.

Training for front of house includes going on tours with trained volunteers and paid front of house staff to observe commentary and procedures. They are provided with material on the Museum to study and sheets that guide them around the museum. These sheets ask the volunteer a series of questions about the Museum such as: how many toilets can you see on a floor; what does a particular sign say; and what type of exhibit is in a certain location. When the volunteer feels comfortable with their knowledge they are assessed by one of the volunteer coordinators. This involves the coordinator undertaking a tour with the volunteer. At the end of this practice tour the coordinator decides whether the volunteer is ready or whether the volunteer requires more training and will make suggestions to the volunteer for improvement in their guiding skills. The volunteer is also required to evaluate themselves after 50 hours of volunteering.

For Behind the Scenes volunteers the recruitment process is less formal. A scientist from Behind the Scenes will make a request to the volunteer coordinator for a person to fill a particular task; the volunteer coordinator will then go through the record book and to try to find a match. Volunteers who express an interest in working Behind the Scenes remain in the record book for a period of six months; if they have not been placed within this period then their name is deleted from the book. In order for people to keep their names on the list, they must reapply. Applicants for Behind-the-Scenes are made aware of this when their initial interest is recorded.

**Facilities and Benefits**
Volunteers have their own room. The room contains a small library and resource centre, coffee table, lounge chair and 2 armchairs. It is in here that the rosters, events calendar and sign on book are located and each volunteer is allocated a pigeon hole for messages etc. Volunteers are provided with a microwave and fridge, and tea, coffee, milk and biscuits; they must bring their own mugs. On recruitment, volunteers are given a T Shirt
which they must return if they leave within six months. Volunteers have free access to
the Museum and special exhibitions and receive a free subscription to Nature Australian
Magazine, the Museum’s own publication which is sold in the Museum shop. After the
6 months qualifying period, volunteers are entitled to discounted attendance for any
public and staff lectures, receive 20% discount at the Museum shop and honorary
membership of The Australian Museum Society.

Art Gallery of New South Wales
The Art Gallery of New South Wales (AG or Gallery) was opened in 1879. The AG
operates under the Art Gallery of New South Wales Act, 1980. The AG trust consists of
eleven trustees who have been recommended by the Minister for the Arts and appointed
by the Governor. The purpose of the AG is to 'develop and maintain a collection of
works of art, and to propagate and increase knowledge and appreciation of art' (Art
Gallery of New South Wales 2003, p. 1). The AG's mission is to 'maintain a reputation
as an energetic, outgoing and accessible art institution in Australia, and at the same time
strive to be a major international Gallery of the world, continuing to inspire, interest and
provide enjoyment to increasingly diverse audiences' (Art Gallery of New South Wales
2003, p. 1). To achieve the vision the AG's mission is:

- To acquire, collect and present to the public the finest works of art available, with
  special emphasis on the artistic traditions of Australia.
- To explore and inspire through our collection and exhibitions, the emotional and
  intellectual resources of our audiences.
- To create a sense of belonging and provide our visitors with an enjoyable and
  enduring experience. (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003, p. 1)

The AG is open daily except for Good Friday and Christmas Day. Admission and tours
are free but entry to special exhibits attracts a fee.

AGNSW Organization
The structure of the AG comprises five major functional divisions each of which is
managed by a member of the AG’s senior management team. Within these divisions,
activities are divided into departments which are the responsibility of the relevant department head. Senior managers all report to the Director. The major functional divisions are:

- **Curatorial Services** – This division is responsible for collection and management of Australian, Western European and Asian art and the management of a number of departments that relate to product development including registration, conservation, library, curatorial services, public programmes and photography studio/digitisation.

- **Finance and Management Services** – This division is responsible for human resources, administration and records management, copyright services and image production, finance, information technology, the Gallery shop and venue management.

- **Exhibitions and Building Services** – This division is responsible for security and Gallery services, exhibitions, art installations, building management, workshop and graphics.

- **Marketing** – This division is responsible for the publicity office, the information desk, and marketing of the museum.

- **Business Development** – This division is responsible for identifying opportunities for sponsorship of the museum. Originally situated in the division of marketing it was given its own status in 2003.

**Volunteers**
Volunteers in the museum come under Public Programs within the division of Curatorial Services. There are two distinct volunteer programs, the Volunteer Guides and the Task Force. Both programs are self-managed. At the time of data collection there were 278 volunteers across the two programs. The Gallery’s Annual Report states that the value of volunteer services to the Gallery is 1.357 million dollars (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003). The Volunteer Guides provide guided tours of the Gallery's collections and major exhibitions for the public, school children and special groups. Thirteen general tours are offered on a weekly basis. For 2003, a total of 2,907 adult tours were undertaken by the voluntary guides (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003). The tours were comprised of general adult tours, Yiribana Gallery tours and numerous tours for all the major temporary exhibitions. Another 24,604 children participated in K-
6 educational interpretive tours provided by the Children’s Guides (Art Gallery of New South Wales 2003).

A recent addition to the Gallery’s public programmes is the Community Ambassadors Programme. Specifically, it aims to expand the Gallery’s audience into non-English speaking communities, by providing introductory tours on the Gallery’s history, and key works from its various collections, in the Mandarin, Cantonese, Japanese, and Vietnamese languages. Tours are lead by volunteers specifically recruited for the task, and called Community Ambassadors.

The Volunteer Task Force is a group of Society members who provide voluntary support to both the Gallery and the Society. It provides an opportunity for Society members to become more actively involved with the Gallery. It is a multi-function support group that undertakes a variety of activities such as ticket and catalogue sales, assisting in the members’ room, mail outs, opening mail, counting votes, clerical and library assistance, and serving at a variety of day and evening functions hosted by the Gallery.

Organising Routine
The Gallery guides were established in 1972 and the task Force was established in 1982. Management of the guides and task force is not dissimilar to self-managed teams. The Gallery guides are self-managed by an unpaid coordinator and an assistant coordinator. The coordinators are in the position for one year. The position of volunteer guide coordinator is the most senior within the Gallery guides. When the coordinator vacates the position they are replaced by the assistant coordinator who in turn is supported by a new assistant coordinator. The coordinator and assistant coordinator are invited into the position by the volunteer guide committee. The guide coordinator works in conjunction with a volunteer committee. The committee is comprised of the guide co-ordinator, the immediate past co-ordinator, the assistant co-ordinator the children’s co-ordinator and assistant, the lecture programme co-ordinator and assistant, and the treasurer sectary and assistant. People are nominated onto the committee by committee members. Four of the committee members have the additional role of liaison guides. The role of the liaison
guide is to act as a mediator between the curators and the Gallery guides and they are the only guides allowed to speak to the curators. Liaison guides also gather materials that support specific exhibitions that can be used by Gallery guides.

Two volunteer guide coordinators (C1 and C2) were interviewed for the period of this study. C1 is an occupational therapist with a Master of Arts degree, and was a senior lecturer at Macquarie University retiring in 1991. C1 joined the AGNSW as a volunteer in 1995. C2 is a pharmacist and manager of a medical practice. C2 was doing art diploma classes at the Gallery for several years before becoming a volunteer guide in 1995.

The Task Force is managed by the ‘Volunteer Coordinator Task Force’, (C3), and a committee of eight members. The committee is elected each year at the Annual General Meeting. The duties of the Task Force are carried out on a roster basis. Committee members are responsible for maintaining the various duty rosters. At the time of data collection, there were also five project officers who were responsible for a number of social activities and a Task Force newsletter. To be a Task Force member, a person is required to pay an annual subscription of ten dollars.

C3 became a Task Force volunteer in 1990. C3 is a trained nurse and has worked as a nursing trainer, medical practice manager and then as an office assistant. C3 initially joined the Gallery as a Society member because they had an interest in Art. C3 subsequently joined the Task Force after seeing an advertisement for volunteers in the Look magazine.

**Recruitment and Training**

There are two separate recruitment processes. Gallery guides are recruited approximately once every four years at the beginning of the year. An advertisement is placed in the Australian newspaper and the Look Magazine (a Gallery publication for Society members). Everyone is directed to express an interest through the Public Programmes manager. Following an expression of interest, people are sent an information package that explains the guiding commitment which includes: the number
of hours they are expected to give, children and adult guide training for one year, three years of children’s guiding, and the option to take adult tours following their three years of guiding children. The explicit expectations act as a culling tool as a number of people will withdraw their interest if they feel they are unable to fulfil expected commitments. Those who are still interested are invited for an interview. Interviews are conducted by a panel that includes a representative of Public Programmes, the guide co-ordinator, and two members from the volunteer committee.

Any person who expresses an interest outside the recruitment period is asked to provide their details and is informed that they will be contacted at the next intake. Occasionally people will be interviewed outside the normal recruitment period. This is because they have previous guiding experience in other museums or overseas and have a second language.

The guides undergo a training programme of one year, studying the Gallery’s collection and learning guiding strategies. Guides are expected to do a minimum of 42 hours guiding per year and attend 75% of lectures. The lectures are aimed at educating the guides about art. Attendance is recorded in a book, which the guides sign at each lecture and is checked by the secretary treasurer. A series of workshops are also offered that can have a range of foci such as health and safety issues, care of children or presentations. In a presentation workshop guides are required to present for 5 minutes on a piece of artwork of their choice and are reviewed by a facilitator. The presentations are non-mandatory but there is a participation rate of approximately 90%.

The Task Force recruits volunteers on an ‘as need basis’ and at the time of data collection it had a waiting list of two years. The name and contact details of any person interested in volunteering for the Task Force is recorded by the Task Force New Member Officer (a voluntary position). The person is then contacted and the volunteer role is explained to them. Should the person still be interested, they are sent an application form. On return of the application form the person is placed on a waiting list. The waiting list is long because the attrition rate is very low. Task Force volunteers must commit to a minimum of 48 hours a year or 4 hours a month of voluntary work. There is no formal training for Task Force volunteers. New members are given a folder
with explicit instructions for all Task Force activities and rules of membership. For the first six months they are rostered to work with a senior Task Force member, who shows them what to do and to ‘keep an eye on them’. New recruits are on a six month probation period and provided they demonstrate satisfactory performance to the committee they will be accepted as Task Force Members.

**Facilities and Benefits**
Task Force volunteers and Gallery guides each have their own facilities with tea and coffee, milk and biscuits. Located in both areas are a roster, events calendar and a sign on book and each volunteer is allocated a pigeon hole for messages etc. The benefits of being a volunteer include attending lectures by curators, special exhibitions and seminars at reduced cost; a small reduction in the parking fee for the Domain car park; an annual general meeting and Christmas luncheon; free access to exhibitions; and a badge.
Appendix 2: Semi-structured interview questions

1) Background, age, education
2) Length of current position
3) Previous position
4) Level of contact with volunteers?
5) Recruitment of volunteers?
   - Method
   - Attributes
   - Skills
   - Age gender
   - Is the criteria stay the same or does it change over time
6) Organizational criteria being satisfied with selection criteria?
7) Methods and systems used to organize volunteers
8) Origin of organizing routines
9) How are they reviewed?
   When was the last time?
10) Difficulties encountered with organizing routines?
11) Do you manage volunteers similarly or differently to the way you would manage paid staff?
   - What do you do that is the same?
   - What do you do that is different?
   - If so how?
   - What do you like most about managing volunteers
12) Most rewarding aspect of managing volunteers?
13) Least rewarding aspect of managing volunteers?
   - Sources of dissatisfaction
   - Maybe explore role conflict/overload, etc. (esp. as vol. vs. home vs. work, time sharing)
14) Do you seek volunteer input into decision-making processes?
   - How?
15) Coordinators awareness of volunteer needs?
16) Are needs assessments performed with volunteers?
   - Program(s) development based on needs assessment
   - What other things (i.e., activities) are they doing to promote or help ____?
   - Provision of educational material and videos
   - Personal contributions
17) How are volunteers motivated?
18) Reward methods?
   - Is it necessary?
   - Training and leadership
19) Do these methods differ for paid employees?
20) How is volunteer dissatisfaction expressed?
25 January 2004

Dear Participant,

I am conducting a study to *Understand How Attractions Organise Their Volunteers*. I am particularly interested in understanding the organisational structures, internal processes and managerial decision-making. This study has a number of key benefits for managers of volunteers:

- It will enable managers of attractions to better understand their environments and how these environments affect their organisational structures, internal processes and managerial decision-making.
- It will provide attraction managers with a practical framework that will enable them to better understand and organise their volunteer contributions’ to the organisation.
- It will assist managers to develop new ideas and approaches to the organisation of their volunteers.
- It will contribute to the organisation realising the efficient and effective use of their volunteers.

The study is conducted to meet requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Commerce (Tourism) under the supervision of Associate Professor John Gray, of the School of Management, at the University of Western Sydney.

The interview seeks information from those who are engaged directly in managing volunteers. I would be grateful if you would agree to take part in this study by answering questions about organisation structure, internal processes and managerial decision-making in an interview of 30-minute duration. The interview will be conducted on an individual basis.

The interview will be taped for analysis purposes only and your anonymity will be protected by you not being identified in any raw data or in any written reports. I am personally responsible for the security of the tapes and they will be kept at a secure location at the University of Western Sydney for the duration of 5 years after the study is finished.

I would be grateful if you would agree to take part in this study by signing the attached consent statement.
Semi-Structured Interview Participation Consent Form

I (the participant) have had an opportunity to review the Information sheet, and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I will be audio taped for analysis purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I agree to participate in the semi-structured interview, knowing that I can withdraw at any time. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participants name:

…………………………………………………………………… (print)

Participants’ signature:

……………………………………………………………………Date: 25/01/03

Investigators name: Deborah Edwards

Investigators signature…………………………. Date: 25/01/03

Should you have any questions, or require clarification of any aspect regarding your involvement in the study, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone 0421343091 or email d.edwards@uws.edu.au. Alternatively, you may contact my supervisor, Associate Professor John Gray (02) 82556216.

Thank you,

Deborah Edwards

NOTE: This study has been approved by the University of Western Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officers (tel: 02 4570 1136). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.
Organisation of Volunteer Labour at Visitor Attractions
Deborah Edwards Ph.D candidate, University of Western Sydney

Dear Volunteer,

I am conducting a study to *Understand How Volunteers are Organized*. I am particularly interested in understanding the relationship between volunteer motivation, satisfaction and organisational commitment. By linking volunteer motivation with the organisational contexts in which they work, voluntary action can be organised, valued, supported and encouraged. This study will contribute to increased volunteer satisfaction and enable volunteers to better understand the role they play within the organisation. It will also enable managers to better understand the needs of volunteers and how managers can meet those needs.

The study is conducted to meet requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Commerce (Tourism) under the supervision of Associate Professor John Gray of the School of Management at the University of Western Sydney.

The Australian Museum is a participant in this research. Stage one of the study is to pilot test the volunteer questionnaire in a focus group. A 'focus group' is a group of a minimum of three (3) and a maximum of eight (8) people of the same professional sub-group (focus). The aim of the focus group is to provide meaningful comments for the refinement of the volunteer questionnaire. Therefore I am seeking 8 volunteers from various areas within the Australian Museum to participate in the focus group. The details of the focus group are as follows:

**Date:** Thursday 19 December  
**Time:** 1pm – 3pm approximately  
**Venue:** Education Volunteer Tea Room, Education Area, Level G

The group will be asked to pre-test the volunteer questionnaire and provide comments and opinions on the content of the questionnaire in a discussion format. The questionnaire seeks information about your motives for volunteering, your met expectations and your satisfaction with your volunteering experience.

The focus group will be taped for analysis purposes only and your anonymity will be protected by you not being identified in any way in either raw data or in any written reports. Your individual response will not be provided to the organisation. I am personally responsible for the security of the tapes and they will be kept at a secure location at the University of Western Sydney for the duration of 5 years after the study is finished.
If you would like to take part in this study please make your intentions known to Isobel Kindley who can be contacted at the Australian Museum between Wednesday and Friday or email isobelk@austmus.gov.au.

Should you have any questions, or require clarification of any aspect regarding your involvement in the study, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone 0421343091 or email d.edwards@uws.edu.au. Alternatively, you may contact my supervisor, Associate Professor John Gray (02) 82556216.

Thank you,

Deborah Edwards
Lecturer
University of Western Sydney
College of Law and Business
School of Management
Bldg 17.2.16
Locked Bag 1797
Penrith South DC, NSW 1797
Ph: 02 46 203518
Mob: 0421343091

NOTE: This study has been approved by the University of Western Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officers (tel: 02 4570 1136). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.
Organisation of Volunteer Labour at Visitor Attractions
Information Sheet for Focus Group
Deborah Edwards Ph.D candidate, University of Western Sydney

Focus Group Participation Consent Form

I (the participant) have had an opportunity to review the Information sheet, and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I agree to participate in the focus group, knowing that I can withdraw at any time. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participants name:

………………………………………………………………………………… (print)

Participants signature:

………………………………………………………………………………Date: 21/02/03

Investigators name: Deborah Edwards

Investigators signature…………………………….. Date: 21/02/03

NOTE: This study has been approved by the University of Western Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officers (tel: 02 4570 1136). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.
Appendix 3: Volunteer Questionnaire
UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN SYDNEY
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

Organisation of Volunteer Labour at Visitor Attractions

Volunteer Motivation, Met Expectation and Satisfaction Questionnaire
A Survey Questionnaire

Your Completion of this questionnaire is greatly appreciated
All information will be treated in strict confidence

On Completion, please return in the postage paid envelope provided

Your completion of this questionnaire will be taken to indicate your consent to participate in this study.

If you have any questions regarding this questionnaire or the study please contact:
Deborah Edwards on Ph: (02) 46 203518 Fax: (02) 46203799 Mob: 0421343091
Email: d.edwards@uws.edu.au
School of Management, College of Law and Business, University of Western Sydney.
Mail address: Bldg 17.2.16, Locked Bag 1797, Penrith South DC, NSW 1797
1. Have you volunteered at a visitor attraction before? 
   (Please tick the appropriate box) 
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

   If yes please specify which attraction/s: ____________________________

2. How long have you been a volunteer at the Australian Museum? 

3. Below is a list of possible reasons why you became a volunteer for the Australian Museum. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is strongly agree and 7 is strongly disagree, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? For each statement, please circle the number that best reflects your opinion.

I volunteered for the Australian Museum because…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>somewhat agree</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
<th>somewhat disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I have past experience providing similar services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. My skills were needed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I wanted to continue using my skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. I wanted to gain new skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I wanted to gain work related skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. I wanted to interact with others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. I wanted to make new friends</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. I wanted to feel part of the community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. I wanted to put something back into the community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Most people in my community volunteer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. I am a scientist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>l.</td>
<td>A family member is a scientist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.</td>
<td>A relative or friend is involved in the Australian Museum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n.</td>
<td>I was asked by a family member who was/is a volunteer at the Australian Museum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o.</td>
<td>I was asked by a friend who was/is a volunteer at the Australian Museum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Continued…

I volunteered for the Australian Museum because…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>somewhat agree</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
<th>somewhat disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p.</td>
<td>I have an interest in natural history</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q.</td>
<td>I wanted an opportunity to meet scientists.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r.</td>
<td>I have an interest in the activities of the Australian Museum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s.</td>
<td>I wanted to help make the Australian Museum a success</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t.</td>
<td>It was a chance of a lifetime</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u.</td>
<td>Being a volunteer at the Australian Museum is considered prestigious</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.</td>
<td>Volunteering would make me feel better about myself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w.</td>
<td>I wanted to do something worthwhile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x.</td>
<td>I wanted to vary my regular activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y.</td>
<td>I wanted to broaden my horizons</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z.</td>
<td>If I did not volunteer, there would be no one to carry out this volunteer work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aa.</td>
<td>I had more free time than I used to have.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bb.</td>
<td>I did not have anything else to do with my time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cc.</td>
<td>Other please specify:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If you answered agree or strongly agree to motivation (t), please state why.

__________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________
The following section is designed to obtain information specifically about the volunteer work that you do with the Australian Museum.

4. What areas have you participated in at the Australian Museum? (Please circle the appropriate activity, you may circle more than one)

a. Front of house  e. Collection Management
b. Guide  f. Managerial
c. Research  g. Administrative
d. Conservation

j. Other please specify: __________________________________________

5. Please state your current 'main' volunteer task/s at the Australian Museum.

________________________________________

6. Please circle the number that indicates the average amount of time you spend each week carrying out your task/s for the Australian Museum.

Average volunteer hours spent performing task/s
1 to 5  6 to 10  11 to 15  16 to 20  21 to 25
1 2 3 4 5

7. Please circle the number that indicates the average amount of time you spend each week preparing for your task/s.

Average hours spent preparing for tasks
1 to 3  4 to 6  7 to 9  10 to 12  13 or more
1 2 3 4 5

If you would like to comment please use the space below:

________________________________________
8. Organizations rarely are able to meet all specific expectations because situations can change and sometimes misunderstandings can occur. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is *strongly agree* and 7 is *strongly disagree*, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(For each statement please circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree somewhat</th>
<th>not applicable</th>
<th>somewhat disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. The Australian Museum has <em>not</em> fulfilled all my expectations about helping me gain work-related skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about being able to use my skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. The Australian Museum has <em>not</em> fulfilled all my expectations about being able to make new friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about being able to put something back into the community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I have received everything I expected here regarding things that help me deal with work related problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. The Australian Museum has <em>not</em> fulfilled all my expectations about letting me serve our clients.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about working with a prestigious organisation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. The Australian Museum has <em>not</em> fulfilled all my expectations about meeting scientists.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about working with others who share an interest in volunteering</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
j. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about making me feel better about myself

k. The Australian Museum has not fulfilled all my expectations about feeling apart of the community

l. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about being able to make the Australian Museum a success.

m. The Australian Museum has fulfilled all my expectations about being able to do something worthwhile

If you would like to comment please use the space below:

9. **People hold different values in relation to their work environment.** Please answer the next 14 questions that focus on specific types of values that you may have. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is *strongly agree* and 7 is *strongly disagree*, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(For each statement please circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I chose to work in this organisation because I think our values are very similar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I am proud that I work in this organization</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I consider that the work I do for this organisation is important</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. The goals of the organisation are <em>not</em> important to me</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Getting the job done is important to me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Doing my job as instructed by my supervisor is important to me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
g. I take pride in the work that I do for this organisation

h. It is not important to me that I have a job description

i. It is important to me that I have a work plan

j. It is not important to me that I be involved in decision making processes within my area of volunteering

k. It is important to me that I can work independently

l. It is important to me that I am allowed to use my initiative

m. It is not important to me that I receive regular training

n. It is important to me that I am recognised by the Australian Museum for my efforts

If you wish to comment please use the space below:

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________
The following section is designed to obtain information specifically about how satisfied or dissatisfied you are with specific aspects of your volunteer experience with the Australian Museum: On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is very satisfied and 7 is very dissatisfied, please circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion

10. In terms of your volunteering role at the Australian Museum, how satisfied are you with the following...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very satisfied</th>
<th>satisfied</th>
<th>somewhat satisfied</th>
<th>neither satisfied nor dissatisfied</th>
<th>somewhat dissatisfied</th>
<th>dissatisfied</th>
<th>very dissatisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. prior information you receive to do your job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. information you receive while doing your job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. support you receive to do your job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. information you receive regarding daily activities/operation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. direction you receive from your supervisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. recognition you receive from the Australian Museum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you would like to comment on any of the above answers please use the space below

__________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________

11. In terms of your overall experience volunteering with the Australian Museum, what is your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction? (Please circle the number that most reflects your opinion)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>very satisfied</th>
<th>satisfied</th>
<th>somewhat satisfied</th>
<th>neither satisfied nor dissatisfied</th>
<th>Somewhat dissatisfied</th>
<th>dissatisfied</th>
<th>very dissatisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you would like to comment please use the space below.

__________________________________________________________________________________________

protocol No. HEC 02/76 222
12. If you are dissatisfied with your volunteering experience how do you express this dissatisfaction? (Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion. You may circle more than one.)

a. absenteeism  
   b. being inflexible  

c. decline in work performance  
   d. ignoring directives  

e. complaints to supervisor  

f. other please specify:  

__________________________________________________________________________  

__________________________________________________________________________
13. Overall, how satisfied/dissatisfied are you with the organisation of volunteers at the Australian Museum? (Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your opinion or check the not applicable box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>very satisfied</th>
<th>satisfied</th>
<th>somewhat satisfied</th>
<th>neither satisfied or dissatisfied</th>
<th>somewhat dissatisfied</th>
<th>dissatisfied</th>
<th>very dissatisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you are dissatisfied, please state why.

__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

14. Based on your experience do you intend to continue to volunteer at the Australian Museum? (Please tick the box that most accurately reflects your opinion)

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If you would like to comment please use the space below

__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________________________________

To group your responses together with people similar to you, this next section asks for some background information about you. Again, all information will be kept strictly confidential, and all replies will be added together so that no person can be identified.

15. Are you: Male [ ] Female [ ]

16. In what age category are you? (Please circle the appropriate box)

Under 24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65-74 75+
17. Are you currently: (please circle the appropriate category)
   a. single/never married  
   b. living together/married 
   c. divorced/separated/widowed
18. Do you have children? (please circle the appropriate category)
   a. I have no children
   b. 1 child
   c. 2 children
   d. 3 children
   e. 4 or more children

19. What is your 'primary' employment/occupation? (please circle the appropriate category)
   a. home-maker
   b. student
   c. paid employment (specify occupation) ________________________________
   d. self-employed (specify occupation) ________________________________
   e. unemployed
   f. retired (please state previous employment) ________________________________
   g. other (specify) _______________________________________________________

20. What is the highest level of education you have attained? (please circle the appropriate category)
   a. primary school
   b. year 10
   c. year 12 or high school certificate
   d. TAFE
   e. college graduate- certificate/diploma
   f. university graduate
   g. trade qualification
   h. post-graduate degree
   other please specify: ________________________________
Thank you for completing this survey. Your time and effort are very much appreciated. Your comments will assist me to understand how volunteers feel about their volunteer activity and the relationship between organising routines and volunteer satisfaction. On completion please return in the postage paid envelope provided.

NOTE: This study has been approved by the University of Western Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officers (tel: 02 4570 1136). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.
April 2003

Organisation of Volunteer Labour at Visitor Attractions
Information Sheet for Volunteer Questionnaire
Deborah Edwards Ph.D candidate, University of Western Sydney

Dear Volunteer,

The Australian Museum is forwarding this letter on my behalf. I am conducting a study to *Understand How Attractions Organise Their Volunteers*. I am particularly interested in understanding the relationship between volunteer motivation, satisfaction and organisational commitment. By linking volunteer motivation with the organisational contexts in which they work, voluntary action can be organised, valued, supported and encouraged. This study will contribute to increased volunteer satisfaction and enable volunteers to better understand the role they play within the organisation. It will also enable managers to better understand the needs of volunteers and how managers can meet those needs. The questionnaire seeks information about your motives for volunteering, your met expectations and your satisfaction with your volunteering experience.

The study is conducted to meet requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy under the supervision of Associate Professor John Gray of the School of Management at the University of Western Sydney.

I would be grateful if you would agree to take part in this study by answering all questions and by returning the completed questionnaire in the stamped return envelope provided. Your participation is entirely voluntary and your anonymity will be protected by you not being identified in any way on any raw data or in any written report. Return of the questionnaire will be regarded as consent to use the information for research purposes. I am personally responsible for your responses and they will be kept at a secure location at the University of Western Sydney for the duration of 5 years after the study is finished.

Should you have any questions, or require clarification of any aspect regarding your involvement in the study, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone 0421343091 or email d.edwards@uws.edu.au. Alternatively, you may contact my supervisor, Associate Professor John Gray (02) 82556216.

Thank you in anticipation,

Deborah Edwards

NOTE: This study has been approved by the University of Western Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officers (tel: 02 4570 1136). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Protocol No. HEC 02/76
Appendix 4: Correlations for Motivation Items (N = 343)
Appendix 5: Glossary

Museum or art museum - ‘a non-profit making, permanent institution in the service of society and of its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits, for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of people and their environment’ (International Council of Museums 2004, p. 1).

Organizational field - 'the notion of field connotes the existence of a community of organizations that partakes of a common meaning system and whose participants interact more frequently and fatefully with one another than with actors outside the field' (Scott 1995, pp. 207-208).

Organizational structure – ‘the sum total of the ways in which it [the organization] divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination among them (Mintzberg 1979, p. 2).

Organizational Templates – taken for granted beliefs and widely promulgated rules that exist within organizational environments (DiMagio and Powell 1991).

Rationalization – ‘the structuring of everyday life within standardized impersonal rules that constitute social organization as a means to collective purpose’ (Meyer, Boli and Thomas 1994, p. 20).

Serious leisure volunteering - ‘the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity sufficiently substantial and interesting in nature for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of a combination of its special skills, knowledge, and experience' (Stebbins 1996, p. 215).

Standard Industrial Classification Codes - The objective of these codes is to identify groupings of businesses, which carry out similar economic activities. Subject to certain
criteria being met, each such grouping defines an industry and the similar economic activities, which characterise the businesses concerned, are referred to as activities primary to that industry. When the classification is completed, any individual business can then be assigned an appropriate industry category on the basis of its predominant activities. (ABS 2001, Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification)

Visitor attractions - 'designated permanent resources, that are controlled and managed for their own sake and for the enjoyment, amusement, entertainment and education of the visiting public' (Middleton and Clarke 2001, p. 266).

Volunteering - ‘an activity that takes place in not-for-profit organizations or projects and is of benefit to the community and undertaken of the volunteer’s own free will, without coercion; for no financial payment; and in designated volunteers positions only’ (Volunteering Australia 2001, p. 4).
## Correlations Spearman's rho

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PastExp</th>
<th>SkillsNd</th>
<th>UseSkills</th>
<th>NewSkills</th>
<th>WkSkills</th>
<th>Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PastExp</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation Coefficient</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sig. (2-tailed)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SkillsNd</strong></td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation Coefficient</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sig. (2-tailed)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>UseSkills</strong></td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation Coefficient</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sig. (2-tailed)</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NewSkills</strong></td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation Coefficient</strong></td>
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