

Gloves On! A Study of Supervisor Support for Collections Volunteers

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A thesis

submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

University of Washington

2019

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Program Authorized to Offer Degree:

Museology

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Abstract

GLOVES ON! A STUDY OF SUPERVISOR SUPPORT FOR COLLECTIONS

VOLUNTEERS

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Museology Graduate Program

A recent survey of Seattle area heritage organizations found that one of their most pressing issues was a lack of volunteers with collections care experience. At the same time, these heritage organizations reported that professional development was not a priority. The purpose of this research study was to understand the nature of support for collections volunteers in Seattle area heritage organizations. Designed as a descriptive survey of local heritage organizations, data were collected through an online questionnaire completed by 41 collections managers who supervise volunteers and interns. Overall, this study found that collections supervisors supported volunteers through hands-on supervision, but they did not provide volunteers with much autonomy or include volunteers in staff meetings. Organizations supported volunteers through annual recognition events and onboarding orientations, but did not seem to offer written job descriptions for volunteers. This work is significant to collections managers and volunteer coordinators, as the results suggest a number of ways to improve engagement and retention of museum collections volunteers.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In 2016, the cultural funding agency 4Culture, based in Seattle, WA, undertook a comprehensive study to gather information on the needs, opportunities, and current operations of historical societies, museums, and heritage organizations in the King County area (4Culture, 2016, p. 4). The number one challenge for collections in these heritage organizations was a “lack of staff/volunteers with collections care experience and expertise” (4Culture, 2016, p. 5).

Although the 4Culture study revealed volunteer recruitment and retention to be among the most pressing issues, it also showed that professional development for staff and volunteers was not seen as a priority (4Culture, 2016). Research has shown that networking and professional development opportunities are positively correlated with higher motivation and engagement for younger volunteers (Clary, et al., 1998; Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017; Roulin & Bangerter, 2011; White, 2016). Managerial style and social relationships also have significant impacts on volunteer role identification and retention (MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009; White, 2016). Given the available data, there is a clear need for understanding the role of heritage organizations in not only recruiting skilled volunteers, but also in retaining those volunteers through training and preparation for collections work. If volunteer support and professional development is not prioritized in museums, volunteers will move on to other institutions.

There has been considerable research done on professional development for paid workers. When paired with a clear management strategy, training and group-based incentives at for-profit companies have positive impacts on worker performance, engagement, and retention (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000). Who gets trained, however, varies depending on the strategic importance of certain workers. At schools, for example, there is more investment in training for

teachers than principals (Grissom & Harrington, 2010). In almost all organizations, lower level workers rely on supervisors or each other to gain skills, form relationships, and advance their careers (Hill & Lewis, 2017; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015; Montgomery, 2017). Specialized skills training may be provided by a company as supervised on-the-job training, but today it is more often sought directly by workers as a way to address a skills gap via ‘last mile’ workshops and online courses, or to establish a networking connection via mentorship or other means (Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016; Stokes, 2015; Waghel, Wilson, Battise, & Frye, 2017).

Supervisor relationships with hired workers are also an important factor in professional development, since positive relationships correlate with higher skill development, less stress, and better sense of place and role identification, all of which are indicative of a strong short-term skills gains and longer term professional commitment (Hoy, 2011; Montgomery, 2017). Supervisor relationships may be formal and structured or informal and spontaneous, though both seem to show results as a tool for training and retention (Hoy, 2011; Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Montgomery, 2017). There are even supervised training and mentorship programs designed specifically for emerging museum professionals that serve as a bridge between school and the workforce (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). Overall, it is clear that there is a wide variety of training, relationships, and other support structures which benefit paid staff and contribute to higher productivity, engagement, and retention.

However, volunteers are sometimes left out of the equation when museums evaluate their professional development programs, even though volunteers typically constitute a large portion of an institution’s work force (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; VanDerziel,

2017). Indeed, this is a sociological issue for volunteering in general: since volunteers give their time away freely, it is often considered 'leisure' as opposed to 'work' and therefore overlooked as a key strategic component that is worthy of investment (Jones, 2012; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017). For volunteers, individual motivations are much more significant considerations for designing recruitment and retention efforts, since pay cannot be considered as a factor (White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). Satisfaction with a position is important for short term retention, while role identification and commitment to an organization are more predictive of long-term retention (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007). Volunteer motivations and fit are a key component of satisfaction and role identification, and motivations vary as a result of geographical area, age, professional status, and myriad other demographic, social, economic, and psychological factors (Ihm, 2017; Piatak, 2016; White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013).

For all the research done on volunteer motivations and management strategies, there is little empirical study showing what link if any exists between supervisor actions and retention of museum volunteers. There are professional guidelines that say museums should commit resources to volunteer management, that a supervisor should help the volunteer continue to learn and improve performance, and that evaluation of both volunteers and supervisors should regularly occur (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012). However, does this actually occur in museums? What are supervisors doing to support their volunteers? Previous research on museum volunteer programs in Seattle indicates that, much like in for-profit companies, supervisor relationships do in fact occur, that initial orientation training is provided, and that both relationships and training do seem to benefit volunteer skills development and confidence (Ohlandt, 2013). However, the evidence collected in this research was anecdotal and limited to public-facing volunteers (Ohlandt, 2013). There remains a significant gap in the

literature on motivations and retention for non-public facing volunteers, and in particular how collections managers themselves leverage their own specialized training and organizational resources as tools for collections volunteer engagement.

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of support for collections volunteers in King County's heritage organizations. For the purposes of this study, "volunteer" was defined as a worker who is unpaid and who is not classified under the Fair Labor Standards Act as an intern. Unpaid interns at nonprofit organizations are legally considered volunteers if there are no expectations of compensation, and so they were considered volunteers for this study (U.S. Department of Labor Wage and Hour Division, 2018). "Supervisor support" was defined as any kind of professional support that a supervisor provides to a volunteer, and may include hands-on skills training, mentorship, or professional networking. The two research questions that framed this study are:

- What kinds of support do supervisors provide to collections volunteers at heritage organizations?
- What kinds of support do heritage organizations provide to collections volunteers?

This research is beneficial to museum collections managers who employ volunteers. In addition to preserving objects and providing access to the collections, volunteer management is a key responsibility for museum collections managers. By recognizing the particular kinds of resources and demands present at a given institution, collections managers can alter both the responsibilities of volunteers and their own approach to training and mentorship to increase engagement and retention of their volunteer corps. In cases where a lack of organizational resources causes volunteer stress, collections managers might use this research to better advocate for an increase in funds or staff.

This research may also benefit those museums that identify “volunteer recruitment and retention” and “lack of skilled staff/volunteers for collections work” as major issues for their institution (4Culture 2016). Given that professional relationships typically correlate with higher levels of engagement, job satisfaction, and skill retention, this research could be used as a basis for additional internal evaluations of an organization’s training and relationship-building strategy, thereby reducing the impact of problems identified in the 4Culture study (Hoy, 2011). In so doing, this research may also help smaller museums increase efforts to evaluate their volunteers more often and better adhere to the best practice guidelines established by the American Association of Museum Volunteers (2012).

Volunteers may also benefit from this research. For those interested in gaining professional skills, skill retention and networking are vital to the experience. Learning how collections managers think about professional relationships will help them “manage expectations” and design a volunteer experience that will fit their needs, as well as the needs of the museum (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Melczer & Brody, 2017; Merritt, *The Museum Sacrifice Measure*, 2016). For older volunteers, recognizing the particular responsibilities and resources at a given museum will help them navigate community building and socialization, which are two of the most significant factors affecting retention of this group (Keaveny, 2016; Landry, 2017; Ulsperger, Mcelroy, Robertson, & Ulsperger, 2015).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

There are three main bodies of literature relevant to the supervision and support of museum collections volunteers. The first consists of research and theory related to engagement and professional development for paid workers. The second is related to volunteerism, and includes studies on recruitment, engagement, retention, and motivation. The third and final body of literature is related to theoretical models on volunteerism, worker engagement, stress, and retention.

Engagement and Professional Development for Paid Workers

There has been considerable study of engagement for workers of all kinds and in many different sectors. While there is no explicitly agreed upon definition of “engagement” for paid workers, it is clear that the concept involves a focused cognitive or emotional effort, a “positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind,” and “full deployment of themselves into their work roles or tasks” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). It is also widely agreed that engagement has among its many outcomes higher worker productivity and performance, as well as “sustainability and growth of the organization” as a whole (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014).

Overall, the literature shows that worker engagement is influenced by individual circumstances which a company cannot easily change, such as a person’s family situation or health, as well as by circumstances related to a workplace or job which a company has more control over, such as company culture, workload, autonomy, and social support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010). It would be impractical to list all of the factors which have an impact on paid worker engagement. However, several of the most common factors which companies have influence over have important implications for

understanding volunteer management. Companies have influence over motivational incentives (e.g. pay and benefits), skills development (e.g. training), and certain social aspects (e.g. workplace culture and leadership) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010). Many forms of “professional development,” such as mentorship and supervisor support, have been shown to have both skill development and social components (Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Hill & Lewis, 2017; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015; Montgomery, 2017). All of these components enhance performance and contribute to the kind of sustained engagement that leads to higher retention (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Hill & Lewis, 2017).

The Influence of Leadership and Company Culture

Leadership’s influence on worker engagement has a large social component, but it touches on all three of the above mentioned aspects. While there is no one “most effective” form of leadership, it has been shown that more supportive leadership styles often result in greater productivity and higher retention rates when paired with skills training and “group incentive compensation” like profit sharing or stock options (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Drucker, 1998).

Leaders who directly support and coach their employees on necessary skills and techniques increase engagement more than those who are more hands-off (Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Leaders who are seen as “trustworthy and ethical” by their team members have a more productive team overall, in large part because this perception is conducive to more open communication and a positive working relationship (Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014). Indeed, “positive supervisor relationships” positively correlate with higher skill development, less stress, and a better sense of place and role identification, all of which are indicative of strong

short-term skills gains and longer term professional commitment (Hoy, 2011; Montgomery, 2017).

For emerging museum collections professionals in Canberra, Australia, it was found that “positive [supervisor] relationships engendered a perception of respect, trust, support and encouragement” while “difficult relationships were characterized by perceptions of both being ignored and not being trusted to make professional judgments, or not sharing information” (Hoy, 2011). Importantly, those who had negative experiences with a particular supervisor (e.g. not receiving support or not being connected to other parts of the organization) were more likely to seek out other sources of support or even a different position (Hoy, 2011).

In organizations with a flatter hierarchy, the impacts of leadership may be more complex, with workers often learning more from a collective group of peers than the leader him or herself (Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015). In these cases, it is recommended that leaders encourage group socialization and limit their own influence to increase worker engagement (Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015). Regardless of the organizational structure, the research indicates that workers are more engaged if they are broadly involved with the organization (Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016). For example, “informal leaders” who “demonstrate capacity to engage in not just their tasks but in the broader events of the whole [organization]” have been shown to lead groups that process information more quickly and have a more resilient, stable social structure (Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016).

Organizational culture also influences engagement, and in particular the type of sustained engagement that supports worker retention. Of particular interest to museums is the increasing attention given to diversity in museum leadership, specifically with regards to inclusion and

equity as part of workplace culture (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Ivy, 2016). For organizations like the Field Museum, a more inclusive workplace culture was theorized to have an impact on recruitment and retention of a diverse workforce (VanDerziel, Workplace Culture- Let's Talk About It!, 2017). The Field Museum's assessment revealed that a more diverse workforce might improve certain "traditional" aspects of their workplace culture that potentially blocked performance, such as how leadership adapted to change, siloing of work, and conflict management strategies (VanDerziel, Workplace Culture- Face the Facts!, 2017).

Other studies have found empirical relationships between workplace culture and retention by focusing on worker stress and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010). For white collar women in Sweden, for example, it was found that a combination of lack of women in managing roles, lack of mentorship and coaching from male colleagues, skill mismatch, and mismatch of role identification all contributed to burnout and an extended sick leave (Sandmark & Renstig, 2010). Both organizational and personal factors contribute to stress and low retention, but the ones most associated with leadership and company culture are high workload, lack of supervisor support, and role ambiguity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Similar findings about these three factors have been made with volunteers, who have even less incentive to remain in a position because they are not paid (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017).

Professional Development: Skills Training and Social Relationships

To gain the skills and relationships necessary for higher engagement and retention, workers typically need some form of professional development. While there is no consistently applied definition for "professional development" in the literature, it is clear that there is a skills development component, usually in the form of training, as well as a social component, usually

in the form of professional networking (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Carnevale & Smith, 2018; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014; Montgomery, 2017). Workers benefit more from a combination of professional development opportunities, rather than any single one (Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Hill & Lewis, 2017). For example, school principals with over 5 years' tenure may use mentorships, university courses, and professional networks to improve skills and performance, and are more engaged when a combination of the three is used (Grissom & Harrington, 2010). Similarly, entry-level nurses who were encouraged by a senior mentor to attend conferences, publish papers, or pursue additional certification to improve skills and build a professional network expressed increased engagement while on the job (Hill & Lewis, 2017). Given that the skills and relationships provided by professional development is vital to engagement, the question then turns to which particular training strategies are most effective and whether their cost is justified.

Training is defined as “the development and delivery of information that people will use after attending the training” and may be used to impart the “knowledge, abilities, skills, or attitudes (KASAs)” that influence working behavior (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). A training method, then, is “a set of systematic procedures, activities, or techniques that are designed to impart KASAs to the participants that have direct utility in enhancing their job performance” (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014, p. 12). Each method may use different training aids or programs, such as the printed workbooks and online career building resources provided by the AAM Committee on Museum Professional Training (American Alliance of Museums, 2019; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). Martin, Kolomitro, and Lam (2014) identify thirteen types of training in their review of professional development literature: case study, games-based training, internship, job rotation, job shadowing, lecture, mentoring and apprenticeship,

programmed instruction, role-modeling, role play, simulation, stimulus-based training, and team-training. There are many cases where multiple methods are used concurrently, and several of these warrant further explanation.

Mentorship, Apprenticeship, and Job Shadowing

Mentorship has been found to be one of the most effective forms of professional development. These one-to-one relationships between a novice and senior worker help support workers through a professional network, provide skills that are transferrable to many jobs and tasks, and ensure high quality results by clarifying expectations and providing hands-on training for specialized skills (Hill & Lewis, 2017; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014; Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016; Waghel, Wilson, Battise, & Frye, 2017). Mentorships are typically individualized and ensure that the provided training supports a worker's professional goals and interests (Montgomery, 2017; Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016). It also benefits the mentor by providing opportunities for self-reflection and relationship building with other workers (Montgomery, 2017; Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016). The costs of mentorship may be high, however, since individualized learning requires scheduling flexibility and multiple "nodes" for development resources, such as available time, personnel, and training programs (Montgomery, 2017; Waghel, Wilson, Battise, & Frye, 2017).

There are also other professional development strategies similar to mentorships that vary in terms of training quality, relationships, and required resources. Apprenticeships, for example, also use one-on-one relationships, but focus more on hands-on skills training (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). Apprenticeships are often seen by educators as "vocational, not educational" because they are often paid and often associated with blue-collar jobs (Stokes, 2015, p. 28). Employers may see apprenticeships as undesirable because of association with blue-collar jobs

or a higher perceived risk of union membership and turnover once training is complete (Stokes, 2015, p. 28). Job shadowing, on the other hand, involves less coaching from an experienced professional, and is focused more on observational learning than hands-on activity (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). Given the lack of sustained social connection involved with shadowing, it is unclear whether it is more effective than mentorship or apprenticeship in terms of improving engagement (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014).

Classroom-Based Learning

Classroom-based learning may involve a combination of lecture, case study, role play, and other training methods (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). This is the most prevalent and widely researched form of professional development for paid workers because it is fundamental to the job market and broader economy (Bowers, 2016; Carnevale & Smith, 2018; Stokes, 2015). Classroom-based learning is usually used to gain a credential in a particular field, such as math or computer programming for STEM jobs (Bowers, 2016; Stokes, 2015). A baccalaureate degree from a university is typically sufficient to prove these kinds of skills to an employer, though it requires significant commitment of time and money to complete (Carnevale & Smith, 2018; Stokes, 2015). For those who already have jobs, a family, or other obligations, a long-term degree program may not be feasible (Carnevale & Smith, 2018). Some community colleges, such as South Seattle College, have begun to offer more equitable, flexible course options and stackable certificates to allow a student to build up their skills and credentials as they work (Bowers, 2016).

The effectiveness of university courses may also depend on the job a person already has. For school principals and administrators, for example, university classes were found to be much less effective at improving performance than formal mentorships, participation in a professional

network, and attending training workshops (Grissom & Harrington, 2010). This was likely due to the fact that the participants had to be away from their workplace for extended periods to complete coursework and meet with instructors, thereby limiting the extent of professional relationships with teachers and other staff at their respective schools (Grissom & Harrington, 2010).

Some schools have realized that relationship building needs to be integrated into a skills-based curriculum, and so have included mentorship, internships, and other forms of network-enhancing “workplace learning” into their curricula (Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016). Private organizations, like the Seattle-based Koru, partner with local companies like REI or Microsoft to provide similar hands-on internship experience to improve the marketable skills and professional networks of liberal arts students (Stokes, 2015, p. 56).

Extracurricular activities also play an important relationship role outside of the classroom. High school and college students in particular make use of a variety of extracurricular activities, unpaid internships, and volunteering to make friends, gain skills, improve their resume, or develop a professional network (Roulin & Bangerter, 2011). In one study of French-speaking students at Swiss universities, 94% of sampled men and women indicated participation in extracurricular activities like sports, arts, or associative and community activities (Roulin & Bangerter, 2011). Though only 25% of the sample indicated their participation as career-related, over 80% included the experience on their resume (Roulin & Bangerter, 2011). When looking at only students who participated in associations, the number of participants citing work-related benefits of extracurricular activities, like skill-building and networking, jumped to over 50% (Roulin & Bangerter, 2011).

Leadership and Professional Development in Museums

In the museum sector, there are professional development resources provided by organizations like the American Association of Museums, the American Institute of Conservation, and the American Association of Museum Volunteers. These organizations provide general guidelines for training and program development, reading lists, updated wikis and research articles on specialized subjects, and annual conferences and workshops for members (American Alliance of Museums, 2019; American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; American Institute of Conservation, 2019; Leitch, et al., 2016).

There are also a number of opportunities available to emerging professionals in the sector, and in particular for those interested in collections or archives work. These opportunities involve both leadership and professional development and often take the form of intensive internships open to university students and emerging professionals (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). Collections internship programs at both the University of Cambridge Museums and the Smithsonian Institution, for example, were offered to graduate-level students specializing in research or collections work (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). Other internship programs, such as the one organized by Museum Galleries Scotland (MGS), are intentionally designed to reduce barriers for work in museum collections, thereby making the positions more attainable for younger workers (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016). As opposed to the six to ten participants in the Cambridge and Smithsonian programs, the MGS program hosted over 40 interns at a broad range of organizations over the entirety of Scotland (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015).

The leadership strategies of supervisors in each program differed significantly, but all contributed to intern engagement. Interns in the MGS program indicated that the quality of supervisor relationship, the degree of structure and preparation, and the amount of shadowing and informal training received from museum staff besides their supervisor all increased engagement (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016). This is consistent with other research that lists supervisor support, role clarity, and broader relationships across an organization as key components of worker engagement (Hill & Lewis, 2017; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015; Serrano & Reichard, 2011).

At the Smithsonian, curators who saw themselves as mentors, rather than supervisors, in intern relationships adopted a teaching style which encouraged students to develop and ask questions, and provided regular meeting opportunities (Salazar-Porzio, 2015, pp. 286-287). In addition, the curators who were found to be the most engaging were intrinsically motivated to participate because they were not explicitly rewarded for participation or performance (Salazar-Porzio, 2015). The research mentors, on the other hand, were extrinsically motivated and afflicted by time constraints which may have impacted their ability to engage interns (Salazar-Porzio, 2015). The success and partial failures of leaders in this case depended more on available time and the ability to adapt a leadership style to the needs and interests of students; both of these have also been found to enhance worker engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Drucker, 1998).

In the Cambridge program referenced above, leaders played a very minor role and allowed interns to support each other in small work groups (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013). Both autonomy and coworker support have been shown to increase engagement when leaders take a more hands-off approach (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Marion, Christiansen, Klar,

Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015). The variety of leadership approaches in these three internship examples demonstrates that, as is the case in corporate workplaces, effective leadership for museum interns is context-dependent but is nonetheless vital to engagement (Drucker, 1998).

A major feature of museum collections internships are the professional relationships forged between museum staff and interns, as well as relationships formed across departments. The MGS program provided a supervisor from the host organization for day-to-day support, as well as an external mentor to help the intern translate their experience into a “meaningful career qualification” (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016). Students in the Smithsonian Museum program worked closely with both a professor and museum professional as mentors, forming an “ecology of learning” in which each group collaborated with the others and established working connections across departments and institutions (Salazar-Porzio, 2015). At the University of Cambridge, interns relied less on mentorships and more on six “hands-on sessions” from museum professional to learn basic skills like object handling, label writing, and education program design (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013, p. 18). Team-based meetings further enhanced engagement for these interns, while the ability to connect with professionals across departments enhanced interns’ professional networks and level of engagement (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013, p. 19). In both the Smithsonian and Cambridge programs, the formation of cross-departmental relationships were also seen as an important outcome (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015).

A structured training plan and hands-on work also feature heavily into engagement for museum collections interns. All three of the above mentioned programs involved the completion of some kind of research project, journal, or presentation, thereby establishing a clear end goal

for all participants (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). The MGS interns listed the overall greatest strengths of the program to be the combination of on-the-job learning and additional training provided by instructors, the structured plan and written assessments required by the program, and the linking of the structure to a particular professional qualification (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016). MGS interns also indicated that “a wide range of learning opportunities,” “access to additional formal training,” and “flexibility in learning plans to adapt to emerging needs and developing interests” increased engagement (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016). Interns at the Smithsonian program listed hands-on work with museum professionals as one of the most engaging parts of their experience, and the student interest-driven structure was found successful (Salazar-Porzio, 2015). The Cambridge interns also enjoyed their hands-on workshops with museum professionals, and many sought out additional training from the museum to aid in their own research (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013). Much like a flexible leadership style, structured training plans that allow flexibility for student interests seem to resonate well and increase engagement.

Volunteerism vs. Paid Work

Volunteers are distinctly different from paid workers, even though they may perform many of the same duties (Keaveny, 2016; Lien, 2017; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009). This tension between work and leisure affects volunteers at a number of levels, including socialization amongst other workers, autonomy and ownership of a role, expectations for performance, and the quality of relationships with supervisors and the organization as a whole (McNamee & Peterson, 2014).

Defining Volunteers and Interns

The American Association of Museum Volunteers defines “volunteer” as an individual “who works in a variety of tasks at a museum for no payment of money” (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012). This definition includes workers like interns and docents, but does not include unpaid trustees and board members (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012). At for-profit organizations, there are legal considerations for defining an intern as either a “volunteer” or an “employee” based on who the primary beneficiary of the intern’s labor is (U.S. Department of Labor Wage and Hour Division, 2018). As of January 1, 2018 the law states that a totality of seven factors, including the intern’s enrollment in an academic program and the extent to which the work “complements, rather than displaces, the work of paid employees,” may be used to assess whether an intern is an employee entitled to monetary compensation (U.S. Department of Labor Wage and Hour Division, 2018). However, the Department of Labor also recognizes individuals who “volunteer their time, freely and without anticipation of compensation, for religious, charitable, civic, or humanitarian purposes to non-profit organizations” and states that unpaid internships at nonprofits are usually permissible “where the intern volunteers without expectation of compensation” (U.S. Department of Labor Wage and Hour Division, 2018). Based on both professional guidelines and the law, then, unpaid museum interns should be considered volunteers, while paid interns should be considered employees.

There are a number of important similarities between paid staff and volunteers, both in terms of duties and management strategies. Firstly, volunteers are unquestionably workers (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017). The professional guidelines established by the American Association of Museum Volunteers state

that while “some jobs done exclusively by volunteers in one museum may be done only by paid staff in another,” no volunteer position should replace paid workers “as a cost-cutting measure” (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012). Even so, volunteers do act in a number of roles at museums, often providing key services at their institutions. For many small museums, such as the Hettinger County Historical Society, Dakota Buttes Museum, and Mott Gallery of History and Art in rural North Dakota, volunteers take on roles typically performed by paid staff, such as accessioning and deaccessioning collections objects and creating interpretation for exhibits (Lien, 2017).

The skills, background, and training required for both paid worker and volunteer duties also varies considerably. At Lien’s small North Dakota museums, volunteers had no formal background in museum practice and no established procedures for deaccessioning collections objects (Lien, 2017). In similar cases for both paid and unpaid workers, research has found that a lack of qualification or skills training negatively impacts performance in terms of the organization’s goals, even if the incentive for high performance is present (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Lynch & Smith, 2009; White, 2016). On the other hand, more varied types of training and a better matching of skills correlates with better performance and higher engagement for both paid workers and volunteers (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014; Park, Fortune, Claiborne, & Gallant, 2011). At institutions like the Rijksmuseum, Van Gogh Museum, and Stedelijk Museum in the Netherlands, volunteer docents are expected to be trained in specialized knowledge and communication skills, and are most engaged when they express competencies in flexibility, handling groups within the museum, and various styles of pedagogy for different visitors (Schep, Van Boxtel, & Noordegraaf, 2018).

One final parallel between paid workers and volunteers is that positive relationships with a supervisor correlate with higher motivation and engagement. As with paid workers, management of volunteers is more successful when the manager understands worker motivations (Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; White, 2016). Leaders who directly support and coach their employees, as well as volunteers, both reduce stress and increase engagement (Bowers, 2016; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Positive social and professional relationships with supervisors also correlate with higher engagement and performance (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Hill & Lewis, 2017; McNamee & Peterson, 2014). The vast majority of research into leadership and management suggests there is no single strategy that is “correct” for managing either paid staff or volunteers (Drucker, 1998; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009; White, 2016). Effective management should be context driven, and must balance the needs of the organization with the needs and motivations of workers.

Recruitment, Engagement, and Retention of Unpaid Workers

Volunteers are a special class of worker because they are not paid, and therefore choose to serve as a volunteer intentionally and based on their own, individual circumstances (White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). The three main concerns of volunteer management are recruitment, engagement, and retention, and are all ultimately impacted by these motivational circumstances. As such, the individual motivations of volunteers should factor heavily into any management decision regarding recruitment, engagement, or retention (Clary, et al., 1998; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; White, 2016).

Recruitment

Recruitment concerns how organizations reach out to their communities and make volunteer experiences available. Many potential candidates directly approach an organization they would like to volunteer at, and often discover open positions via a direct personal connection or by word of mouth (Landry, 2017). Other outreach efforts may include listings on a job board or online portal, which have been particularly effective for recruiting Millennial volunteers (Melczer & Brody, 2017). Direct community outreach methods, like job fairs or events at community centers, may not be as effective because they are often resource intensive and may be selective or biased towards full-time workers, men, and high school students (Piatak, 2016). The current emphasis on direct outreach for volunteer recruitment has had negative impacts on people of color and individuals with disabilities, both of whom face systemic barriers for entering the museum workforce (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Ivy, 2016; Piatak, 2016).

Addressing barriers to participation is an effective way for museums to increase the number of potential volunteers. Though qualifications are an important part of volunteer performance, both the AAMV professional guidelines and existing research recommend that passive listings, such as online job descriptions, should appeal to broad demographic groups and reduce the need for transcripts or test scores for an application (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; Marino, Martinez, Motto, & Ramus, 2017). It is also recommended that museums make their buildings more physically accessible, since transportation usually has significant impact on a person's free time to volunteer (Merritt, *The Museum Sacrifice Measure*, 2016; Piatak, 2016). The Museum of Pop Culture in Seattle, for example, offers free parking at the Seattle Center for all volunteers, which significantly reduces monetary and time-related costs

for those who live in historically redlined areas, students, and those who live well outside the city limits (C. Rodriguez, personal communication, November 12, 2017).

A visibly diverse volunteer corps may also impact volunteer recruitment. A key part of a museum's perceived value lies in its responsibility to reflect constituent communities (Genoways, Ireland, & Catlin-Legutko, 2016). This includes having communities represented by public-facing workers at the museum, the hiring of whom has come under increasing scrutiny in recent years (Ivy, 2016; Leitch, et al., 2016). Managers tend to hire workers who are like themselves, which negatively impacts the diversity and equity a museum is supposed to strive towards (Ivy 2016). Professional guidelines dictate that museum's decision to increase the diversity of its volunteer corps must be intentional, have commitment from multiple levels of museum staff, and have commitment of institutional resources (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; Levinsky-Raskin & Stevens, 2016). There are many examples of intentional policies used as incentives for volunteer recruitment, such the Alcatraz Museum bringing in members of the deaf community as co-creators of ASL programming or other museums providing speaking platforms for members of the LGBTQ community (Leitch, et al., 2016; Levinsky-Raskin & Stevens, 2016). The Museum of Pop Culture has especially notable policies in place to encourage individuals with autism to volunteer, including close work with the individual's social coach to ensure all needs are met (C. Rodriguez, personal communication, November 12, 2017). This intentional policy and the visibility of autistic individuals as volunteers have increased interest in volunteering at the museum.

Engagement

Much like the literature for professional development in the for-profit sector, there is no explicitly agreed-upon definition of “engagement” in the literature on volunteers or on museum sector. The term might refer to how a visitor experiences an exhibit, or the extent to which a particular community uses a museum’s resources, or how a museum advocates for change with politicians, or simply the overall impact of an activity measured by duration, frequency, or complexity of a task (American Alliance of Museums; Flagg, 2008; Grauer, 2018; Landry, 2017). For volunteers, however, the word “engagement” has particular connection to job performance and commitment. Harp et al. (2017) define engagement as “a positive state of mind in which volunteers are fully invested and committed to their roles” (p. 443).

A key part of this positive attitude is “fit,” the alignment between a person’s values and the institution’s mission, company culture, or role (Crocker, 2014; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Martin, et al., 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). Word and Carpenter’s study (2013) of paid workers at nonprofits found that the fit between the interests and attitudes of the individual and the organization’s mission significantly correlated with higher motivation and commitment to both the organization and public service in general. Similarly, Landry (2017) has found that a significant part of engagement for older volunteers lies in the attitudes and internal motivations of volunteers, and that external rewards or recognition do not have as strong of an effect on increasing engagement. Other research, such as Keaveny’s (2016) study on older volunteers, shows that the physical, psychological, and social benefits of volunteering, as well as altruistic values, are significant factors for higher “life satisfaction,” commitment, and overall engagement.

Volunteers also feel more engaged when they have the skills and competencies to do their job well. Much like with a person's attitude and values, matching a job with an individual's particular skill set ensures a good fit (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2016). Autonomy is also a factor, as increased latitude to make decisions about a role has been found to increase a person's investment in and identification with that role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Marino, Martinez, Motto, & Ramus, 2017).

Though the importance of internal motivation is well documented, external motivators are also recommended to increase engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The American Association of Museum Volunteers, for example, recommends that museums provide regular recognition ceremonies or reward incentives to enhance performance and engagement (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012).

Retention

Retention measures how long a person continues to volunteer once they have started working at an organization. In the nonprofit sector, there has been a trend of episodic, short term volunteerism since 2009, but long-term retention continues to be an important consideration for volunteer managers across the sector (MacDuff et al. 2009). In the cases of internships and the types of "forced" volunteering described by Kelemen (2017), there is a clear date or condition that marks the end of that person's service. For the vast majority of other volunteers, however, there is no definite end to service. The length of these volunteers' participation can vary depending on many factors, including individual motivation, competing obligations, and fit within the organization (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Grin and bear it: An examination of volunteers' fit with their organization, burnout and spirituality, 2016; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017; White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). Chacon et al. (2007)

found that the best predictor of long term commitment for volunteers was intention to volunteer, and that intention is affected by “personal, employment, and family circumstances” (p. 640). As such, retention is inextricably linked to ongoing, sustained volunteer engagement.

Role identity also has an impact on volunteer retention. Role identity, much like the related concept of task identity, measures the extent to which a worker recognizes the expectations and specific responsibilities of a particular role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). When a worker has higher role identity, they typically exhibit higher short term performance and longer term commitment to the organization (Hoy, 2011; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010). For volunteers, satisfaction on the job correlates with short term retention, while commitment to the organization and role identity correlate more with long term retention (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007). There is also an inverse relationship involving role ambiguity: if the demands of a volunteer’s task are unclear, or are not adequately addressed by the training and materials an organization provides, that volunteer may “burn out” and stop volunteering (Harp, et al. 2017). Role ambiguity is typically the result of poor fit, poor supervisory training, or a lack of key resources at the organizational level (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Grin and bear it: An examination of volunteers’ fit with their organization, burnout and spirituality, 2016). Shifting the norms of an institutional culture to accommodate volunteer work, as well as asking volunteers to produce content, are currently considered effective ways to prevent burnout, foster role identity, and ultimately improve retention (Marino, Martinez, Motto, & Ramus, 2017; McNamee & Peterson, 2014).

Motivations for Volunteering

Motivation is what connects recruitment, engagement, and retention. At its heart, volunteering is an intentional choice and is influenced both by what a person wants out of an experience and by how much that person's values align with the organization (Chacon, et al., 2017; Crocker, 2014; Martin, et al., 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). People volunteer at many different kinds of organizations for many different reasons (Ihm, 2017; Keaveny, 2016; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009; Piatak, 2016). As such, volunteers are motivated by a complex milieu of age, cultural background, employment status, community involvement, geographic location, and other factors (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Clary, et al., 1998; Crocker, 2014; Gage III & Thapa, 2012; Hustinx, et al., 2010). For example, though volunteerism has been argued as an "American value" and shown to be a key motivator for politically-related volunteerism, such as canvassing for a candidate, the volunteers at several community-oriented museums in Denver were motivated mostly by either a connection to the local neighborhood or by their association with a particular cultural heritage (Center for the Future of Museums, 2016; Crocker, 2014).

There are many ways to categorize volunteers, and most of them incorporate some explanation of motivation. Smith (1994) describes five measures to establish motivation: context, social background and personal demographics, personality predisposition, attitudes and values, and situational conditions. Kelemen (2017) offers a fourfold typology of volunteers based on motivations, naming the groups "altruistic, instrumental, militant, and forced." The boundaries between categories in both models were shown to be porous, indicating that motivations change over time and circumstance (Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Smith, 1994).

In many cases, people who are already in the workforce seek volunteer positions to gain something that paid work does not provide, such as a sense of meaning or connection (Word & Carpenter, 2013). Emerging professionals, such as students and recent graduates, use volunteerism to build up their professional networks, pad their resume, or get hands-on work experience (Piatak, 2016; Roulin & Bangerter, 2011). Older, retired volunteers are motivated less by career-related goals and more by altruism and socializing (Keaveny, 2016; Landry, 2017; Lien, 2017). Studies specifically on older volunteers have shown that structured work schedules and social ties with other volunteers result in lower job stress and increased engagement and retention (Landry, 2017; Ulsperger, Mcelroy, Robertson, & Ulsperger, 2015).

Effective management is also an important connector between motivation, engagement, and retention. There is no “right” style of management for workers, since every organization and workforce is different (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; Drucker, 1998). Instead, a manager’s style and leadership must reflect the motivations and needs of volunteers. This customized approach has been shown to significantly contribute to volunteer engagement and retention (White, 2016).

Organizational structure also impacts how volunteers respond to management strategies (MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009). A small North Dakota museum, for example, may rely exclusively on volunteers, resulting in more hands-off, autonomy-driven management from staff (Lien, 2017). A large museum in Chicago, on the other hand, may be extremely siloed and have a large number of paid staff, resulting in specialization of volunteers and more hands-on management, but also isolation from other departments (MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009; VanDerziel, Workplace Culture- Face the Facts!, 2017). Both of these strategies may be effective, provided they balance the needs of volunteers with the needs of the organization.

MacDuff (2009) offers a fourfold typology for volunteer management based on the degree to which managers are flexible or controlling and the degree to which managers are focused on change or regulation. These four styles, “traditional,” “serendipitous,” “entrepreneurial,” and “social change,” are all effective at managing volunteers, but their effectiveness depends on the fit between organizational culture, organizational needs, and the interests and skills of recruited volunteers (MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009).

The Job Demands-Resources Model

Given that individual motivations are varied and complex and that no single leadership strategy is effective for all organizations, volunteer engagement and retention should be looked at through a broadly applicable and robust model. Of the models which are usually used to assess volunteer or worker motivations, only a few are designed to be applied across work sectors and almost all are focused around the worker’s perspective. Though this study is based on the Job Demands-Resources Model, there are others which deserve an explanation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Other Models Used to Assess Workers and Volunteers

One of the most widely used models to understand volunteer motivations is the Volunteer Functional Inventory (VFI) (Clary, et al., 1998; Keaveny, 2016; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009). This model provides insight into six different facets of volunteer motivation: alignment with personal values, opportunity to learn more about a particular subject, enhancement of psychological being, attainment of career related skills, strengthening of social relationships, and reduction of guilt or personal issues (Clary, et al., 1998). The VFI reliably measures the complexities of motivation for volunteers, and benefits most from a detailed survey or an in depth interview process with the volunteers themselves (Chacon, et al., 2017). However, the VFI

does not take into account aspects of a role which are not perceived by volunteers, such as available funding for equipment or the specific, intended outcomes of various kinds of supervisor support.

The Demand-Control Model (DCM) was the dominant theory in the 1970's to look at job stress. It has been used to show that job strain is caused by high demands, such as task load and time pressure, and low job control, or the degree of latitude a worker has over how they choose and complete tasks (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Karasek, 1979). This model is a good predictor of factors with negative correlations to retention, such as lack of supervisor support, but additional research has not been able to confirm the buffering impact of job control (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This model also assumes that certain demands and controls are more important than others, so it does not transfer well between different organizational contexts or different careers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

A similar model known as the Effort-Rewards Imbalance Model (ERI), was designed to measure the reward structure surrounding work, rather than the demands placed on workers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Siegrist, 1996). This model posits that job strain is related to a mismatch between effort, defined as "extrinsic job demands and intrinsic motivation to meet those demands," and rewards, such as salary or recognition from a supervisor (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Siegrist, 1996). In comparison with the DCM, ERI assumes that social connections and personal attitudes are fundamental to understanding motivation and job strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Piatak's (2016) Opportunity Cost, Exchange, Social Ties, and Attachment Model attempts to reconcile the weaknesses inherent in both DCM and ERI by looking at a wide variety of personal and organizational factors. While the statistical methods used to analyze data in this

model are complicated, the results indicate that volunteers decide to participate based on a wide variety of personal factors, such as free time and perceived costs, as well as organizational factors, such as having friends who volunteer or being explicitly asked to volunteer in the first place (Piatak, 2016). However, this model is not widely tested and combines a number of theories to reach its conclusions, and so may not be reliable across different work contexts.

The Job Demands-Resources Model

The Job Demands-Resources Model measures a similar range of complexities as Piatak's model, but simplifies the relationship between job stressors and motivational resources. The basis of this model is the DCM and ERI models, but it builds on both by allowing the "integration of other work-related factors that can, and have been found to, be related to well-being" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 311). The overall purpose is to measure stress for workers based on what internal and external resources they have (mental health, resilience, confidence, organizational resources, training, etc.) and what stressors are inherent in a position or at an organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012). Thus, the model focuses on both positive and negative indicators of employee well-being rather than just one or the other and so is more robust than other available models (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Many of the studies based on this model have produced "laundry lists" of potential demands and resources that affect workers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) characterize these demands as requiring "sustained effort" to work around and group them as physical (e.g. an "unfavorable working environment"), psychological (e.g. high work load and pressure), social (work with emotionally demanding clients), or organizational (e.g. lack of funding for equipment). Resources, on the other hand, may provide motivation to workers or buffer the effects of demands. Resources may be found at the institutional level (e.g. pay or

career opportunities), the interpersonal level (e.g. supervisor support), the “organization of work” or role level (e.g. role clarity), and the task level (e.g. autonomy, supervisor feedback, and task identity) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

There are also studies which have focused on the relationships between particular demands and resources (Chen & Yu, 2012; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015). These studies have shown that, in general, demands correlate with exhaustion and burnout, and resources correlate with extra-role performance and engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Harp et al. (2017), for example, found that volunteer confidence buffered the impact of both role ambiguity and organizational constraints on volunteer engagement. One study on museum volunteers found similar results, where more supervisor support and job autonomy correlated with lower turnover and higher organizational commitment (Chen & Yu, 2012).

Still others have used the flexibility of model to incorporate multiple types of data to identify how workers use resources at an organization. One study focusing on graduate student athletic trainers implemented a design similar to JD-R to measure the nature of supervisor support at the University of Connecticut, and used a combination of semi-structured interviews and content analysis to reach their conclusions (Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015).

Overall, there is a lack of research regarding the supervisor’s perspective on job demands and resources for their workers. However, JD-R is an ideal model for this kind of research because it allows for a large variety of potential data points and may incorporate a variety of different research methods. For this research, a survey was used to assess organizational resources and supervisor support for volunteers, rather than the semi-structured interview approach used by Mazerolle et al (2015). This approach allowed for a larger number of potential

participants and provided a wider, less in-depth picture of supervisor support in the Seattle area. Chen and Yu's survey (2012) of museum volunteers is similar to the approach used in this study, though the focus was only on that of supervisors and solely on factors that museums can control.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

According to the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R), both resources and demands are important for understanding the nature of volunteerism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Given the many potential factors that might affect volunteer motivations, it is worth specifying which ones are at play in the context of museum collections. The purpose of this research study was to understand the nature of support for collections volunteers in King County's heritage organizations. The two questions framing this study were: 1) What kinds of support do supervisors provide to collections volunteers in heritage organizations? 2) What kinds of support do heritage organizations provide to collections volunteers?

Research Design

The study was designed as a descriptive survey. A survey design "provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (Creswell, 2013, p. 155). Surveys are ideal for collecting data from a large number of participants and allow for quick analysis of results once the data are collected (Creswell, 2013). This study was designed to collect data from approximately 70 organizations in the King County area over the span of eight weeks, so efficient data collection and analysis was important.

Many research studies using the JD-R model have taken a descriptive approach to create "laundry lists" of potential demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The focus of this design was similar, since the results are meant to describe a range of potential resources for museum volunteers. The two "variables" involved in this study were the types of support supervisors provide to collections volunteers and the types of support organizations provide to collections volunteers.

Data Collection Methods and Procedures

The method used in this study was a questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered online, via a SurveyMonkey link included in a participant recruitment e-mail (see Appendix A for the questionnaire). The questions in the instrument were a combination of open-ended responses and five-point Likert scales designed to measure the breadth of potential resources at a given institution from the supervisor's perspective. Following Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) comprehensive review of JD-R studies, the questions in this survey measured resources at four levels: a) the organization level; b) the social level; c) the role level; and d) the task level.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

The sample for this study was the 72 heritage organizations that participated in 4Culture's 2016 King County Heritage Survey (2016). Necessarily, this study required 4Culture to provide the names of the organizations that participated in their 2016 survey and the organizations to identify an individual who supervises collections volunteers.

Participants were recruited using an e-mail message that included a link to the online survey. Online surveys typically have lower response rates than other forms of surveys, though the personalized form of contact and a weekly follow-up e-mail used in this study was intended to maximize the number of responses (Sue & Ritter, 2012). The recruitment message also mentioned both the University of Washington and 4Culture, which are relevant organizations to the museum community in Seattle, and promised anonymity of data. These features have been found to increase response rates for other online surveys (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

The participants in this study were all collections managers or volunteers who perform collections-related tasks and oversee other volunteers. Of the 72 organizations contacted, a total of 41 submitted responses through the survey, resulting in a 57% response rate. Comparatively,

the 2016 4Culture Heritage survey reached out to 153 organizations and had 72 participants, resulting in a 47% response rate (4Culture, 2016, p. 6). The participants in this survey cover 27% of all organizations contacted by 4Culture in 2016, and approximately 50% of all collecting organizations in King County (Association of King County Heritage Organizations, 2019).

The first section of the survey asked about general information that further characterizes the sample. Information on budget size, number of volunteers, and the general age of the volunteer corps at each organization may be found in Tables 1, 2, and 3. Of the 41 responses received, 5 indicated that they did not use volunteers in the collections. These 5 responses were excluded from the analyses in the tables.

Table 1 shows the distribution of the sample according to the size of the organization based on annual budget.

Table 1: “To the best of your knowledge, what is the size of your institution based on its overall annual budget?” (N=36)

Organization Size (Budget)	Frequency
Small (Under \$3 Million)	72% n=26
Smaller Mid-Size (\$3 Million to \$6 Million)	14% n=5
Larger Mid-Size (\$6 Million to \$9 Million)	3% n=1
Large (above \$9 Million)	8% n=3
Don't Know/Unsure	3% n=1

Table 2 shows the the size of volunteer corps across the study sample.

Table 2: “To the best of your knowledge, what is the total number of your organization’s volunteers and interns?” (N=36)

Organization Size (Volunteers)	Frequency
Between 1 and 10 Volunteers	14% n=5
Between 11 and 20 Volunteers	19% n=7
Between 21 and 30 Volunteers	14% n=5
Between 31 and 40 Volunteers	8% n=3
More than 40 Volunteers	42% n=15
Don’t Know/Unsure	3% n=1

Table 3 shows the relative balance between older and younger volunteers at each organization.

Table 3: “Please indicate the approximate ratio of younger volunteers to older volunteers at your organization.” (N=36)

	Entirely Younger	Mostly Younger	Equally Younger and Older	Mostly Older	Entirely Older	Unsure
Frequency	0% n=0	8% n=3	14% n=5	44% n=16	22% n=8	11% n=4

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis occurred in four steps, following the procedures described by Creswell (2013) and Sue and Ritter (2012). As the questionnaires were submitted to the research team, a follow-up email was sent to the participant thanking them for their participation and requesting any relevant written documents. For closed-ended questions, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. For open-ended questions and documents submitted during the follow-up process, thematic content analysis was used.

Limitations

As a descriptive survey, the data collected covered a broad range of potential resources at play in Seattle museums. However, the survey was not able to collect in-depth data about each resource. The nuances between certain kinds of support, such as the balance of social support, professional advice, and skills training at play in mentorships, were not identified from the results of this study. In addition, only the supervisor's perspective was considered in this study. In order to get a more precise picture of which resources are most effective, future research should focus on the volunteer perspective.

This survey design is a one-time occurrence for data collection. This makes the design efficient, but restricts the researcher's ability to follow up on certain questions or encourage participants to elaborate and provide more in-depth data (Creswell, 2013). This particularly affected the open-ended questions on the instrument, as participants may have overlooked certain forms of support as irrelevant or not in practice at their given institution. A request for supporting documents for content analysis may have helped cover a supervisor's gap in knowledge about organizational support.

Participants may have elected to refuse to participate altogether, which is a common limitation for online surveys (Sue & Ritter, 2012). This may have restricted an already limited pool of potential participants, but the structure of the recruitment message and weekly reminders for survey submissions were intended to bolster the response rate.

Finally, the survey was designed to collect data only about resources, not demands. The JD-R model requires both to accurately reflect the nature of stress and motivation in a given context. Indeed, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) note that "reciprocal relationships" between specific resources and specific demands are worthy of future study. This study was designed to be a stepping stone towards that type of inferential research.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected from the survey described supportive resources that come specifically from the supervisor, and supportive resources that come from the organization itself. Data are presented here according to the study's two research questions.

1. What kinds of support do supervisors provide to collections volunteers in heritage organizations?

Supervisor support was measured on three levels, including i) relationship-level resources, ii) role-level resources, and iii) task-level resources.

i) Relationship-Level Resources

Relationship-level resources are the types of support that originate from social interaction, such as social opportunities for volunteers, mentorship, and co-worker support. Eighty-three percent (n=30) of study participants said volunteers in their organization have opportunities to socialize with other volunteers or staff members while on the job. One participant said their volunteers did not have opportunities to socialize, and one participant was unsure. Four participants did not answer the question about volunteer social opportunities.

Study participants were asked to describe the nature of the social opportunities available to volunteers. Responses were coded into six categories, as seen in Table 4.

Table 4: “Do collections volunteers have opportunities to socialize with other volunteers or other staff members while on the job? If yes, please describe” (n=32).

Code	Example	Frequency
When/Where Socializing Occurs		
During Work	“Volunteers socialize during their work.” “They frequently collaborate with one another on projects and research.”	63% (n=20)
During Breaks	“During lunch, we eat in a group setting.” “Our collections volunteers will often take a break to chat with other volunteers and staff.”	28% (n=9)
During Events	“Volunteers are invited to all programs, events, and social occasions.” “We have two annual meetings to allow everyone to come together.”	19% (n=6)
How Socializing Happens		
Shared Workspace	“We share the same space, so socializing is inevitable.” “Collections volunteers are usually in close proximity to staff, and we work closely together.”	34% (n=11)
Collaboration	“Volunteers work in pairs or teams.” “I work closely with volunteers.”	22% (n=7)
Other	“If shifts overlap they interact, but that doesn’t always happen.” “Collections volunteers are also tour docents and board members.”	16% (n=5)

Study participants were asked to what degree supervisors encourage their volunteers to socialize during their work. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 5 summarizes the responses.

Table 5: “I encourage collections volunteers to socialize during their work” (n=32).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
Frequency	3% n=1	19% n=6	44% n=14	22% n=7	13% n=4

Eighty-nine percent (n=32) of study participants said they considered themselves mentors to collections volunteers. Table 6 summarizes the responses.

Table 6: “I am a mentor to collections volunteers” (n=32)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
Frequency	0% n=0	6% n=2	53% n=17	31% n=10	9% n=3

Thirty-nine percent (n=14) of study participants said at their organization, collections supervisors provide career advice, networking, or other professional development opportunities to collections volunteers. Forty-four percent (n=16) said their supervisors did not provide mentoring for collections volunteers, while two participants were unsure and four participants did not respond to the question. In addition, three participants stated that professional development was not typically offered because the volunteers were retirees.

Study participants who said they provided career advice, networking, or other professional development opportunities were asked to characterize the types of professional development offered. Responses were coded into 4 categories, as seen in Table 7.

Table 7: “Do you personally provide career advice, networking, or other professional opportunities to collections volunteers? If yes, please describe.” (n=14)

Code	Example	Frequency
Advice	“I try to provide advice and professional development for my paid intern.” “I have over 40 years of experience at this point, and I enjoy sharing the perspective that that has given me”	50% n=7
Opportunities	“I forward job announcements to volunteers and interns.” “I share information about professional organization meetings and information I might have about job openings.”	50% n=7
Networking	“I tell all my volunteers I am happy to help as a reference, write letters of rec, etc.” “Volunteers are always introduced to visitors/researchers/donors as part of the team.”	43% n=6
Other	“Only if asked”	29% n=4

Study participants were asked about the nature of teamwork and co-worker support for volunteers. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Tables 8 and 9 summarize the responses.

Table 8: “Collections volunteers are most productive when they work in teams” (n=32)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
Frequency	0% n=0	38% n=12	28% n=9	19% n=6	16% n=5

Table 9: “Collections volunteers prefer to learn from each other rather than from me” (n=32).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
Frequency	9% n=3	56% n=18	9% n=3	0% n=0	25% n=8

ii) Role-Level Resources

Role-level resources are the types of support that characterize a volunteer's overall role or position. The items that measured role-level resources in this survey asked about role clarity, role significance, and autonomy.

Study participants were asked to respond to four items related to role clarity, as shown in Table 10. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer.

Table 10: Role clarity for collections volunteers (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
"I establish clear, planned goals for volunteer assignments."	0% n=0	3% n=1	78% n=25	13% n=4	6% n=2
"I ensure that volunteers know what professional behavior is expected of them while on the job."	0% n=0	0% n=0	78% n=25	16% n=5	6% n=2
"I ensure that volunteers know what their particular responsibilities are."	0% n=0	0% n=0	75% n=24	22% n=7	3% n=1
"Volunteers tell me their role is clear."	0% n=0	6% n=2	66% n=21	3% n=1	25% n=8

In addition, study participants were asked whether supervisors include collections volunteers in staff meetings. Of the thirty-six participants, thirty-six percent (n=13) answered "Yes," forty-four percent (n=16) answered "No," six percent (n=2) answered "Unsure," and fourteen percent (n=5) declined to answer. Table 11 shows how the "Yes" participants described staff meeting attendance.

Table 11: “Do you include volunteers in staff meetings? If yes, please explain” (n=13).

Code	Example	Frequency
Volunteers Are Staff	“Volunteers are considered staff.” “We are an all volunteer organization.”	46% n=6
Other	“Our staff meetings are ongoing conversations, not formal meetings.” “We do not have a consistent practice in place for this.”	38% n=5
Attendance When Relevant	“We would also include someone who was interested if the staff meeting was about their project or field of interest/expertise.”	31% n=4
Asked to Attend	“Collection volunteers are asked to join collections committee meetings.”	23% n=3

Study participants were asked to what degree supervisors ensure that volunteers know what the importance of their role is to the broader organization. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (N=4) declined to answer.

Table 12 summarizes the responses.

Table 12: “I ensure that volunteers understand the importance of their role to the broader organization.” (n=32)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
Frequency	0% n=0	0% n=0	63% n=20	28% n=9	9% n=3

Study participants were asked to respond to two items related to job autonomy. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 13 summarizes the responses.

Table 13: Job Autonomy for Collections Volunteers (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
“I trust volunteers to come to me if they need more help.”	0% n=0	0% n=0	66% n=21	34% n=11	0% n=0
“I give volunteers wide latitude to decide how they complete a task.”	3% n=1	28% n=9	41% n=13	25% n=8	3% n=1

iii) Task-level Resources

Task-level resources are the types of support that help volunteers complete specific duties. The items that measured task-level resources in this survey asked about the variety of training methods used by supervisors, the variety of skills supervisors ask volunteers to use, volunteer task engagement, and supervisory feedback.

Study participants were asked about the types of training methods used by supervisors to train volunteers. Of the 36 participants, ninety-two percent (n=33) selected at least one of the options and nine percent (n=3) declined to answer. Table 14 shows the frequency with which collections supervisors use different types of training.

Table 14: “Which of the following types of skills training do you use to train volunteers? Please select all that apply” (n=33)

Code	Frequency
Hands-On Demonstrations	79% n=26
Manuals or Written Instructions	76% n=25
Lectures or Verbal Instructions	70% n=23
Mentorship	70% n=23
Shadowing	42% n=14
Computer Programs/Web Resources	36% n=12
Job Rotation	21% n=7
Role Playing	21% n=7
Team/Group Training	18% n=6
I do not provide any of these types of training to volunteers.	9% n=3
Games/Play	0% n=0

In addition to the options shown in Table 14, study participants mentioned other types of training they provide to collections volunteers. Three participants referred to subject-matter specific training. For example, one participant said, “I train volunteers in how we use our collections management program.” Another participant described non-mentorship collaboration, and two participants made other comments.

Six items on the survey measured the degree to which collections volunteers are asked to use a variety of skills, degree of task engagement, and degree of feedback. Responses to these items are shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Variety of Skills, Task Engagement, and Supervisor Feedback for Collections Volunteers (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
“I try to have volunteers use a wide variety of skills during their work.”	0% n=0	31% n=10	47% n=15	19% n=6	3% n=1
“I can effectively match tasks to volunteers with appropriate skill sets.”	0% n=0	0% n=0	66% n=21	28% n=9	6% n=2
“I make sure volunteers complete their tasks from start to finish.”	0% n=0	6% n=2	78% n=25	13% n=4	3% n=1
“Volunteers understand the importance of their tasks to the broader goals of the collection.”	0% n=0	0% n=0	56% n=18	34% n=11	9% n=3
“I provide constructive feedback when volunteers are not performing up to standards.”	0% n=1	3% n=1	78% n=25	6% n=2	9% n=3
“I recognize collections volunteers when they exceed performance expectations.”	0% n=0	0% n=0	59% n=19	38% n=12	3% n=1
“I evaluate volunteer performance as part of my regular duties.”	0% n=0	28% n=9	53% n=17	6% n=2	13% n=4

iv) Use of Budgeted Funds

The use of budgeted funds is an organization-level type of support because it involves resources provided by the organization. However, there are particular instances where collections managers have discretion over how those funds are used. For the purposes of this survey, the use of budgeted funds was measured both as a form of supervisor support and as a form of organization-level support.

Study participants were asked how supervisors spend collections budget funds to support volunteers. Of the thirty-six participants, thirty-six percent (n=13) answered “Yes,” fifty percent (n=18) answered “No,” three percent (n=1) answered “Unsure,” and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 16 shows how the “Yes” participants described how they spend budgeted funds.

Table 16: “Do you, as a collections manager, spend any budgeted funds for volunteer-related purposes? If yes, please describe what the funds are used for” (n=13).

Code	Example	Frequency
Archival Supplies	“For supplies and equipment for maintenance of collection.” “Archival storage materials, grant funded digital equipment.”	46% n=6
Recognition, Budgeted	“We try to give t-shirts to volunteers once they have put in a year or so.” “Volunteer recognition event.”	31% n=4
Other	“Bus pass.” “We purchase tools for use by volunteers.”	31% n=4
Food and Drink	“We typically provide some meals and snacks for volunteers.” “We try to provide lunch for those who put in long days.”	23% n=3
Recognition, Out of Pocket	“I give my volunteers homemade holiday presents at the end of the year.” “I have been known to supply the prizes for collections volunteers [at the annual recognition event] out of my own pocket.”	15% n=2

2. What kinds of support do heritage organizations provide to collections volunteers?

Organizational support may originate from other areas of an organization outside of the collection, and may affect the volunteer corps as a whole. Organizational support includes incentives for volunteering, budgeted funding, work environment, and role clarity.

i) Incentives for Volunteering

A single item in the survey asked about the kinds of incentives organizations provide to volunteers based on performance. Of the thirty-six participants, thirty-one percent (n=11) answered “Yes,” fifty percent (n=18) answered “No,” fourteen percent (n=5) answered “Unsure,” and six percent (n=2) declined to answer. Table 17 shows how the “Yes” and “Unsure” participants described performance-based incentives.

Table 17: “Does your organization provide incentives to volunteers based on their performance or hours served? If yes, please describe” (n=16).

Code	Example	Frequency
Recognition Events	“Volunteers who have consistently worked for us are invited to an annual recognition event in the summer.” “Exceptional volunteers are recognized at the annual volunteer appreciation party.”	31% n=5
Awards	“An award for Volunteer of the Quarter.” “We give a small award to the volunteer who has worked the most hours in a year.”	25% n=4
Museum Services	“Gift shop discount.” “Volunteers are invited to attend lectures, events and continuing education programs based on their number of hours served.”	25% n=4
Other	“We give out volunteer name badges after a certain number of hours served.” “Opportunities to develop public outreach projects based on their expertise and enthusiasm.”	25% n=4
Membership	“Free membership after a certain amount of hours served.” “Volunteers who reach 50 hours in one year will receive a complimentary solo membership.”	19% n=3

In addition, study participants were asked if they provide other kinds of incentives provided to volunteers by the organization outside of performance-based ones. Of the thirty-six participants, sixty-seven percent (n=24) answered “Yes,” fourteen percent (n=5) answered “No,” eight percent (n=3) answered “Unsure,” and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 18 shows how the “Yes” participants described non-performance based incentives.

Table 18: “Does your organization provide other types of incentives to volunteers other than the ones listed above (free parking, discounted admission, recognition events, etc.)? If yes, please describe” (n=24).

Code	Example	Frequency
Recognition Events	“Volunteer appreciation party.”	67% n=16
Museum Services	“Volunteers do not have to pay admission to visit the center.” “Museum discount on gift store and event tickets.”	38% n=9
Other	“Networking with staff or researchers.” “Volunteer Week at reciprocal institutions.”	25% n=6
Gifts and Apparel	“Swag.” “A token of our appreciation has been a Starbucks cup with gift card or a souvenir pin.”	13% n=3
Free Parking	“Free parking.”	8% n=2

ii) Budgeted Funding

One question on the survey asked if organizations provide training opportunities to help improve volunteer performance or aid in volunteer management. Of the thirty-six participants, seventeen percent (n=6) answered “Yes,” sixty-one percent (n=22) answered “No,” eleven percent (n=4) answered “Unsure,” and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 19 shows how the “Yes” and “Unsure” participants described the trainings and how they have used them.

Table 19: “Does your organization provide any trainings or workshops related to leadership or volunteer supervision? If yes, please describe the training and how you have used it to support volunteers” (n=10).

Code	Example	Frequency
Leadership Training	“We have had the opportunity to offer volunteers training in leadership and capacity building.”	20% n=2
Duty Specific Training	“We only offer training as it relates to volunteer opportunity.” “Docent training about every 3 years.”	20% n=2
Other	“We use ‘Professional Development Funds’ for this type of training.”	20% n=2
Outside Trainings	“Participated in a 4Culture capacity building grant program.”	10% n=1

Two questions on the survey asked to what degree organizations provide enough funding to support collections volunteers. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 20 summarizes the responses.

Table 20: Organizational Funding to Support Collections Volunteers (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
“My organization provides adequate funding to support collections volunteers.”	6% n=2	25% n=8	50% n=16	3% n=1	16% n=5
“My organization provides adequate funding for collections-related equipment and materials.”	0% n=0	31% n=10	59% n=19	6% n=2	3% n=1

iii) Work Environment

Two questions on the survey asked to what degree supervisors think that there is adequate space and equipment for collections work at the organization’s facility. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 21 summarizes the responses.

Table 21: Adequacy of Space and Equipment for Collections Work (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
“There is adequate space at my institution for collections-related work.”	19% n=6	13% n=4	56% n=18	9% n=3	3% n=1
“There is an adequate amount of equipment and materials for collections-related tasks.”	0% n=0	28% n=9	69% n=22	0% n=0	3% n=1

iv) Role Clarity

Study participants were asked whether volunteers receive an orientation before they start working at the organization. Of the thirty-six participants, seventy-eight percent (n=28) answered “Yes,” nine percent (n=3) answered “No,” three percent (n=1) answered “Unsure,” and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. The answers included general, organization-level orientations and collections-specific, supervisor-level orientations. Table 22 shows how the “Yes” participants described the orientation process at their organizations.

Table 22: “Do volunteers receive an orientation before they begin work at your organization?” (n=28).

Code	Example	Frequency
General Orientation	“General museum operations and policies.” “A short why and what we are about as an historical record and a public service.”	54% n=15
Collections-specific Orientation	“They get a tour of a facility, instructions on handling objects, pertinent procedures for their work, and additional collections training dependent on the project.” “Safety/conduct orientation, plus handling training.” “Introductions to collections staff and volunteers.”	54% n=15
Informal Orientation	“Usually an informal briefing.” “Volunteers learn ‘on the job.’”	11% n=3
Other	“A veteran volunteer works with a new volunteer in a peer situation.”	7% n=2

A single survey question asked about written materials used for onboarding or orienting volunteers. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. As there were too few participants who provided a follow-up email (n=3), no follow-up for a document analysis was conducted. Table 23 shows the summary of responses.

Table 23: “Would you be willing to provide a written job description or interview script used for onboarding volunteers?” (n=32)

Response	Frequency
Yes	13% n=4
No	31% n=10
My organization does not use job descriptions or interview scripts to communicate volunteer responsibilities.	56% n=18

Three items asked to what degree organizations, and not supervisors, establish role clarity for volunteer assignments. Of the thirty-six participants, eighty-nine percent (n=32) answered this question and eleven percent (n=4) declined to answer. Table 24 summarizes the responses.

Table 24: Organization-level Establishment of Role Clarity for Collections Volunteers (n=32)

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
“My organization establishes clear, planned goals for volunteer assignments.”	0% n=0	16% n=5	63% n=20	19% n=6	3% n=1
“My organization ensures that volunteers know what professional behavior is expected of them while on the job.”	0% n=0	13% n=4	56% n=18	25% n=8	6% n=2
“My organization ensures that volunteers understand the importance of their role to the broader organization.”	0% n=0	3% n=1	53% n=17	28% n=9	16% n=5

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

This study addressed the nature of support for collections volunteers in King County's heritage organizations. Overall, the data offer a broad picture of the current state of collections volunteerism in King County, contributing to the literature on volunteers and paid workers. In particular, the data identify a number of different kinds of support used by supervisors and organizations to help volunteers stay engaged in their work, which may result in higher rates of job performance, satisfaction, and retention (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017). As was the case in Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) comprehensive review of the Job Demands-Resources Model, the types of support found in this study were present at the organization level, relationship level, role level, and task level. It is important to restate here that the types of support found in this study focused specifically on things that supervisors or organizations can control for; organizations cannot easily change personal circumstances like a worker's family situation or health, which also have significant impact on worker engagement and retention (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010).

1. What kinds of support do supervisors provide to collections volunteers at heritage organizations?

i) Relationship-Level Support

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) describe relationship-level support for workers as consisting of both supervisor support and co-worker support. Positive social and professional relationships with supervisors increase performance and engagement for both paid staff and volunteers (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Hill & Lewis, 2017; McNamee & Peterson, 2014). The data from this study confirm the important role of social and professional relationships, for museum collections volunteers specifically.

Supervisors reported using various strategies to build collaborative relationships with volunteers. They also reported that volunteers have multiple opportunities to socialize during work, both during work time and break time.

Much of the literature focusing on paid workers also emphasizes the importance of mentorships as a tool for enhancing skill development, encouraging inquiry-based learning, and improving overall engagement for younger workers (Hill & Lewis, 2017; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). The majority of study participants identified as mentors for collections volunteers, suggesting that mentorship is a key strategy in this area too. Yet, while most participants said they mentored collections volunteers, fewer of them said they provide career advice, networking, or professional development to volunteers. This may indicate that the term “mentorship” does not have a widely agreed upon meaning amongst collections managers. The literature states that career advice, networking, and professional development opportunities are all aspects of mentorship, but are not substitutes for the type of time intensive, individualized training that forms the basis of the mentor-mentee relationship (Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014; Montgomery, 2017; Shoemaker, Thomas, Roberts, & Boltz, 2016; Waghel, Wilson, Battise, & Frye, 2017).

Co-worker support is another important form of relationship-level support, especially in flat organizational hierarchies, organizations with poor supervisor-worker relationships, and in roles which involve constant skill building (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016; Mazerolle, Clines, Eason, & Pitney, 2015). Data from this study suggest that collections supervisors have mixed feelings about the value of co-worker support through teamwork. Some agreed that their volunteers were most productive when

working in teams, while others disagreed or were unsure about the effects of teamwork on productivity.

ii) Role-Level Support

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) define role-level support as a resource that aids in the “organization of work.” This type of support includes role identity and role clarity, both of which refer to the extent to which a worker recognizes the expectations and specific responsibilities of their particular role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007). Role clarity helps workers understand their particular duties and has been shown to mitigate the effects of burnout, foster a sense of accomplishment, and improve rates of job satisfaction and worker retention (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Volunteer Engagement and Retention, 2017). The majority of supervisors in this study agreed or strongly agreed that they provided volunteers with planned goals, expectations for professional behavior, and a set of particular responsibilities, all of which are components of role clarity. While most collections supervisors agreed that volunteers tell them that their role is clear, others were unsure if this was true, suggesting that King County heritage organizations may not consistently provide role-level support for their collections volunteers.

Role significance relates to how a worker understands their role within the organization as a whole (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Broad involvement with an organization increases worker engagement, and several studies have shown that involving volunteers or interns in staff meetings keeps them engaged and feeling connected to the organization at large (Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). Results from this study suggest that collections supervisors feel they ensure their volunteers’ understanding of the importance of their role within the organization. However, only a third of study participants

stated that they invite collections volunteers to staff meetings and, of those, most only included volunteers because of a relevant interest from the volunteer or because it was an all-volunteer organization. Team-based meetings that involve museum volunteers and interns have been shown to increase engagement and improve cross-departmental relationships for interns and intern supervisors (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015).

Autonomy has been shown to be a significant factor in worker engagement, as it indicates trust from a supervisor and generates a feeling of ownership and identity within a role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012; Landry, 2017; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Collections supervisors in this study indicated unanimously that they trust that volunteers would come to them if they need more help, but were mixed in whether they give volunteers the freedom to decide how to complete tasks. This may reflect difference in organizational culture or supervisory strategies, or it may be a sign of poor supervisor-employee trust (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Hoy, 2011; Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016). Supervisors who are seen as approachable and trustworthy have been shown to have a more productive team, and inspire higher rates of role identification (Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Hoy, 2011; Montgomery, 2017).

iii) Task-Level Support

Task level support is defined as any type of support that helps workers accomplish specific tasks, such as training, use of a variety of skills, task significance, and supervisor feedback (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012). Task-level support has been found to be important even in high-incentive workplaces, since a lack of qualifications or necessary skills negatively impacts performance and confidence while on the job (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Lynch & Smith, 2009; White, 2016). This is crucially important to smaller museums, which are

often all volunteer run and may lack any expertise in formal museum practices and procedures (Lien, 2017).

Training. There is much literature dedicated to training methods and learning strategies for workers, and one general finding is that worker engagement increases when a variety of training methods are used (Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Hill & Lewis, 2017). Martin, Kolomitro, and Lam (2014) offer a typology of training methods which include one-on-one methods like hands-on training and mentorship, written methods like handbooks or computer programs, and group-based methods like games and play. Collections supervisors in this study referred to four training methods used to train collections volunteers, including hands-on coaching/demonstration, written instruction, verbal instruction, and mentorship. Hands-on coaching has been shown to significantly increase engagement for paid workers when compared to other, more hands-off training styles (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Other studies have also found group training, discussion of case studies, role playing, and games to be successful at increasing engagement (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). However, collections supervisors in this study reported that group training and role play were the least frequently used training methods, and games or play was not reported at all.

Variety of Skills. Many workers benefit from using a variety of skills while on the job (Chen & Yu, 2012; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014). A large part of the reason for this reduction in burnout is the buffering effect of fit, or the match between a role or organization's mission and a person's existing skill set or personality (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Grin and bear it: An examination of volunteers' fit with their organization, burnout and spirituality, 2016; Park, Fortune, Claiborne,

& Gallant, 2011; Word & Carpenter, 2013). The participants in this study agreed that they could effectively fit volunteers into roles based on their skill sets and interests, but participants also had a mixed response when asked whether they have volunteers use a variety of skills while on the job. Using a variety of skills has been shown to increase confidence and performance for other museum volunteers, like docents (Jones, 2012; Schep, Van Boxtel, & Noordegraaf, 2018).

Task significance. Most participants in this study indicated a strong ability to match a task with an appropriately skilled volunteer, which indicates high supervisor ability to establish fit for volunteers. However, a significant number of collections supervisors indicated that they do not try to have volunteers use a wide variety of skills once on the job. This may indicate a higher potential for burnout because volunteers are only asked to do one job and may miss out on a sense of accomplishment, which is an important motivator (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, Grin and bear it: An examination of volunteers' fit with their organization, burnout and spirituality, 2016; Serrano & Reichard, 2011; White, 2016).

Task engagement. Task engagement has also been shown to correlate with overall volunteer engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Bakker and Demerouti distinguish between "task identity," which corresponds to a volunteer's ability to understand and follow through on the specific steps of a task, and "task significance," which corresponds to the volunteer's understanding of the relationship between the task and the broader needs of the department or organization. Collections supervisors in this study strongly agreed that their volunteers understand the importance of tasks to the broader goals of the collection, and agreed less strongly that volunteers complete tasks from start to finish. The slight discrepancy between the two may be the result of volunteer retention, where task significance is front-loaded during a volunteer's orientation, while task identity is longer-term and dependent on a volunteer doing a task through

its completion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Several case studies have noted the importance of formalized, structured training plans to keep interns focused on their particular responsibilities, and these have been found to increase engagement and performance (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Salazar-Porzio, 2015).

Supervisor feedback. Finally, supervisor feedback is also a vital component of role-level support for both paid workers and volunteers. The literature describes both positive feedback, which reinforces productive behaviors, and constructive feedback, which corrects unproductive behaviors, as increasing engagement (Alfes, Shantz, & Bailey, 2015; Huynh, Metzger, & Winefield, 2012; Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) characterize feedback at multiple levels, though it most often occurs at the task level. The collections supervisors in this study strongly agreed that they provide recognition and positive feedback to their volunteers, and agreed that they provide constructive feedback to their volunteers. However, many supervisors indicated that they do not evaluate volunteers as a regular part of their duties. Evaluation is recommended by the American Association of Museum Volunteers as an important part of all volunteer programs, and may be beneficial to the volunteers at these organizations (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012).

2. What kinds of support do heritage organizations provide to collections volunteers?

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) describe organization-level support as anything which supports workers that originates from the organization at large, including pay and incentives, career opportunities, and job security. For this study, funding, incentives, work environment, and role clarity were all considered organization-level supports.

Findings from this study suggest that many heritage organizations do not provide enough funding for collections volunteers or collections-related equipment and materials. This may indicate a lack of commitment to volunteer retention on the part of organizations, possibly a result of bias against volunteers as a “leisure” activity rather than “work” (Ihm, 2017; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Lynch & Smith, 2009). It may also reflect the state of funding for smaller heritage organizations, which often are under-funded and dependent on unpaid labor for the majority of their operations (Center for the Future of Museums, 2016; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Lien, 2017; Merritt, 2014). Where heritage organizations do spend collections funds to support volunteers, the majority use them for archival supplies or food and drink. Several study participants indicated out-of-pocket spending to provide volunteers gifts or prizes during the holidays.

Paid workers are incentivized by salary and benefits, but also by things that have been found to incentivize volunteers like fit, company culture, work environment, discounts, and social connection (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Keaveny, 2016; Kelemen, Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010; White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013). Paid workers are also often incentivized by performance-based incentives, such as bonuses or special recognition (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000). Less than half of the heritage organizations in this study indicated that they offer performance-based incentives to volunteers, which may indicate an emphasis on volunteer retention rather than performance as an indicator of success. Most collections supervisors indicated their organizations offer non-performance based incentives, such as recognition events or discounts at the museum. This may be because these incentives are more inclusive to all volunteers or that volunteer evaluation is not yet a major factor in determining performance. Cross-departmental relationships, such as those formed during social events, have

been found to increase engagement and may also be a consideration for these types of incentives (Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015).

Organizational constraints have a clear impact on rates of burnout for volunteer workers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2017; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009). One such constraint, a poor working environment, has been shown to cause a significant amount of stress on workers, making the provision of space and appropriate equipment an important buffering resource for collections volunteers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Huynh, Metzger, & Winefield, 2012; Van Der Doef, 1999).

One third of study participants did not think their organization provides adequate funds for collections-related equipment and materials, and about the same number thought the materials they do have are not enough for collections-related tasks. Perhaps the biggest issue for collections supervisors in this study was the lack of adequate space for collections work, indicating that a lack of space may be one of the most prevalent organization-level constraints on collections volunteers in King County. Though there have been few studies focused specifically on the impact of work space on volunteer engagement and retention, both AAM and the American Association of Museum Volunteers recommend that all collections facilities have adequate space and equipment for volunteers to do their work properly (American Alliance of Museums, 2019; American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012).

Organizations also play a significant part in establishing workers' and volunteers' role clarity. Job descriptions and orientations have been found to improve role clarity for both paid workers and volunteers (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2017; Huynh, Metzger, & Winefield, 2012; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Overall, the majority of participants in this study said they establish role clarity and role significance for their collections volunteers. The majority also indicated that

volunteers receive an orientation, with both general and collections-specific orientations playing significant roles. These types of workplace tours help volunteers figure out their place and establish relationships early on (American Association of Museum Volunteers, 2012; Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Ohlandt, 2013). However, over half of the organizations in this study stated that they do not use job descriptions or a standardized interview script to communicate responsibilities to potential volunteers. Studies have shown that even at organizations without much control over other resources, sufficient onboarding processes and clear job descriptions are a cost effective way to improve engagement and retention (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2017; Lien, 2017; White, 2016; Word & Carpenter, 2013).

Implications for Practitioners

i) Collections Managers

The results of this study suggest that collections managers already have a strong potential impact on the engagement and retention of collections volunteers. Collections supervisors seem to take a hands-on, involved approach to training volunteers. While this may improve short-term performance and skills growth, the lack of volunteer autonomy and, in some cases, teamwork indicated by the results may indicate reduced job satisfaction and higher rates of turnover over the long term (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2017; MacDuff, Netting, & O'Connor, 2009; Serrano & Reichard, 2011). Collections managers may be able to buffer the impact of this by using a more varied approach to training, such as through role play or games, or by asking volunteers to use a wider variety of skills while on the job (Chen & Yu, 2012; Jones, 2012; Martin, Kolomitro, & Lam, 2014; Schep, Van Boxtel, & Noordegraaf, 2018). The results of this study suggest that having volunteers work in teams and offering volunteers more leeway in deciding how to accomplish tasks would help improve volunteer engagement, and may benefit

overall rates of retention. In addition, this study suggests that collections supervisors do not regularly evaluate volunteers, but do provide both constructive feedback and positive reinforcement. If collections supervisors intentionally set aside time to evaluate their volunteers, it may help them recognize patterns in the feedback they give and improve their overall volunteer management strategy.

Collections managers may also want to clarify what mentorship looks like at their organizations. This study confirms that supervisors already provide networking and job announcements to mentees, as well as regular positive reinforcement and constructive feedback. A formalized, intentional system of mentorship may help clarify what it means to be a mentor and potentially increase the amount of performance evaluation for volunteers. There are many examples of mentorship programs for collections workers in the literature, and all note the importance of an intentional, structured plan with specific outcomes, connection to the broader organization, and a tailored approach to skills training and leadership style (Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Lacey, Falk, Jaffer, & Jelinek, 2013; Salazar-Porzio, 2015). One cost-effective improvement for collections supervisors suggested by this study is to include more volunteers in staff meetings, which may enhance a volunteer's identification with a role and improve their social connections across the broader organization.

ii) Volunteer Coordinators

There are also several important implications from this study for volunteer coordinators. The results of this study suggest that most collections supervisors do not spend budgeted funds on professional development for their volunteers. This may restrict both the amount of professional development that occurs, as well as reduce the amount of people who can volunteer for professional experience (Center for the Future of Museums, 2016; Ivy, 2016; Kelemen,

Mangan, & Moffat, 2017; Merritt, 2016). 4Culture offers a number of grants to help organizations offer stipends to interns or to offset costs related to in-house training, and many conferences offer scholarships to interested students and organizations to offset travel and registration costs (4Culture, 2019; Newell, 2019). Volunteer coordinators can play a role in this process by bringing volunteers and collections supervisors into the grant writing process, thereby informing volunteers of potential opportunities and setting clear expectations for the collections supervisor. The results of this study also suggest that written job descriptions are extremely underutilized when recruiting volunteers. Volunteer coordinators can use written descriptions to better advertise for specific roles at their organizations, which may help boost role clarity for volunteers and more easily communicate volunteer needs and responsibilities during the grant writing process.

Implications for Future Research

One of the key implications for this study is future research. Since this study was designed to capture a broad range of potential sources for volunteer support, further research could focus on job demands, on the volunteer perspective, or on relationships between different types of support and demands. All of these types of studies are found in the literature, but none have been applied specifically to heritage organizations in Seattle (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Chen & Yu, 2012; Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Erdener, 2016; Sandmark & Renstig, 2010).

Proposed Study 1: Overview of Job Demands on Volunteers

Based on the Job-Demands Resources Model (JD-R), supervisor support falls into the category of “resources” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). One possible future study may focus on establishing a broad view of demands on collections volunteers at King County’s heritage

organizations. What potential stressors are present at the organization level, and how do they impact collections volunteers? What potential stressors are present while working in an organization's collection, and how do they impact collections volunteers? Since this potential study is aimed at collecting data from a broad range of organizations, a descriptive survey design is most appropriate (Creswell, 2013). Much like with this paper's research methods, the potential study might use an online survey to collect data related to supervisor perceptions of potential stressors (Creswell, 2013; Sue & Ritter, 2012). Once this data is collected, a more accurate and representative view of surveyed organizations can be modeled with JD-R, and thereby identify overall patterns of stress and support throughout King County (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Proposed Study 2: Supervisor Support from the Volunteer Perspective

One of the main limitations for this study was the lack of perspective from collections volunteers themselves. In most other studies that look at supervisor support, there is a combination of data related to what support supervisors provide and how volunteers perceive the usefulness of that support (Chen & Yu, 2012; Clary, et al., 1998; Hutchinson & Cartmell, 2016; Piatak, 2016). Another potential study may attempt to look at how volunteers perceive the support provided by collections supervisors and their organization. How do volunteers characterize the social aspects of their workplace? Do volunteers think their roles are clear? What types of training impact volunteer performance and engagement the most? These questions are likely to result in more nuanced, open ended data so a more qualitative survey design might serve this study well (Creswell, 2013). This will possibly involve stratifying the sample in this paper's study into several groups based on size of volunteer corps, and then using a semi-structured interview or open-ended questionnaire to collect data from each group. The results of

the proposed study would improve the understanding of impact for each of the types of support found in this paper's study.

Proposed Study 3: Relationships between Specific Resources and a Particular Demand

In their review of over 2,000 applications of the JD-R model, Bakker and Demerouti note a need for more research related to the relationships between specific resources and demands (2007). One potential study may focus on the relationship between organization funding, mentorship, and perceived barriers to entering the museum workforce. Does funding affect the degree to which mentorship is used in collections settings? Do effective mentors buffer the stress associated with lack of funding and free time for volunteering? To what degree do stipends impact a volunteer or intern's engagement and duration of service at the organization? This type of study would likely benefit from a highly detailed, qualitative case study approach since many of these relationships may be nuanced and interconnected with a number of underlying issues like race, income inequality, and organizational structure. Though complex, this potential study would be one of the most likely to produce specific, actionable recommendations for an organization to improve collections volunteer performance, engagement, and retention.

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APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT

Gloves On! A Look at Supervisor Support for Collections Volunteers

Introduction

You are being asked to participate in a research study about how collections supervisors in heritage organizations support and train their volunteers. You have been selected to participate because (a) your organization recently took part in 4Culture's 2016 King County Heritage Survey, and (b) you are a collections manager or someone who supervises the collection at your organization. The study is being conducted by me, Samuel Howes, for my master's thesis at the University of Washington.

You will be asked about your perceptions and actions related to supervising volunteers. It will take approximately 15 minutes. No data will be shared with anyone outside of the research team, and all of your responses will remain anonymous. Participation in this study is voluntary. If you decline, there will be no consequences.

If you agree, please continue to the next page and complete the survey.

Section 1: General Information About Your Organization

1. To the best of your knowledge, what is the size of your institution based on its overall annual budget? (Please circle one)
 - a) Small (under \$3 Million)
 - b) Smaller Mid-Size (\$3 Million to \$6 Million)
 - c) Larger Mid-Size (\$6 Million to \$9 Million)
 - d) Large (above \$9 Million)
 - e) Don't Know/Unsure

2. To the best of your knowledge, what is the total number of your organization's volunteers and interns? (Please circle one)
 - a) Between 1 and 10 volunteers
 - b) Between 11 and 20 volunteers
 - c) Between 21 and 30 volunteers
 - d) Between 31 and 40 volunteers
 - e) More than 40 volunteers
 - f) My organization does not have volunteers or interns
 - g) Don't Know/Unsure

3. Please indicate the approximate ratio of younger volunteers to older volunteers at your organization.

Volunteers are Entirely Younger		Equal Number of Older and Younger Volunteers		Volunteers are Entirely Older	Unsure
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. Does your organization use volunteers or interns for collections-related work (e.g. object handling, cataloging, rehousing)?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

Section 2: Organizational Resources

This section is asking about the resources your organization provides for volunteer management and for the collection. Please answer each question to the best of your knowledge, or indicate “Unsure” in the text box or bubble if you are unsure.

5. Does your organization provide incentives to volunteers based on their performance or hours served?
Yes No Unsure
If yes, please describe:

6. Does your organization provide other types of incentives to volunteers other than the ones listed above (free parking, discounted admission, recognition events, etc.)?
Yes No Unsure
If yes, please describe:

7. Do you, as a collections manager, spend any budgeted funds for volunteer-related purposes?
Yes No Unsure
If used, please describe what the funds are used for:

8. Does your organization provide any trainings or workshops related to leadership or volunteer supervision?
Yes No Unsure
If yes, please describe the training and how you have used it to support volunteers (if at all):

9. For the following statements, indicate your agreement on a scale of “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree:”

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
My organization provides adequate funding to support collections volunteers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization provides adequate funding for collections-related equipment and materials.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is adequate space at my institution for collections-related work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is an adequate amount of equipment and materials for collections-related tasks.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 3: Volunteer Relationships

This section is asking about the social behavior of volunteers, as well as your professional relationship with them. Please answer each question to the best of your knowledge, or indicate “Unsure” in the text box or bubble if you are unsure.

10. Do collections volunteers have opportunities to socialize with other volunteers or other staff members while on the job?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, please describe:

11. Do you personally provide career advice, networking, or other professional opportunities to collections volunteers?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, please describe:

12. For the following statements, indicate your agreement on a scale of “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree:”

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
I encourage collections volunteers to socialize during their work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collections volunteers are most productive when they work in teams.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a mentor to collections volunteers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collections volunteers prefer to learn from each other rather than from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I trust volunteers to come to me if they need more help.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 4: Volunteer Roles

This section is asking about how the responsibilities of a collections volunteer role are communicated and understood by volunteers. Please answer each question to the best of your knowledge, or indicate “Unsure” in the text box or bubble if you are unsure.

13. Do volunteers receive an orientation before they begin work at your organization?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, please explain:

14. Do you include volunteers in staff meetings?

Yes No Unsure

If yes, please explain:

15. This question is asking only about what your organization provides to volunteers. For the following statements, indicate your agreement on a scale of “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree:”

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
My organization establishes clear, planned goals for volunteer assignments.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization ensures that volunteers know what professional behavior is expected of them while on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization ensures that volunteers understand the importance of their role to the broader organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 4: Volunteer Roles (Cont.)

16. This question is asking about what you personally do for volunteers as their supervisor. For the following statements, indicate your agreement on a scale of “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree:”

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
I establish clear, planned goals for volunteer assignments.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I ensure that volunteers know what professional behavior is expected of them while on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I ensure that volunteers know what their particular responsibilities are.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I ensure that volunteers understand the importance of their role to the broader organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I give volunteers wide latitude to decide how they complete a task.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volunteers tell me tell me their role is clear	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 5: Skills Training and Feedback

This section is asking about particular types of skills training you provide to collections volunteers, as well as the amount of autonomy and feedback you provide as a supervisor. Please answer each question to the best of your knowledge, or indicate “Unsure” in the text box or bubble if you are unsure.

17. Which of the following types of skills training do you use to train volunteers? (Please check all that apply)

- a) Mentorship (Ongoing skills training with a single volunteer)
- b) Shadowing
- c) Lectures or Verbal Instructions
- d) Job Rotation
- e) Computer Programs/Web Resources
- f) Hands-On Demonstrations
- g) Role Playing
- h) Team/Group Training
- i) Games/Play
- j) Manuals or Written Instructions
- k) I do not provide any of these types of training to volunteers.

18. Are there any types of training that you use which were not included in the above list?

Yes No

If yes, please describe:

Section 5: Skills Training and Feedback (Cont.)

19. For the following statements, indicate your agreement on a scale of “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree:”

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unsure
I try to have volunteers use a wide variety of skills during their work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I make sure volunteers complete their tasks from start to finish.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volunteers understand the importance of their tasks to the broader goals of the collection.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can effectively match tasks to volunteers with appropriate skill sets.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I provide constructive feedback when volunteers are not performing up to standards.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I recognize collections volunteers when they exceed performance expectations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I evaluate volunteer performance as part of my regular duties.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 6: Written Materials

This section is asking about any written materials used by your organization for volunteer orientation or onboarding. These materials will be used for document analysis and will not be shared with anyone outside of the research team. Your provision of an e-mail address and written materials is entirely voluntary.

20.) Would you be willing to provide a written job description or interview script used for onboarding volunteers?

- Yes
- No
- My organization does not use job descriptions or interview scripts to communicate volunteer responsibilities.

If yes, please include an e-mail address so that we may follow up and request these documents from you:

END OF SURVEY