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AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PRACTICE OF
VOLUNTEER MENTORS IN NONPROFIT
CHRISTIAN ORGANIZATIONS

A Prospectus
Presented to
the Faculty of
The Southern Baptist Theological Seminary

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Barbara Cain Cottrell

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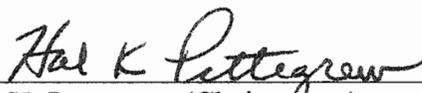
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VOLUNTEER MENTORS IN NONPROFIT
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEM	Critical Events Model
Col	Colossians
CPM	critical path method
G.Ed.	General Educational Development
Exod	Exodus
GNB	Good New Bible
Heb	Hebrews
I Cor	1 Corinthians
IRS	Internal Revenue Service
I Sam	1 Samuel
1 Thess	1 Thessalonians
1 Tim	1 Timothy
2 Tim	2 Timothy
NGOs	non-governmental organizations
Num	Numbers
org.	organization
PACE	performance and cost evaluation
PERT	program evaluation review technique
Phil	Philippians

Prov	Proverbs
s.v.	<i>sub verbo</i>
S1	style 1
S2	style 2
S3	style 3
S4	style 4

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PREFACE

Over the last three years, the author had been engaged in the development and implementation of a mentoring program for at-risk families. In viewing literature, talking with others, and observing similar programs, a training manual was designed. After numerous training sessions and when the program became operational, there was a “gap” in training, implementation, and outcomes. After entering the Leadership and Christian Ministry program at The Southern Baptist Theological Seminary in Louisville, Kentucky, the author began to realize that the mentoring process is a leadership and management process. “Leaders lead change.” The author assumed that there was a significant presence of management practices in training and a limited presence of leadership practices. Practice, for this study, is defined as the performance (activity) or exercise (skill) repeated in order to improve or maintain proficiency. If the desired outcome for the mentees is one of change (becoming self-sufficient), the training must include leadership and management practices.

The purpose of this study was to discover the successful leadership practices used in volunteer mentor training. Once identified and included in a training manual, these leadership practices along with the management may ultimately enhance the effectiveness of the volunteer mentors.

I would like to thank God, who provided and is still providing me with strength. Without His strength this work would not have been possible. Many thanks

also to my dissertation supervisor, Hal K. Pettegrew, for his wise counsel throughout the program and especially the dissertation phase of my studies. I would also like to thank Dennis E. Williams for his valuable input and feedback in the writing of this dissertation. Many thanks are offered to Evalyn Sanford and Fannie Pumphrey, who tirelessly proofread my papers. To Paulina Thompson for the diligent manner in which she helped me with the interlibrary loan of books and articles and other valuable assistance, I also offer thanks. I would also like to thank the Reverend Marvin Johnson for his assistance with the statistical analysis of my dissertation. To Deacon Horace Adams for his kindness in providing cartridges for my printer throughout my studies, I extend a sincere thanks. Further, a heartfelt thanks is extended to my family, pastor, and church family for their love, encouragement, and support in allowing me the opportunity and time to continue my education.

Barbara Cain Cottrell

Louisville, Kentucky

December 2004

CHAPTER 1

RESEARCH CONCERN

The Greek word, *ekklesia*, used in the New Testament for *church* means “called out” (Guthrie 1994, 351). The church is a community of people who are called out of the world to be God’s people. To end the definition without some interpretation would lead one to assume that Christians would remain within the four walls of the church and be isolated from the world. The purpose, however, of their coming together is twofold. “First, it is to receive God’s judging, forgiving, and renewing grace. Second, it is to be sent out again to be agents of God’s judgment, forgiveness, reconciliation, and renewal in the world” (Guthrie 1994, 351-52).

The classical definition of church says nothing about the church having a task to fulfill. Preaching, ordinances, and internal discipline are indispensable, but they are not all of the ways the people of God are ministered to. A too inclusive emphasis on those pastors’ tasks has resulted in the idea that the main function of the church is to care for itself and tend to the spiritual needs of its own members. This is only half of it. According to the New Testament, Christians enter into the company of God’s people by baptism, hearing the word of God preached, receiving new life and strength as they break bread together and disciplining themselves in order to be sent back into the world as servants or “ambassadors” of Christ (2 Cor 5:20). Missionaries are not the only ones who have been commissioned to be sent in to the world as servants. Those in the body of

Christ have been commissioned. With this in mind, this study focused on the training of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations. Many volunteer mentors view themselves as people who are called out in order to be sent out, to serve God. Christ came to express God's love not just for Christians and the church but for all people—for the whole world. "For God loved the world so much that he gave his only Son, so that everyone who believes in him may not die but have eternal life" (John 3:16). He is the risen Lord who is at work not only in the church but everywhere, even among people who do not recognize or acknowledge His liberating, reconciling, healing work.

There are literally thousands of books written on the subjects of training, leadership, and volunteer mentoring. Mentoring is used in business, government, education, military, religion, community and health care organizations. Training is necessary when mentoring is a formal process. The focus for this study was centered on the formal process of training volunteer mentors in nonprofit organizations serving at-risk mentees. The volunteer mentor training practice arises out of the very essence of equipping the volunteer mentors with skills and knowledge by which they can "commit people to action, convert followers into leaders, and convert leaders into change agents" (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 3). The researcher observed in mentor training manuals that behavioral information is provided; however, there appears to be an omission of leadership theories which could help in the practical implementation of the behavioral information provided.

Many nonprofit organizations that serve at-risk mentees seek as the mentees' outcome, a new way of life by developing a personal relationship with Christ and thus becoming productive members of society. Some at-risk mentees lack the life skills, which include initiative, flexibility, perseverance, organization, effort, responsibility,

patience, and cooperation, to achieve self-sufficiency or have life abundantly. One purpose of a nonprofit Christian organization is to bring people to the knowledge and service of God through Jesus Christ, using programs dealing with these social issues.

In nonprofit Christian organizations, the leadership provided by the volunteer mentors to at-risk mentees enhances the probability of mentees having successful outcomes. More recent definitions and studies of leadership have focused on leadership as bringing about change, vision and empowering others (Rost 1993, 149; Bennis and Nanus 1985, Nanus and Dobbs 1999, 8; Kouzes and Posner 1997, 18). The leadership theories provide a format in which influence and guidance are key components.

According to Bennis and Nanus, there are almost 350 definitions of leadership. Literally thousands of empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted in the last seventy-five years alone, but no clear and unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders, and perhaps more important, what distinguishes *effective* leaders from *ineffective* leaders and *effective* organizations from *ineffective* organizations (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 4).

Management practices or functions are also incorporated in volunteer mentor training. According to Rost, management is an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate the activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services (Rost 1991, 145). Management is utilizing the abilities and capacities of people to get things done (Hill 1984, 61). Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson define management as the process of working with and through individuals and groups and other resources (such as equipment, capital, and technology) to accomplish organizational goals (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 8).

In the last hundred years, the science of management has developed. While management was defined as “the ability to work through others,” today most definitions are similar to the one offered by Courtland Bouee. In his book *Management*, he defines management as “the process of attaining organizational goals by effectively and efficiently planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization’s human, physical, financial, and informational resources” (Bouee 1993, 5).

The focus of the mentoring training in this research study was for learning in order to enhance performance. This is not a value judgment, but an attempt to be specific about volunteer mentor training. The volunteer mentor training model assists the volunteer mentors to help the at-risk mentees to acquire mutual goals which result in the mentees becoming productive members of society. The volunteer mentor training is an open model which means it is a working hypothesis, which has outside factors that cannot be identified at the onset; it is descriptive, and tends to be verbal. The volunteer mentor, therefore, should be trained in practices that would better prepare them to help the at-risk mentees achieve the their goals.

The researcher used both the qualitative and the quantitative research methods to gain insight into the leadership training practice for volunteer mentors, that addresses practical implementation in nonprofit Christian organizations, serving at-risk mentees.

Research Purpose

In light of the fact that leadership theories, when properly implemented, bring about the desired outcomes (change) and in light of the fact that the desired outcome for at-risk mentees is changed behavior, the purpose of this study was to analyze the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees.

Delimitations of the Proposed Research

There are many organizations where volunteers provide services at no cost. These organizations include churches, hospitals, schools, the business sector, Virginia Department of Social Services and Women's Missionary Union (Christian Women's Job Corp), boys' and girls' clubs and camps. There are also organizations, which provide mentoring services for which the individuals are paid. This study, however, focused on organizations which provide mentoring at no cost. This study was delimited to these organizations because of the convenience of the network resource.

Although common ground may exist with other organizations who profess similar world views and value systems, this study is delimited to include those who, by a spoken or a written profession, claim to be "Christian." As is noted in the "Population" section of Chapter 3, no "litmus test" has been administered to determine the validity of the claim. The researcher assumes that the nonprofit Christian organizations are based on a Christian foundation and no type of measure is used to determine the organizations' biblical stance.

There are many organizations that have volunteers who serve as mentors. These organizations include for-profit and nonprofit organizations and secular and religious organizations. Due to the researcher's experience in the faith world of Protestant Christianity, the study centered on nonprofit Christian organizations.

The research study is further delimited to the nonprofit Christian organizations whose volunteer mentors received formal training provided by their organizations. The formal training was internal (provided by the organization) or external (provided by an outside agency such as an association or experts in the field).

The study was also delimited to the use of Cnaan's and others' definitions of the five elements of volunteering, which allow for significant differences in interpretation within clearly delineated boundaries. The five elements of delineation are used in setting the parameters for a volunteer who is a mentor. The first element is reward. The volunteer who is a "mentor" should not be undertaking the activity primarily for financial gain. Any financial reimbursements should be less than the value of the work provided. The second element is that of "free will." The framework accepts that it may be difficult to uphold the pure idea (altruistic) of free will in all volunteering interaction. People's motivation to volunteer will perhaps include mixed reasons, but it must draw the boundary around any overt attempt to force people to participate. The third element is the nature of benefit. The conceptual framework allows an identifiable beneficiary or group of beneficiaries that may include the environment or society other than (or besides) the volunteer's immediate family or friends. This conceptual framework allows for self-help and mutual aid to be included, but would rule out caring for dependent relatives. The issue of organizational setting is fourth. The broad framework allows for both formal and informal involvement which, may be carried out in corporate or private sectors. The main distinction between formal and informal mentoring is in how the relationship is formed. In an informal mentoring relationship, the relationship is not managed, structured or formally recognized by the organization. Usually they are unplanned, impromptu relationships in which an organization does not participate. The final element is commitment. The sporadic (short-term commitment that has a well-defined job description) or levels of high commitment are both embraced in the broad framework of the definition of volunteering. There should be some degree of sustained commitment whether sporadic or a high level of dedication (Handy et al. 1998).

Although there are many protégés, copartners, mentees, clients, or clientele with specific special needs which may be served by volunteer mentors, this research focused on at-risk mentees because of the availability of the participants through the networking resources.

Due to the researcher's regional location and the convenience and availability of networking resources within the state, this study was delimited to volunteers who serve as mentors in the state of Virginia, USA.

Research Questions

Recognizing the omission of the essential leadership practices for implementation of the behavioral information presented in training, the following research questions were investigated:

1. What management training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
2. What leadership training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
3. To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with management training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
4. To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
5. What do volunteer mentors perceive to be effective leadership training practices in equipping volunteer mentors?

Terminology

Certain terms and phrases are used throughout this study that may be misperceived due to the usage of the author or the personal exposures and experiences of the reader. For the sake of this study, the following definitions are provided as guides to the author's intentions and understanding.

At-risk. In a potential dangerous situation: exposed to danger or harm of some kind (Encarta World English Dictionary, North American ed., s.v. “at-risk”). The ten categories which are elements of family life used determining if and where a family is at-risk are:

1. Shelter—lives in temporary or shared housing: Spends 1/3 of the income for shelter: Deterioration of housing conditions: Feels afraid in home or neighborhood
2. Nutrition—not enough food, family members are hungry: Unable to prepare food: Little or no nutritional knowledge: Eat when food is available
3. Alcohol/Drug Use—use of illegal drugs/abuse of alcohol or prescription drugs: Abuser denies problems, refuses to seek treatment: No discussion of drugs/alcohol usage in home, parents exhibit abusive behavior
4. Employment—minimum/entry level job skills: Short-term temporary or no employment, no benefits, no growth opportunities: Lack job seeking skills
5. Adult education—school dropout, history of academic failure: Does not consider learning important: Does not set or pursue systematic career and personal goals
6. Children’s education-high absenteeism: Failing one or more subjects: Continual discipline problem: Children in conflict with other students
7. Parenting—outside placement, threatened children have run away from home: Unrealistic or nonexistent rules, constant conflict: Children unhappy, withdrawn, violently aggressive: Fearful of parent
8. Family relations—members do not relate to one another: Isolated from others: No family identity, family make-up changes frequently: Nurturing withheld, members are subjected to physical violence. (Young n.d., 16)

Leadership. Leadership is a process that ordinary people use when they are bringing forth the best from themselves and others (Kouzes and Posner 1995, xx). It is also defined as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose (Rost 1993, 102).

Management. Management is to get things done through people (Lovin and Casstevens 1971, 61). According to Rost, management is an authority relationship

between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate those activities and sell particular goods and/or services (Rost 1993, 145). Management is a set of processes that can keep a complicated system of people and technology running smoothly (Kotter 1996, 25). Management is utilizing the abilities and capacities of people to get things done (Hill 1984, 61). Management is also defined as the process of working with and through individuals and groups and other resources (such as equipment, capital, and technology) to accomplish organizational goals (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 8). Management is defined as “the ability to work through others,” Today most definitions are similar to the one offered by Courtland Bouee, in his book *Management*: “Management is the process of attaining organizational goals by effectively and efficiently planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization’s human, physical, financial, and informational resources” (Bouee 1993, 5).

Mentee and/or *protégé*. These terms will be used interchangeably. A person who is guided or helped in his career by another person with money or influence (*Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language*, 2nd ed., s.v. “protégé”). The person who is being mentored (Young 2001).

Mentoring. Mentoring is a one-to-one relationship of mutual commitment, caring and trust between a more experienced person and a younger person (*Encarta World English Dictionary*, North America 2nd ed., s.v. “mentoring”); Finkelmeier 1995, 15; Wilson 1999). Mentoring is a trusted and experienced individual freely acting as a friend, advisor, coach, guide, teacher, or role model to someone less experienced and in need of such a relationship (Ferronato n.d., 6; Kelly and Schweitzer 1999, 130-149). Mentoring has been defined also as a process of an integrated approach to advising, coaching, and nurturing, focused on creating a viable relationship to enhance individual

career/personal/professional growth and development (Adams 1998; Young 2001; Colwell 1998, 313-15). Crow and Matthews define mentoring in an administrative context which involves a person who is active, dynamic, visionary, knowledgeable, and skilled with a committed philosophy that keeps the teaching and learning of students in focus; and who guides leaders to be similarly active and dynamic (Crow and Matthews 1998). A mentor is seen as “one who helps another walk life’s path, meet one’s challenges, and accomplish goals” (Gangel 1997, 257). While the professional and popular literature is fairly consistent about this definition of mentoring, for the purposes of this research, formal mentoring has the following characteristics:

1. a deliberate, conscious, voluntary relationship
2. that may or may not have a specific time limit;
3. that is sanctioned or supported by the corporation, organization, or association (by time, acknowledgment of supervisors or administrators, or is in alignment with the mission or vision of the organization)
4. that occurs between an experienced, employed, or a retired person (the mentor) and one or more other persons (the partners);
5. and typically takes place between members of an organization, corporation, or association, or between members of such entities and individuals, external to or temporarily associated with such entities
6. who are generally not in a direct, hierarchical or supervisory chain-of-command
7. where the outcome of the relationship is expected to benefit all parties in the relationship (albeit at different times) for personal growth, career development, lifestyle enhancement, spiritual fulfillment, goal achievement, and other areas mutually designated by the mentor and partner
8. with benefit to the community within which the mentoring takes place;
9. and such activities taking place on a one-to-one, small group, or by electronic or telecommunication means, and

10. typically focused on interpersonal support, guidance, mutual exchange, sharing of wisdom, coaching, and role modeling. (Peer Resources 2003)

Nonprofit organizations. Groups of people getting together around a mutual interest to perform a community service (Hummel 1980, 3). Organizations that are private in structure yet nonprofit seeking (Salamon 1984, 262). The collective name used to describe institutions and organizations in American society that are neither government nor business. Other names often used include not-for-profit, the third sector, the independent sector, the philanthropic sector, the voluntary sector, or the social sector. Outside the United States, nonprofit organizations are often called non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or civil society organizations. Jon Van Til defines nonprofit organizations as institutions that are pulled together by people in a way that makes collective meaning out of actions that are important to them (Herman and Associates 1994, 45). “One of the principal differences between not-for-profit and commercial organizations is that they have different reasons for their existence. In oversimplified terms, it might be said that the ultimate objective of a commercial organization is to realize net profit for its owners through the provision of some product or performance of some service wanted by other people; whereas the ultimate objective of a not-for-profit organization is to meet some socially desirable need of the community or its members” (Gross, Larkin, Bruttomesso, and McNally 1995, 9).

Training or to train. Training is called education, development, training and development, and adult education in business and industry. Nadler prefers to call training Human Resource Development (Nadler 1982, 1). Training is also defined as “the lessons, practices, drills, etc. given to one who is being trained” (*Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language*, 2nd ed., s.v. “training”). To train is “to cause to

undergo certain action, exercise, etc. so as to bring about a desired outcome; to guide the mental, moral, etc. the development of; bring up; rear; to teach so as to become fully skilled” (*Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language*, 2nd ed., s.v. “train”).

Procedural Overview

The researcher used a two-phase approach in this study. The use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches allowed the researcher to make the assumption that any inherent biases in particular data sources and methods were neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources and methods (Jick 1979). Additional reasons for combining methods in a single study include:

1. Seeking convergence of results
2. Complementary, in the overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge (e.g., peeling the layers of an onion)
3. Developmentally, wherein the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method
4. Initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge
5. Expansion, wherein the mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study. (Creswell 1994, 174; Greene, Caracelli and Graham 1989, 255-74; Mathison 1988, 13-17)

Two phases were used in the study to analyze the leadership training practices of volunteer mentors. Phase 1 of the study used the qualitative approach. The researcher used an ethnographic design to gain insight into the volunteer mentor culture.

No other research tradition matches the ability of ethnography to investigate the complex phenomenon known as culture. Its holistic orientation enables a skillful researcher to identify diverse elements of a culture and weave them into coherent patterns. The description of these patterns provides codes, as it were, for ‘reading’ the culture. A good ethnography, in the words of Wolcott, ‘enables one to anticipate and interpret what goes on in a society or social group as appropriately as one of its members.’ (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 617)

Ethnographies were first used in cultural anthropology, but are now used in sociology, psychology, and also education. “The concept of the type of ‘culture’ that can be studied has also changed over time: Whereas ethnographies once focused on large cultural units (e.g., the islands of Samoa), in recent years they have been used to study such ‘cultures’ as massage parlors, kindergartens, and homeless shelters” (Leedy and Ormrod 1985, 151).

In Phase 1 the researcher contacted state and local agencies to locate nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees in the state of Virginia. After identifying the organizations, the researcher gained entry into one organization to interview its volunteer mentors by contacting the director of the program. Permission was solicited to interview the volunteer mentors about the training they received to equip them to serve at-risk mentees. The advantages of using interviewing for data collection are that interviewees can provide historical information and it allows the researcher control over the line of questioning (Creswell 1994, 151).

The researcher developed interview questions that were structured to provide demographic information and information about the training received by the volunteer mentees in the nonprofit Christian organization. The interview questions were developed from precedent literature. The mentor population was solicited to participate in the study to gain insight into the leadership training practices needed to prepare volunteer mentors to serve the at-risk mentees. A Likert scale questionnaire was created from the responses of the volunteer mentors interviewed.

For the quantitative phase of the study, which was Phase 2, the researcher selected nonprofit Christian organizations with volunteer mentors from the Virginia Department of Social Services data bases, local mentoring programs, and the Christian

Women's Job Corp, which is a ministry of the Women's Missionary Union. Using the Likert scale questionnaire developed from the interviews with the respondents in Phase 1 and precedent literature, the volunteer mentors in the organizations were surveyed to determine the training practice they received.

According to Gall, Borg, and Gall, the process of gaining entry into the culture varies greatly depending on the nature of the research problem and the requirements of the case (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 612). To gain entry into the mentor culture, a letter was mailed to the contact persons (directors or executive directors). A questionnaire was included to determine the following: (1) the status of the organization-- nonprofit and Christian, (2) if the organization served at-risk mentees, (3) if the organization would participate in the researcher's study and (4) the number of volunteer mentors who were willing to participate. The survey was mailed with a self-addressed envelope to the nonprofit Christian organizations who responded to the invitation to participate in the study.

The researcher, then, sent reminders to the nonprofit Christian organizations who did not return the survey. Some organizations received email reminders and post cards were mailed to organizations that did not have email. The results were tabulated as surveys were received from the organizations. The data was analyzed and the findings were reported using tables and graphs with conclusions being drawn from the data.

Research Assumptions

Religion appears to have a particular influence on volunteering. Organizations with a Judeo-Christian tradition appear to be most associated with the development of voluntary associations and formal philanthropic voluntary activities (Smith 1999, 3). The focus of the study addressed the concern of religious commitment but acknowledged that

those who have leadership positions in their faith do serve as volunteers in a variety of organizations outside their churches. The study, therefore, focuses on nonprofit Christian organizations.

There are four different types of volunteer activity, according to a final outcome or final purpose criterion: mutual aid or self-help, philanthropy or service to others, participation, and advocacy or campaigning (Smith 1999, 4). This study will focus on the area of philanthropy or service to others with minor overlapping in the other three areas. The research centered on the training of volunteer mentors who serve at-risk mentees. Some at-risk mentees are young individuals who are in potentially dangerous situations who receive help, guidance, and support from someone who is older and has more experience or influence.

The final assumption is that the information presented in this research is intended to be of use to volunteer mentors and volunteer administrators and will help the administrators in the leadership training of volunteer mentors. The researcher was aware that the process of mentoring, in a one-on-one relationship of mutual commitment, caring, and trust between a more experienced person and a younger person, has an effect of eliciting a positive change in behavior. The overall goal is the inclusion of a leadership training practice which will enhance the effectuation of the volunteer mentors as they serve the at-risk mentees. In serving at-risk mentees, one major goal is positive change. In leadership training, the major focus is to bring about change. The essential leadership training practice will help in the overarching goals of the nonprofit Christian organizations whose focus is to bring persons to the knowledge and service of God through Jesus Christ with programs dealing with social concerns.

The researcher's long-term goal is to develop a leadership training manual

for volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees which will accentuate the leadership practice to enhance the achievement of mentee goals. The leadership practice, when implemented with consistency, will bring about the necessary socialization and life skills in willing at-risk mentees' lives.

The researcher assumes that there is a difference in management and leadership. Warren Bennis, a highly regarded scholar, differentiate the extremes of management and leadership in a number of provocative ways:

Leaders conquer the context—the volatile, turbulent, ambiguous surroundings that sometimes seem to conspire against us and will surely suffocate us if we let them—while managers surrender to it. The manager administrates; the leader innovates. The manager is a copy; the leader is an original. The manager maintains; the leader develops. The manager focuses on systems and structure; the leader focuses on people. The manager relies on control; the leader inspires trust. The manager has a short range-view; the leader has a long range perspective. The manager asks how and when; the leader asks what and why. The manager has an eye on the bottom line; the leader has his eye on the horizon. The manager imitates; the leader originates. The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it Managers do things right; leaders do the right thing. (Bennis 1994, 12)

The researcher assumes the position that leaders are born and made. Whether leadership can be learned is an issue that has perplexed researchers for decades. If leaders are born, why spend time reading and developing skills? The leadership success or failure has already been determined. If leaders are made, then everyone can become a leader. As Jay Conger suggests,

These perspectives are quite different, and their implications for the training and development of leaders are profoundly different. If leadership ability is genetically determined, training could hardly play a role in its development. But if leadership is learned through experiences, training might well be used to develop new skills and to help synthesize past experiences into insights. (Conger 1992, 15)

CHAPTER 2

PRECEDENT LITERATURE

The research concern has literature precedents in at least six areas: theology, volunteerism, mentoring, leadership, management, and andragogy. The research problem is driven by the concept of volunteer mentor training. The purpose of formal training for volunteer mentors in nonprofit organizations for this study is to equip leaders to bring about transformation.

Theological Presuppositions Concerning Mentoring

Numerous theologians postulate that the symbol *imago Dei* or *image of God* describes human life in relationship with God and with the other creatures. To be a human being in God's image is to live in fellowship not only with God but also with our fellow human beings (Guthrie 1994, 202). The *imago Dei*, expresses self-transcending life in relationship with others with God, and with all those different others who need our help and whose help we also need in order to be what God intends for us to be (Migliore 1991, 122). It is not like an image permanently stamped on a coin. It is more like an image permanently reflected in a mirror. That is, human beings are created for life in relationships that mirror or correspond to God's own life in relationship. In viewing the different leadership theories, Rost defines leadership as an influence relationship. The

influence is multidirectional and noncoercive and involves unequal relationship between leaders and followers (Rost 1991, 102-03).

We cannot restrict the exegesis of the *imago Dei* or *image of God* only to the first chapter of Genesis. In the light of humankind's fallen humanity and new humanity in Christ, Christian faith and theology (the life, death and resurrection of Jesus) constitutes the decisive norm of both true divinity and true humanity. Just as the incarnate Lord lived in utmost solidarity with sinners and the poor, and just as the eternal life of God is a triune society of love that is open to the world, so humanities' coexistence with others is intended to be a creaturely reflection of the living God.

The volunteer mentor requires an undergirding character that honors, encourages, and cares deeply for those that are to be served through mentoring because it is relational. These relational core values correspond to the biblical virtues of faith, hope and love. Many mentors who volunteer in nonprofit organizations view the mentoring process from a Biblical perspective. Galatians 6:2, 10 addresses the relational concern: "Help carry one another's burdens and this way you will obey the law of Christ. So then, as often as we have the chance, we should do good to everyone, and especially to those who belong to our family in the faith" (Gal 6:2, 10 GNB). A similar concept appears in Matthew 29:19 (GNB): "Go, then, to all peoples everywhere and make them my disciples: baptize them in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit." Many volunteer mentors realize that the process of mentoring is relational and is thus fulfilling the *imago Dei* (*image of God*) or *imago Christi* (*image of Christ*). The fulfillment of humanity, *imago Dei* (*image of God*) or *imago Christi*, (*image of Christ*) leads one to seek to become thoroughly prepared in all areas of the mentoring process. This occurs by

the mentors participating in volunteer mentor training so they can better serve the at-risk mentees.

Biblical Teaching and Training Presuppositions Concerning Mentoring

Reference is made in Scripture, “to teach great truths to trustworthy people who are able to pass them onto others” (2 Tim 2:2). If churches were to follow this advice consistently, it would expand geometrically, as well-taught believers would teach others and commission them, in turn, to teach still others. Disciples need to be equipped to pass on their faith; the work is not complete until new believers are able to make disciples of others. Ephesians 4:12, 13 says “Their responsibility is to equip God’s people to do their work and build up the church, the body of Christ, until we come to such unity in our faith and knowledge of God’s Son, that we will be mature and full grown in the Lord, measuring up to the full stature of Christ.”

The definition of training applicable to this study is, “to teach so as to make fully skilled” (*Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language*, 2nd ed., s.v. “train”). It implies the development of a particular ability or skill, or instruction directed toward a particular job, or career. Some synonyms for the word train are teach, instruct, educate, and school.

SYN.—**teach** is the most common word for the giving of knowledge or for showing how to do something, usually by spending time with each student . . . ; **instruct** implies teaching according to some system, usually in a particular subject . . . ; **educate** stresses the development of the abilities of the skills of a student in various ways and various subjects, especially, in institutions of higher learning . . . ; **school** sometimes suggests training that helps one to do something difficult . . . (*Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language*, 2nd., s.v. “train”).

From a biblical perspective, the definition of training is “to guide the mental,

moral, etc. development of; bring up; rear” (*Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language*, 2nd., s.v. “train”). In viewing Scripture, observances are made both in the Old and New Testaments of training and teaching. Some purposes for the writing of the book of Proverbs is to teach people how to attain wisdom and discipline, a prudent life, and how to do what is right, just and fair—in short, to apply divine wisdom to daily life and to provide moral instruction. The Scriptural verse, “Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old he will not depart from it” is an example of such instruction (Prov 22:6). Training is also seen in the book of Exodus—how Moses at the suggestion of his father-in-law, Jethro, trained judges to arbitrate the matters brought before them by the Israelite people (Exod 18:13-27). In the New Testament, Priscilla and Aquilla instructed Apollos of Alexandria: “And he began to speak boldly in the synagogue: whom when Aquila and Priscilla had heard, they took him unto them, and expounded unto him the way of God more perfectly” (Acts 18:26). In the Gospel according to Luke Jesus said “. . . but everyone who is fully trained will be like his teacher” (Luke 6:40b).

Biblical Management Presuppositions Concerning Mentoring

An observation is made that the term manage or management is not found in the King James Version of the Bible. In other interpretations of the Bible, New International Version, Life Application, New American Standard Version, New Living Translation, and others have the words *manage* and *management* included in their translations. The definitions for manage include to be in charge of; supervise; run; administer and regulate (resources). Another word used in the Bible for manage is

steward or stewardship. A steward is defined as a person who manages a large house or estate. The *Life Application Bible* defines manage(r) or managing as, “to steward the resources of another; a person put in charge of a household or organization” (*Life Application Bible* 1996, 2203). Several passages of Scripture which denote the practice of management are:

I hereby appoint you to direct this project. You will manage my household and organize all my people. Only I will have a rank higher than yours (Gen 41:40). Joanna, the wife of Chuza, Herod’s business manager; Suzanna; and many others were contributing from their own resources to support Jesus and his disciples. (Luke 8:3)

And the Lord replied, “I’m talking to my faithful, sensible servant to whom the master gives the responsibility of managing his household and feeding his family.” (Luke 12:42)

Jesus told this story to his disciples: “A rich man hired a manager to handle his affairs, but some rumor went around that the manager was thoroughly dishonest” (Luke 16:1).

Now, a person who is put in charge as a manager must be faithful (1 Cor 4:2). He must manage his own household well, with his children who respect and obey him. For if a man cannot manage his own household, how can he take care of God’s church? (1Tim 3:4-5)

Biblical Leadership Presuppositions Concerning Mentoring

In the Old Testament there are examples of leaders who were mentors. An example is the relationship between Moses and Jethro. Moses was in a new situation of leadership, and he had exhausted himself trying to be the leader that God had called him to be (Exod 18:1-27). He reached, however, a juncture in his life when the problems began to affect him. When Moses would take his seat to serve as judge, he ministered to the people from morning to evening (Exod 18:13). His days became bombarded with things that kept him from doing the work that he really needed to do, and his father-in-law was concerned. As Moses and Jethro, his father-in-law, entered the tent, Moses began to share all of the wonderful things that God had done for Israel.

In the morning, Jethro noticed that Moses was busy doing an abundance of work, and he suggested that Moses delegate some of the work, “Listen now to me and I will give you some advice, and may God be with you” (Exod 18: 19 NIV). An example of mentoring is demonstrated here. A mentor must be one who can offer sound advice.

The mentor’s influence is felt not only by the mentee, but also benefits others who begin to look to the mentee for advice. This God we serve makes use of the wisdom, insight, imagination and common sense of the Jethros of this world to make divine will be known, to be of assistance to the religious community and in the furtherance of the divine purposes. This biblical model shows that effective mentoring has the potential of making the mentee a mentor. Moses’ relationship with Joshua provides further evidence of the power of a well-developed mentee.

When God selected Joshua as the next leader of the Israelites (Num 27:15-17), Moses gave him a variety of tasks to provide guidance and ease of transition for both Joshua and the people (Num 27: 15-21). In the relationship between Moses and Joshua, a constant flow of sharing and encouraging were exhibited. The practices of sharing and encouraging help to prepare the mentees to assume leadership roles.

Saul is another example of a leader who had the responsibility to mentor but was ineffective because of his insecurity and jealousy (1 Sam 18:6-13). Deborah, a prophetess and a judge, mentored Barak. She provided him with wise counsel, which came from the Lord, and encouragement for going into battle.

Mentoring is a one-to-one relationship of mutual commitment, caring and trust between a more experienced person and a younger person or a less experienced person (Finkelmeier 1995, 15). A mentor is also seen as “one who helps another walk

life's path, meet life's challenge, and accomplish goals" (Gangel 1997, 257). The more experienced person in many ways is in effect overseeing the development of the less experienced person.

The biblical basis for mentoring includes the following passages from the New Testament and addresses the feature of modeling in mentoring:

He appointed twelve—designating them apostles—that they might be with him and that he might send them out to preach. (Mark. 3:14)

Therefore I urge you to imitate me. (1 Cor 4:16)

Follow my example, as I follow the example of Christ. (1 Cor 11:1)

Join with others in following my example, brothers, and take note of those who live according to the pattern we gave you. (Phil 3:17)

Whatever you have learned or whatever you have heard from me, or even seen in me—put it into practice. And the God of peace will be with you. (Phil 4:9)

Let the word of Christ dwell in you richly as you teach and admonish one another with all wisdom, and as you sing psalms, hymns, and spiritual songs with gratitude in your hearts to God. (Col 3:16)

You became imitators of us and of the Lord; in spite of severe suffering, you welcomed the message with the joy given by the Holy Spirit. And you became a model to all the believers in Macedonia and Achaia. The Lord's message rang out from you not only in Macedonia and Achaia—your faith in God has become known everywhere. Therefore we do not need to say anything about it. (1 Thess 1:6-8)

Don't let anyone look down on you because you are young, but set an example for the believers in speech, in life, in love and purity (1Tim 4:12)

You, however, know all about my teaching, my way of life, my purposes, faith, patience, love, endurance . . . (2 Tim 3:10).

In everything set them an example by doing. In your teaching show integrity, seriousness and soundness of speech that cannot be condemned, so that those who oppose you may be ashamed because they have nothing bad to say about us (Titus 2:7-8).

Remember your leaders, who spoke the word of God to you. Consider the outcome of their way of life and imitate their faith (Heb 13:7).

Not lording it over those entrusted to you, but being examples to the flock (1 Pet 5:3).

Dear friend, do not imitate what is evil but what is good. Anyone who does what is good is from God. Anyone who does what is evil has not seen God. (3 John 11) (Hendricks and Hendricks 1995)

We also see throughout the Gospels, the use of the leadership practice by Jesus as He mentored His disciples. As Jesus taught in parables, He fully explained

the meaning of the parables to His disciples. He constantly empowered His disciples even allowing them to have small wins by sending them out into the town or place where he was about to go (Luke 9:1-6; Luke 10:1). Jesus established a relational atmosphere of risk taking for change where He guided, influenced, encouraged and empowered—inspiring creativity, vision and mutual purpose. It appears that the serious relationship Jesus has with His disciples was designed to ensure an ongoing process of the mentee becoming the mentor.

In the John 1:35-51, the writer sheds light on the life of a mentor who invests His life to the ministry of servitude. The ministry of Jesus was in its early stage and His mission was great. He needed to embrace those that had a willingness to learn and to model His teachings. Jesus was influential; therefore, the disciples wanted to follow Him. He chose His disciples and began the process of mentoring. The disciples who responded to the call of Jesus began a journey of spiritual development.

What Jesus did with His life is unparalleled. He literally developed these individuals from diverse backgrounds and ideologies into a group of individuals who shared a common vision and recognized their unique responsibility to be effective in the ministry of Christ. He told His disciples that the life of discipleship would bring them to a great awareness of who He is. He said, “I tell you the truth, you shall see greater things than that, I tell you the truth you shall see heaven open and the angels of God ascending and descending on the Son of Man” (John 1:50-51). Jesus revealed to His disciples that they would have insight into His true nature and purpose for coming. Mentors must be willing to reveal who they are. It is important to take this life of Jesus and model the ministry of mentoring after what Jesus did with His disciples.

The Apostle Paul also demonstrated leadership in mentoring. He refers to Timothy as his son (2 Tim 1:1). Paul's First and Second Letters to Timothy consist largely of personal advice to Timothy, a younger colleague and assistant. Paul also mentored Titus. Titus was a fellow worker and assistant to Paul in his missionary work. Paul said, "We did this, not because we do not have the right to such help, but in order to make ourselves a model for you to follow" (2 Thess 3:9).

The skills and talents that God has allowed a mentor to amass are more effective when a spiritual mentorship is provided. When a mentor invests who he is into the mentee, he is not developing a clone. The goal of mentorship is given so that the mentee is able to perform according to the mentee's abilities and talents. The Bible states in Deuteronomy 34:12, "That no one demonstrated the mighty power of the miracles performed by Moses in Israel." It is important for us to remember that mentoring is at its best when it inspires individuals to be the best that they can be and not to duplicate or imitate another.

Volunteerism

In American history, volunteering has a long and pervasive tradition. Since the days of Alex Tocqueville, commentators have noted the American propensity for forming voluntary groups of citizens to work on mutual problems and interests. Volunteering is one of the most commonplace activities in American society (Gallup Survey on Volunteering and Giving for the Independent Sector 1994; McCurley and Lynch 1996, 1). Volunteerism is also prevalent in other countries. The use of these volunteers contributes millions of hours of unpaid work that enables communities to have additional support and services that typically would not be available.

Many individuals volunteer because of their religious convictions (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 2; Ellis 1994, 21-24). The biblical base for volunteers in the church is based on the concept of the “call” to service (Pettegrew 1993, 1; Edge 1985; Stevens 1985). One author says:

By its very nature the church established by Christ was composed of volunteers, those who freely gave of their time and effort to the church without receiving financial compensation. When God calls an individual to receive Christ’s salvation, that individual is also set aside to serve others in Christ’s name (Wilson 1990, 52).

From rural Americans to inner-city neighbors, volunteers provide outreach programs that deal with today’s most pressing issues. Serving others is a means of serving God. It is putting faith into action.

In preparing to meet the task of volunteering, all volunteers need some level of orientation for their work with the organization. This preparation falls into two parts. One part is orientation—the process of preparing the volunteer for a clear relationship with the organization. The other part is training—the process of preparing the volunteer to perform work for the organization (McCurley and Lynch 1998, 63; Crow; Matthews 1996, 13-14; Nadler 1982, 7). If training is the focus, the training model must be related to the job as it is actually being accomplished by the individual. When recruiting the volunteers, they need to be made aware that they will be required to attend orientation and/or training sessions. “Orientation may be distinguished from training in that it is usually more general in nature, providing information every volunteer should know” (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 65). Volunteer training is designed to equip, better prepare, and/or enhance volunteers with skills and knowledge required to carry out their positions within the organization.

Orientation

Even if volunteers come to the job with the necessary skills, they still need some orientation to the organization. The challenge in the orientation is to provide enough information to give them confidence to go to their assignments ready to work, and to help them feel willing to ask questions and listen to the experts, who are their supervisors and colleagues. Orientation is the process of making volunteers feel comfortable with and understand the working of the organization. It is designed to provide them with background and practical knowledge of the organization and let them understand how they can contribute to the purpose of the organization. If the volunteers better understand, the organization's operation, and procedures, they will be able to contribute more productively. Crow and Matthews call this phase of orientation a perspective characteristic of socialization fitting into the organizations' culture (Crow and Matthews 1994, 19; Brim 1966, 1-50; Van Maanen and Schein 1979, 67-130). "The areas covered during the orientation process include: the cause, the systems for volunteer management, and the social environment for the volunteers (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 63).

The purpose of this portion of the orientation is to allow the volunteers to "join the cause." It is also designed to give the volunteer sufficient background to explain the organization if ever asked to do so. This occurs by a discussion of the following:

1. A description of the problem or cause
2. A description of the client's group
3. A description of the mission and values of the organization
4. A description of the history of the organization

5. A description of the programs and services of the organization
6. A description of other groups working in the same field, and their distinguishing characteristics from this organization
7. A description of future plans of the organization. (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 63)

This discussion will also allow the volunteer manager an opportunity to learn about the philosophies of each volunteer and determine if the volunteers are in agreement with the interests of the organization; it will allow the volunteer director to learn, for example, if a person is so motivated by a particular aspect of the cause that the volunteer might tend to go beyond organizational boundaries.

System Orientation

The system orientation includes the presentation of the following:

1. The structure and programs of the organization, with illustrations of what volunteers contribute to those programs
2. The system of volunteer involvement within the organization: policies and procedures
3. An introduction to facilities and equipment
4. A description of volunteer requirements and benefits
5. An introduction to record-keeping requirements
6. A description of the time lines of organization's activities key events. (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 64)

This portion of the orientation is to provide an organizational context for the volunteers and makes them understand how they fit into the processes of the organization. This material is often presented in a factual way, with charts, descriptive handouts, PowerPoint presentations, followed by a question and answer period to clarify issues. This part of the orientation session allows the volunteers to see how the role they will be

playing relates to the work of the organization. It shows them the basic requirements of that role and how that role links to other areas of the organization.

Social Orientation

The third subject area for orientation, social integration, introduces the volunteers to the social community that they are being asked to join and begins to forge the personal bonds that will sustain volunteer involvement. Included in this area of social integration are:

1. An introduction to the leadership of the organization (who might participate in the orientation by presenting or leading part of the discussion on the mission of the organization)
2. A “welcoming” by staff and current volunteers (through their participation in presenting subject areas or even as a purely social occasion)
3. A description of the culture and etiquette of the organization. (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 64)

The social introduction may occur in a variety of ways. It may be interspersed throughout the other stages. Introductions are made after the formal acceptance of a mentor, with the personal mentor or companion, who meets with them informally to welcome them into the organization and introduces them to its processes, with provision for support during their early development. It also consists of introducing the mentors to their future supervisors to discuss how they will be working together. It also consists of a welcoming party for new volunteers hosted by staff and current volunteers.

Conclusion for Orientation

The purpose of this part of the orientation is to show the volunteers with whom they will be working, and welcoming them into the social context of the organization.

The goal is also to show the volunteer that they are a welcome addition to the team.

Orientation is important because it answers the basic questions:

1. Cause orientation: Why should I be working here?
2. System Orientation: How will I be working here?
3. Social Orientation: How do I fit in with everyone else? (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 64)

These questions are crucial if the volunteer is to feel comfortable. A volunteer who does not feel right about these three aspects of volunteering will cease to feel a part of the organization. Much of the early retention loss in some volunteer programs is due to the absence of a good orientation. Orientation establishes a commitment between the organization and the volunteer, clearly establishing the intellectual, practical, and emotional bonds between the two.

Training

Since World War II, an impressive array of technologies and tools has been created to assist the manager. The new technologies include operations research, system analysis, systems and value engineering, computer and information science, and management science. Some of the new tools are linear programming, cost-effectiveness analysis, program evaluation review technique (PERT), performance and cost evaluation (PACE), critical path method (CPM), decision theory, sensitivity analysis, simulation, and modeling (Tracey 1971, 1).

Many of these technologies and techniques were originally designed and used in weapons systems development. These managerial innovations have been applied to political, economic, social, military, and industrial problems of increasingly broad scope

(Tracey 1971, 1). These systematic procedures are employed in designing training and developmental systems. There are common elements in the design and validation of training and development systems in all types of enterprises and at all levels.

Not only is training a system, it is also a highly complex system. Where there is system complexity, there is a need for a planning and control model to permit proper management of the system. Structure exists in training development systems no less than it does in weapons systems. “The system essentially consists of three major phases: (1) determination of system requirements, (2) system development, and (3) system validation. Each of the phases has several steps” (Tracey 1971, 5).

Training is called education, development, training and development, and adult education in business and industry. Nadler prefers to call training Human Resource Development (Nadler 1982, 1). Nadler’s training model, Critical Events Model (CEM) is useful for training—for learning programs related to on-the-job training. According to Nadler there are various reasons for learning related to work situations.

Leadership training in the business world addresses the need for change. Due to the fact that the business world is highly competitive, the way to survive is to reshape, to accommodate the needs of the changing society. Resistance to change leads to destruction or decay of the organization. Organizations in the business world are reshaping themselves to change quickly, in order to meet the needs of their customers. The Japanese have a term, *kaizen*, which means continual improvement. This is a never-ending quest to do better in the business world.

In military training, the process starts at the Recruit Training Command. The training comprises three major components: a formal curriculum, a positive military

environment, and a professional military staff committed to providing leadership, supervision, mentoring, counseling and positive reinforcement. The community organization leadership training program is very diverse with many special interest groups. It includes a variety of agendas: from civic involvement to social problems; from children to adults; from health to education; and from homes to recreation. Many of the organizations take the posture that instead of simply treating symptoms, this effort addresses root causes by giving participants the skills needed to be actively involved in solving these problems.

Training in educational leadership is ongoing as in the other areas receiving formal training. After receiving a degree, classes are taken to maintain certification in the area of study. For advancement (promotion) to occur in education, further studies must be pursued.

The process of training in nonprofit organizations is defined as providing volunteers with the ability to perform specific types of work (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 65). In designing volunteer training, three questions need to be answered: (1) What information do they need to perform the work successfully? (2) What skills do they need to perform the work successfully? (3) What attitudes or approaches do they need to perform the work successfully? Training to provide this information, develop these skills and engender these attitudes can be provided in three formats: formal sessions, coaching sessions, and counseling (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 65). According to Finkelmeier, there are four coaching roles in which the mentors could at times be, a teacher, counselor, promoter or role model (Finkelmeier 1985, 16). In mentor training the coaching role is situational in order to acquire the specific information, skill and attitudes or approaches.

Formal Training

Formal training will prepare volunteers for specific jobs. Sometimes this training can be lengthy, especially when volunteers are recruited who lack the specific job skills required by the position. Formal training can be presented in a variety of ways such as, lectures, readings, discussion, field trips, videos, panel discussions, demonstrations, role-playing, case studies, simulations, and more. To retain the attention of the audience the trainer uses a variety of techniques.

Regardless of the job for which the training is being provided, there are two primary content areas to cover in volunteer training. The first area is a description of the functions of the volunteer job to communicate to the volunteer: “(1) This is what you should do and accomplish in your job, (2) This is what you should not do, and (3) This is what you should do if you encounter the following situations” (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 65).

The second area is a description of roles and responsibilities. It would include training which communicates to the volunteers the web of relationships in which they will be working: (1) This is with whom you will be working and this is your role in the task and (2) This is the role and how it fits into the task (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 66).

Coaching

Coaching is a process of teaching or upgrading skills. It is a “one-on-one, intensive learning through demonstration and practice characterized by immediate feedback and correction” (Nadler 1982, 172). According to Lovin and Casstevens, “on-the-job coaching is personnel development, planned and performed in the workplace” (Lovin and Casstevens 1971, 59). It can be used also in formal training sessions. It will

most often be provided by the supervisor of the volunteer or a more experienced co-worker. According to Tracey,

. . . coaching is face-to-face counseling that involves a close and continuing relationship between a subordinate and his immediate superior. The purpose is objective analysis, by both superior and subordinate, of the subordinate's performance, so as to provide a means of developing managerial skill. It is also a valuable means orienting managerial personnel to their jobs. It helps the subordinate to understand how his superior sees organizational functions, relationships, and personalities. When analyses are made of a specific performance, both superior and subordinate are afforded an opportunity to learn why results were good or bad. In addition, particular managerial skills such as interpersonal relations and leadership can be discussed and evaluated. Coaching may be used as a training technique at all levels of management from first-line supervisor to the vice-presidential level. (Tracey 1971, 31)

Effective coaching follows a three-step process: (1) A demonstration of the skill to be learned or improved, (2) observation of the volunteer trying out the skill, and (3) feedback and analysis (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 66, Tracey 1971, 31). The skill can be demonstrated by any one expert in the area. Either the person demonstrating the skill or the coach (supervisor, trainer, or volunteer program manager) should explain why the expert is doing what he or she is doing. The point of the demonstration is not just to allow the volunteer to see what is being done but to allow him or her to understand it.

Both the person demonstrating the skill and the coach must have the right combination of personal qualities. The coach must have the desire to develop the abilities and talents of the trainee. He must have patience and the ability to teach. He must also be able to delegate. He must be confident (able to let the trainee make mistakes). The trainee must have confidence in his coach. He must be interested in his own development and must have enough confidence to use the authority delegated to him.

The principles followed by the coach, consciously or unconsciously, are directly related to his or her ideas about why people work and what makes them work

better. Douglas McGregor has suggested that a person's managerial style is determined by the assumption he makes about people's attitudes toward work (McGregor 1960, 33-57; Lovin and Casstevens 1971, 2-3; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 59-61). Since many manager's responsibilities may include coaching, these same assumptions affect his coaching style—the selection and application of coaching techniques, devices and strategies.

McGregor has identified two managerial theories which he calls Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor 1960, 33-57; Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson 2001, 59-61). Theory X assumes that the average person dislikes work, must be coerced to work, and wishes to avoid responsibility. Theory X espouses that external control is appropriate for dealing with unreliable and irresponsible mentees. Theory Y assumes that work is natural, that the average person will work hard for objectives of his own choosing and that he seeks responsibility. Theory Y organizations have cohesive work teams whose goals parallel organizational goals. In such organizations, there is high productivity, and people come to work gladly because work is inherently satisfying. Managers who accept Theory X assumptions attempt to structure, control, and closely supervise employees. It is less likely that a relationship will develop between the volunteer mentor and mentee if the volunteer mentor assumes the Theory X attitude or predisposition toward the mentee because of the assumption that the mentee will not want to work or achieve goals.

Drawing heavily on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor concluded that Theory X assumptions about human nature, when universally applied, are often inaccurate and that management approaches that develop from these assumptions may fail to motivate many individuals to work toward organizational goals. "Management by

direction and control may not succeed, according to McGregor, because it is a questionable method for motivating people whose physiological and safety needs are becoming predominate” (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 60).

Table 1. Assumptions About Human Nature That Underlie McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson 2001, 60)

Theory X	Theory Y
1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.	1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.	2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.	3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels.	4. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self actualization levels, as well as at the physiological and security levels.
5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.	5. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

Counseling

The goal of counseling is to assist the volunteer mentor in solving a problem or improving a behavior by getting the volunteer mentor to acknowledge a difficulty and taking responsibility for the improvement. The counselor is a source of psychological support and tries to build the protégés sense of self by acting as a sounding board to provide guidance on difficult moral and ethical issues as well as a confidante on personal

and professional matters (Finkelmeier 1995, 17). While coaching shows volunteer mentors how they might improve in job skills, counseling helps volunteer mentors discover how to improve their performance. The goal of counseling is to restore a feeling of control in the volunteer mentor's life by helping to find a course of action that will solve the problem. Counseling helps to explore, re-mediate, change, empower and develop the volunteer mentor's job performance.

As with coaching, the principle tool the effective manager employs in counseling is the question. The supervisor can use questions to help the volunteer mentor do these things:

1. Identify the problem: What is going wrong? What exactly is happening?
2. Identifying the cause of the problem: Why is the problem occurring? What is causing the problem? What factors in the situation are producing the problems?
3. Identify the alternatives: What are the alternatives you have in the situation? What else could you do? Have you considered this course of action? (Making a suggestion): What would happen if you tried that? Then what would happen?
4. Identify a better course of action: What are the strengths and weaknesses of each alternative? What can you do to solve the problem? What do you think might work?
5. Learn from your experiences: What can you do differently in the future? What would you do differently if you had it to do over again? (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 68-69)

A key point to remember is that it is acceptable to offer suggestions when counseling, offering additional information or suggestions for courses of action that the volunteer mentors might not see. In doing so, telling them what to do is discouraged. The role of the trainer or supervisor in counseling is to empower the volunteer mentors to come up with solutions. This allows them to develop ideas that originate from the volunteer mentors by having them analyze different courses of actions.

Mentoring

Mentoring is visualized since the first telling of a mythical legend of Odysseus. The role of mentor has been occurring since the beginning of humankind, but with the telling the legend of Odysseus, the role of mentor was defined. The source of the term *mentor* is found in Homer's epic *The Odyssey*. When Odysseus left on an adventurous journey to fight in the Trojan War, he gave the responsibility of nurturing his son, Telemachus, to his loyal friend, Mentor. In Odysseus's absence, Mentor educated and guided Telemachus. This education included every facet of his life, that is, physical, intellectual, spiritual, social, and administrative development (Clawson 1980, 144-56). Mentor not only provided help and assistance to Telemachus, but most important, taught Telemachus to think and act for himself (Kay 1990, 25-37). Homer gave us the name Mentor, which commonly refers to someone with more experience who teaches someone with less experience (Crow and Matthews 1998, 2).

As the process of mentoring evolved over time, it has been included not only in education, but also business, the church, and community. It is a popular intervention designed for those who are in need. Mentoring continues to be a one-on-one relationship of mutual commitment, caring and trust between a more experienced person and a younger person. A mentor teaches, challenges, and supports the person in need while serving as a role model and companion. Natural mentoring occurs when two people find each other through mutual needs and desires. In program-based mentoring, mentors and protégés or clients who are previously unknown are paired and supported by agencies. Mentoring activities are combined with other efforts for the protégé or client in order to maximize the positive effects on the protégé or client.

The mentor as a volunteer falls within the framework of the elements for a volunteer. Mentoring is a relational and life long process (cyclical). While many factors contribute to the reasons why a person will volunteer to be a mentor (life experiences, willingness to give back to society, altruism, learning a new challenge, support and time for volunteer work), recruiting of mentors can be a difficult task (McCurley 1996, 2; Ellis 1994, 28; Peer Resources 1999, 13). Often the persons considered being the best prospects for mentoring perceive themselves as having too little time for such an activity. This dilemma is called a paradox of mentoring; the more a program demands from a mentor such as orientation meetings, training, reporting and supporting other mentors, the smaller becomes the pool of adults to recruit as mentors. Employers and organizations that are willing to take on the tasks of coordinating a mentor program and finding volunteers within their own ranks, however, are more likely to be successful in enlarging the pool of potential volunteers.

Some words that identify the characteristics for mentors are guiding, nurturing, caring and experience. Individuals with mentors advance further, faster, and experience fewer adjustment problems than those without mentors (Adams 1994).

Informal and Formal Mentoring

Informal mentoring is little known and not well documented. This is surprising, as there is evidence of mentoring as far back as 850 B.C. (Finkelmeier 1995, 28).

The main distinction between informal and formal mentoring is in how the relationship is formed. In an informal mentoring relationship, the relationship is not

managed, structured or formally recognized by the organization. Usually they are unplanned, impromptu relationships in which an organization does not participate. Model I (Natural mentor), according to Peer Resources, is an example of informal mentoring (see Table 2).

“Informal mentoring relationships usually grow out of interactions between junior and senior employees within a company or other life situations” (Finkelmeier 1995, 28). These relationships can be work or non-work related issues and may be the avenue for the protégé to prove themselves to their possible mentor. It is also an opportunity to show that they are worth the extra time and energy in a mentoring relationship.

In the informal relationship, the mentor often chooses a protégé they can identify with in some way. The protégé somehow catches the attention of the mentor. The mentor then makes a decision to help develop and nurture the person. Another way informal relationships can be different is in the degree of motivation of both participants.

Formal mentoring relationships involve a certain amount of pressure. Both the mentor and the protégé may be required to be involved in the program as part of their jobs. This obligation could negatively affect or even decrease the mentor’s desire to help the protégé. It could have this same effect on the protégés’ attitude and willingness to hear and take advantage of the advice of the mentor. In the informal mentoring relationship there is a completely different dynamic. The relationship is established and sustained because the mentor and protégés both desire it and are motivated to make the relationship work. The mentor wants to help the protégés even if it means added time and energy to an already busy schedule. The protégés want the help, advice, and

expertise of the mentor, so the protégés are open to hear what the mentor has to say.

“Recent studies show informally mentored protégées report significantly greater career-related support than those mentored through formal relationships. The study also reveals those mentored informally report higher levels of organizational socialization by their mentor” (Finkelmeier 1995, 29). This socialization includes being introduced to the goals, values, politics, people, language, history, and performance proficiency of the organization. The study also indicates slightly higher levels of job satisfaction and salaries for those informally mentored over those in a formal program (Finkelmeier 1995, 29).

Some reasons informal mentoring seems to be so successful have to do with the similarity in interests and goals between mentors and protégés. The initiation stage is critical in the relationship and sets the tone for what is to be followed. Where the mentor chooses the protégés and initiates relationship, the outcome could potentially be very different from that of the formal relationship where the mentor has little or no input to the pairing. In the informal relationships it is more likely for the mentor to take risks, and be active in their role of advancing the protégée’s career. This aggressive representation is not easily performed for the protégée by a supervisor or coworker, thus showing the uniqueness of the informal mentor’s role.

Career related functions are those most valued by the protégée. Career related functions include coaching, protection and sponsorship. These functions are best achieved in the context of informal mentoring.

Another reason informal mentoring has been successful may be attributable to informal mentors accurately identifying the better performers in the organization and

actively recruiting these individuals as protégées. The reverse could be true—a high achieving mentor being sought by an also high achieving protégée. Both ways of developing the mentor-protégée relationship are beneficial to the protégée who stands to gain the expertise necessary to achieve the desired goals of career advancement.

Business or Corporate World Mentoring

Although mentoring can be considered an old tradition, the literature on mentoring did not become prevalent until the late 1970's (Peer Resources 1999, 7). Articles began to appear advocating that having a mentor could provide a significant edge in a business setting. Research studies claimed that business executives who had been mentored typically rose faster in the corporate ranks and achieved higher salaries than their non-mentored peers.

Cohen identifies six mentor functions in the workplaces that need to be addressed in either orientation and/or training: relational emphasis, confrontive focus, information emphasis, mentor model, facilitative focus and mentee vision (Cohen 1998, 11). Cohen defines mentoring as “a one-to-one relationship that views mentors as *adult educators* and employees as *adult learners*” (Cohen 1998, 13). The mentor approaches mentoring as an opportunity to share knowledge and experience through interactive teaching, while the employee considers the workplace relationship as an opportunity to engage in active learning.

Cohen provides a purpose statement, a definition, and a description for each of the six mentor behaviors in which the mentors need training. The behavioral functions are viewed as a pragmatic exploration of the interpersonal possibilities available to

mentors as attempts are made to influence and constructively contribute to the training, education, and career development of their employees.

In her studies of mentors in the corporate world, Kram suggested two functions of mentoring in which training should occur. The first is the career function, which is focused on learning the ropes and preparing for a career move (Crow and Matthew 1998, 12). The term *protégée* is used in this instance.

The second is the psychosocial function, which involves the development of the individual in his or her social environment (Crow and Matthew 1998, 12). The terms *client*, *mentee* and *copartner* are used to denote those individuals who are being mentored for psychosocial development.

Whereas career functions serve primarily to aid career advancement, psychosocial functions affect the individual on a personal level clarifying role identity. In dealing with psychosocial functions, the mentors try to influence the mentees to develop a positive change in behavior with a futuristic outlook. Mentees have been identified as those who have been unsuccessful in meeting their psychosocial functions. This realignment of core values (with what society considers to be the norm) creates a need for the mentors to possess knowledge, practices or skills that will assist them to turn challenging opportunities or barriers into successes. Bennis and Nanus refer to this process as “transformative leadership” (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 3). Being knowledgeable of and using leadership practices may assist the volunteer mentor in obtaining the desired change or outcome. The researcher assumes that these leadership practices or skills when implemented in the volunteer mentor training may help to reduce the resistance to change.

Educational Mentoring

Mentoring is defined as a process of an integrated approach to advising, coaching, and nurturing, focused on creating a viable relationship to enhance individual career/personal/professional growth and development (Adams 1998; Young 2001). Mentoring has become a practice for assisting classroom teachers and aspiring principals in their professional development (Brumage 2002). Brumage states that “minimum attention has been given to research about the mentoring relationships for practicing principals as they address educational reform in 2002” (Brumage 2002). Crow and Matthews say that the primary goal of mentoring for principals “should be to develop dynamic school leaders who cultivate a learning community for other leaders, teachers, staff members, parents, and students” (Crow and Matthews 1996, 7). They suggest that leadership be that energetic style described by Goldring and Rallis (1993):

A school that is truly changing, needs a principal who can articulate a vision, provide direction, facilitates those who are working for the change, coordinate the different groups, and balance the various forces impacting schools today. . . .
(Goldring and Rallis 1993, 133)

The three stages of mentor training suggested by Crow and Matthews are: selection and training of trainers, annual orientation and mentor workshops. These three stages are identical to the system approach for system development and system validation proposed by Tracey’s book, *Designing Training and Development Systems*. Crow and Matthews conclude that the best mentor trainers are mentor-principals. A mentor trainer also involves understanding adult learning. The trainers must acknowledge mentors’ learning styles. It is important that trainers appreciate this diversity of thinking and learning styles. Adult learners create their own meaning and apply the mentor training in ways that are effective for them.

The orientation involves two purposes. Within the academic setting orientation first allows new mentors to gain an understanding of the mentoring process and then the philosophy goals and expectations of the district or university. Second, the annual orientation allows all mentors to review the mentoring process and reflect on changes that may be needed for the year. The orientation allows mentors to learn and discuss the mentoring elements such as the meaning of mentoring, the definition of mentoring, the goals and definition of dynamic leadership, and mentoring pitfalls. The orientation also includes a basic understanding of protégées' socialization. A knowledge of how protégées learn the role, adjust to the school environment, and internalize the school's values helps make the mentors' work fit the needs of the protégées and the school. Orientation also serves as a time for mentors to learn about protégées, in particular the protégée with whom a mentor will be associated. Learning about the protégées helps mentors begin planning for time, locations, content, and methods.

Mentor workshops follow annual orientations to provide regular consistent support training, and quality control. The number of workshops and timing vary with the type of mentoring, that is, interns, new assistant principals and principals, or mid-career administrators. In initiating mentor training workshops, three elements are considered: What to mentor (content), how to mentor (methods), and assessment of mentoring. Content involves the knowledge, skills, behaviors, and values of learning dynamic school leadership. Content includes teaching both technical and cultural aspects. The technical aspects are "how things are done," whereas the cultural aspects are "how things are done in that school system."

Training mentors in the methods they use with protégées involve teaching and

explaining, as well as practice through simulations such as role playing and case studies. After a triad (mentor, protégées and observer) simulation, the observer reports what was said and done. The triad reflects on the process and determines what was done well by the mentor and what could have been done differently. In this way, mentors not only learn about a mentoring method but practice the method and assess it.

At-Risk Mentoring

Being at-risk encompasses being in a potential dangerous situation: exposed to danger or harm of some kind (Encarta World English Dictionary 2003). The ten categories which are elements of family life used in determining if and where a family is at-risk are: shelter, nutrition, alcohol/drug use, employment, adult education, children's education, parenting, and family relations (Young *n.d.*, 16).

The training for many volunteer mentors who address at-risk families comes under the heading of volunteer management. The overwhelming philosophy is that volunteer mentors should be managed like one manages paid personnel. "Professionalism" of the volunteer organizations has shown an increased emphasis on structured and organized management techniques such as written job descriptions, volunteer mentoring orientation and training, along with formal performance reviews. This trend toward professionalism has many causes, most notably the growing number of partners between volunteer organizations and the government or big business (Hsley 1990, 76). These partnerships with corporations or government demand accountability in order to ensure the deliverance of those partnership funds.

Efficient volunteer management practices and documentation help increase the nonprofit's accountability when competing for funds. Another reason for a move toward

more formally organized volunteer management of volunteers is the increased fear of law suits due to poorly trained or supervised volunteers (Hsley 1990, 81). Effectiveness is based on competency. Effective, competent volunteer mentors have very clear values and a determined sense of personal security. They have a strong sense of who they are, and this, like a gyroscope, provides stability and direction. It is not like they are unaffected by others, but rather they seek out people and work to mentor them.

Peer Resources, a nonprofit mentoring agency, listed four models of mentoring: Natural mentor, international mentor, peer mentor, and bridging mentor. The natural, Model I, is one-on-one, unintentional, informal, traditional, and unplanned. The term used for the person being mentored is protégé. An individual can act as a mentor and not be aware because the purpose and goals are implicit, not specific. Model II may be one-on-one, one-to-group, email, or telephone. The typical terms for the persons being mentored are mentoree, mentee, or protégé. There is a high involvement in selection, matching, and coaching and therefore, a need for a coordinator. The preferred setting for Model III, peer mentor, is pairs, small group, email, and telephone. The typical terms used for this model is colleague, learner, partner, and group member. There is shared responsibility and the type of structure is consensus. Model IV, bridging mentor, is relationship based, goal directed, and challenge focused. The preferred setting and delivery is one-on-one and small group with the typical term for persons being mentored are partners. Other terms used to describe Model IV are transition, enabling, and empowering. Challenges in this area include recruiting volunteers from target groups; therefore, there is a high need for a coordinator who will help to build partnerships and coach the pair (mentor and mentee).

Table 2. Summary of Difference and Similarities Between Four Mentorship Models
(Peer Resources 1999, 24)

Element	Model 1: Natural Mentor	Model II International Mentor	Model III Peer Mentor	Model IV Bridging Mentor
Other terms used to describe model	Unintentional, informal, traditional, unplanned	planned, formal, deliberate, conscious	peer assisted, supportive, reciprocal, group	transition, enabling, empowering
Typical terms used for persons being mentored	protégé	mentoree, mentee, protégé	colleague, learner, partner, group member	partner
Amount and type of structure	none	high—contract, agreements, expectations	medium—use of consensus	high—goals, agreements, expectations
Need for coordinator	none	high—involved in selection, matching, and coaching	low—shared responsibilities, trouble shooter	high—builds partnerships; coaches pair
Typical amount of training required	life experiences of mentors	0-10 hours for mentors and orientation for mentees	5-8 hours to start; peers then train others	1-day for mentors; 1 day for partner; ½ day together
Preferred setting and delivery	one-on-one	one-on-one, one-to-group, email, phone	pairs, small group, email, telephone	one-on-one, small group
Typical purpose and goals	implicit-not-specified	goal, activity, project centered	goal-directed, skilled learning, life issue	relationship-based, goal directed, challenge focus
Need for screening when youth involved	not applicable	high	moderate	high

Table 2 Continued. Summary of difference and similarities between four mentorship models (Peer Resources 1999, 24)

Element	Model 1: Natural Mentor	Model II International Mentor	Model III Peer Mentor	Model IV Bridging Mentor
Possible role for managers, teachers, or supervisors	can act as mentors without knowing it	appropriate if not in authority relationship	appropriate if at same status level	Can lead to conflicts if in evaluation role
Challenges	difficult to determine what is being learned	recruiting enough mentors to fill demand	providing skill training for group interaction	recruiting volunteers from target groups

Management

The practice of management, defined for many centuries as planning, organizing, directing, and controlling, has existed since early times (Kloppenborg, Shriberg, and Venkatraman 2003, 1). Building the Great Wall of China, running the Roman Empire, and preparing armies for battle all required management skills. Management, however, was usually viewed as an art that was passed on from generation to generation by oral tradition. In the last one hundred years, the science of management has developed. While management was defined as “the ability to work through others,” today most definitions are similar to the one offered by Courtland Bouee. In his book *Management*, he defines management as “the process of attaining organizational goals by effectively and efficiently planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization’s human, physical, financial, and informational resources” (Bouee 1993, 5).

The process of creating goals and developing ways to achieve them has undergone dramatic changes in recent years as organizations have begun to think of goals and plans at three levels. Carr defines a goal as “a different state of affairs that the

individual or organization actively seeks to achieve” (Carr and Clay 1993, 528). There are three areas in planning. Strategic planning is set at organizational levels and is usually of long duration. Tactical planning is set by middle managers to support corporate goals, is related to individual departments, and is usually middle duration, often less than a year. Operational planning is set by first-line management, to be achieved in the short run by individuals or departments. The theory, Management by Objective, refers to this activity as establishing objectives. Management by Objective is a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers jointly identify its common goals, define each individual major area of responsibility in terms of the results expected, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members (McConkey 1973, 5). Included in this activity, according to McConkey, is gathering of information, synthesizing information, and developing the plan (goal).

The second management activity is organizing. The traditional method of organizing is by function or division. In recent years the trend has been to organize work by teams and networks with the aim of minimizing levels of decision-making. This step involves bringing together resources—people, capital, and equipment—in the most effective way to accomplish the goals. Organizations are flatter, and line and staff rules are being integrated in new ways (Kloppenborg, Shriberg, and Venkatraman 2003, 2). McConkey refers to this management activity as the direct attainment of objectives by organizing, communicating, and motivating.

Along with planning and organizing, motivating plays a large part in determining the level of performance of mentees and employees which in turn, influences how effectively the organizational goals will be met or how effectively the mentees

achieve their goals. McConkey refers to this management activity as action planning (McConkey 1973, 27). Another function of management is controlling. This involves feedback of results and follow-up to compare accomplishments with plans and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations.

All these functions are being viewed in the context of the organizational mission and values. The development of a statement of purpose or mission statement once assumed to be profit maximization, is now a central and continuous function of management.

Throughout the twentieth century, several schools of management thought developed. These approaches, all of which still play a role, include the classical approach, the human relations movement, management science, systems theory, total management, and learning organizations (Kloppenborg, Shriberg, and Venkatraman 2003, 2). The classical approach to management, also called scientific management, by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, focuses on the processes that workers use and attempts to find the best way to perform a task. The industrial era began with the workers seeking better (defined as more efficient) ways of doing things. Time and motion studies were the norms. Another aspect of this classical period in management was the evolution of classical organization theory—a school of thought that argued that work should be divided into logical functional areas, with each person having one boss. This led to the concept of bureaucracy, which was viewed over the years as a means of ensuring productivity. The key aspects of bureaucracy (which over the years has taken on a negative connotation) are specialization of labor and advancement based on the quantity of productivity.

Many of these principles do not regard employees as human beings making

specific contributions and having individual needs and concerns. As the century progressed, the human relations movement began. This movement stated that the path to success was through satisfying workers' basic needs, which would make the workers more productive. Behavioral scientists from a variety of disciplines helped companies understand that workers did indeed have different needs and, as these needs were satisfied, the workers became more productive. Maslow's hierarchy of needs still guides many decision-makers.

As progress was made in the mathematical sciences, the impact of the management science perspective grew. Knowledge was gleaned by those in management science that mathematical models and other statistical techniques could assist managers in making key decisions. During World War II, several new approaches to management developed that are still called contemporary management. The development of the systems theory taught those in contemporary management that organizations are a set of interrelated parts that should function in a coordinated way to achieve a common goal. This led to a response that not all variables can be controlled and the development of a contingency view. This view states that managers often have to say, "it depends" and make different decisions depending on the particular situation.

The total quality movement began in the 1950s in Japan and did not truly come into vogue in the United States until the 1980s. The best-known spokesperson for this movement, W. Edward Deming, developed a list of fourteen points that must all be followed to ensure that total quality exists in an organization. Operationally, many managers have distilled the intent of Deming's list to: thoroughly understand all your customers, empower your employees, make decisions based on facts, and continually

improve all your work processes.

The concept, today, of learning organizations has taken a center stage. This concept implies that organizations are living entities that can learn, grow, and adapt to the environment. The more quickly organizations can change, the more likely it is that they will gain an advantage over their competitors.

Management has changed in many ways in the last hundred years, but all these theories are still practiced in many settings. It was in the last half of the twentieth century that leadership and project leadership began to evolve from management into separate disciplines. The twentieth century concept was the “melting pot” concept in which leaders were to find commonalities and blend differences. The new concept is the “salad” or “fruit bowl,” where the texture, depth, and beauty of society come from the differences people bring to an organization. The differences allow better and more creative decisions.

Psychosocial Stages

Erik Erikson said we develop in psychosocial stages. He emphasized developmental change through the human life span. In his theory, eight stages of development unfold as one goes through life. Each stage consists of a crisis that must be faced. According to Erikson, this crisis is not a catastrophe but a turning point of increased vulnerability and enhanced potential. The more an individual resolves the crises successfully, the healthier development will be (Welchman 2000, 57-58). The at-risk mentee has not resolved successfully one or more of the developmental stages. As volunteer mentor interacts with the mentee, he or she comes to the realization that the mentee has unresolved crises, as define by Erickson. The volunteer mentor strives to help

the mentee begin to resolve the crises and work toward achieving his or her enhanced potential.

Trust versus mistrust is Erikson's first psychosocial stage, which is experienced in the first year of life. A sense of trust requires a feeling of physical comfort and a minimal amount of fear and apprehension about the future. Trust in infancy sets the stage for a lifelong expectation that the world will be a very pleasant place to live (Welchman 2000, 52-56). The volunteer mentor, with his/her commitment to the mentee, will establish a relationship with the at-risk mentee that may help the at-risk mentee begin developing the sense of trust.

Autonomy versus shame and doubt is Erikson's second stage of development, occurring in late infancy and toddler (1-3 years). After gaining trust in their care givers, infants begin to discover that their behavior is their own. They start to assess their sense of independence, or autonomy. They realize their will. If infants are restrained too much or punished harshly, they are likely to develop a sense of shame and doubt (Welchman 2000, 52-56). Many mentees have not successfully advanced through this stage of shame and doubt. The mentor's training in accentuating the accomplishments, the "wins," in the at-risk mentees lives may help to enhance the mentees' maturity in the developmental stage of shame and doubt.

Initiative versus guilt is Erickson's third stage of development, occurring during the preschool years. As preschool children encounter a widening social world, they are challenged more than when they were infants. Active, purposeful behavior is needed to cope with the challenges. Children are asked to assume responsibility for their bodies, their behavior, their toys, and their pets. Developing a sense of responsibility increases initiative. Uncomfortable guilt feelings may arise, if the child is irresponsible

and is made to feel too anxious. Erickson has a positive outlook on this stage. He believes that most guilt is quickly compensated for by a sense of accomplishment (Welchman 2000, 52-56). As the volunteer mentor is trained in the goal setting aspect of mentoring, these skills will help the at-risk mentees identify the barriers in their lives and begin to assume responsibility in overcoming the barriers.

In the Erikson's fourth stage, industry and inferiority, the child is ready for the mastery of the skills of production, communication, and cooperation. He or she has now come to the realization that there is no workable future within the womb of his family. The child develops a sense of industry and learns to win recognition by producing things. The danger at this time lies in a sense of inadequacy or inferiority. In the absence of the successful completion of this stage by the mentees, the volunteer mentors may help the mentees develop leisure activities which may aid in the successful production of items resulting in the mentees acquiring a mastery of some skill.

The fifth stage, identity versus role confusion, is the time for the formation of a lasting identity which is more than the sum of childhood identification. According to Erikson, "it is the accrued experience of the ego's ability to integrate all identifications with the vicissitudes of the libido, with the aptitudes developed out of endowment and with the opportunities offered in social roles" (Erikson 1965, 253). The importance of occupation at this stage is critical. Many mentees have not successfully completed this stage. Observation of previous job histories for the mentees reveal the various employment with repeated terminations. Volunteer mentor's encouragement and support may help the mentees to develop a work ethic by seeking career education and acquiring employable work skills.

Intimacy versus isolation is Erikson's sixth developmental stage, which

individuals experience during the early adult years. At this time, individuals face the developmental task of forming intimate relationships with others. Erickson describes intimacy as finding oneself yet losing oneself in another. If the young adult forms healthy friendships, an intimate relationship with another individual may be achieved; if not, isolation will result (Erik Erikson and Psychosocial Development 2002). Mentoring by definition is relational. The interaction of the mentor and the at-risk mentee helps in the developmental task of relationship building.

Generativity versus stagnation is Erikson's seventh developmental stage, which individuals experience during middle adulthood. A chief concern is to assist the younger generation in developing and leading useful lives—that is what Erickson means by generativity. The feeling of having done nothing to help the next generation is stagnation (Welchman 2000, 52-56). One reason for some people mentoring is to give back to society. The goal of some volunteer mentors is to help the younger generation in developing and leading productive lives. The ultimate goal of mentoring is to develop leaders who in turn produce leaders. (In the Christian community this process is known as disciplining). If the mentoring process is successful (empowering), the at-risk mentees will eventually assume the role of mentor, whether informal or formal and will feel a sense of helping the next generation.

Integrity versus despair is Erikson's eighth and final developmental stage, which individuals experience during late adulthood. In the later years of life, reflection and evaluation are performed in one's life. Through many different routes, the older person may have developed a positive outlook in most of all the previous stages of development. If so, the retrospective glances will reveal a picture of a life well spent, and the person will feel a sense of satisfaction—integrity will be achieved. If the older adult

resolved many of the earlier stages negatively, the retrospective glances likely will yield doubt or gloom. In retrospect, the at-risk mentor may view the mentoring process that occurred in their lives as helpful which results in them helping others. When the retrospective glances yield a sense of satisfaction—integrity will be achieved.

Erickson does not believe that the proper solution to a stage crisis is always completely positive. The negative end of a person's bipolar conflict is sometimes inevitable—trusting all people under all circumstances is not practical for survival. Nonetheless, in the healthy solution to a stage crisis, the positive resolution dominates.

An outcome or result of volunteer mentors' training is that it may begin to contribute to positive resolutions in some of the eight stages. The inclusion of the leadership practice into the volunteer mentor training may begin to enhance the likelihood of the at-risk mentees developing the strategies for the healthy solutions to the psychosocial stages of development.

Leadership

Leadership was a word that has come to mean many things to many people. Over time evolution as occurred in leadership theories.

Origin of the Word Leadership

Joseph C. Rost in his book *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century* says that in the 1800's the word *lead* was defined to guide by the hand; to conduct to any place; to conduct as head or commander, to introduce by first going first; to guide, show the method of attaining; to draw, entice, lure; to induce, to prevail on by pleasing motives, to pass, to spend in any certain manner (Rost 1993, 38). The word *leadership* was not observed in the dictionary at this time. Also, it was in the beginning of the nineteenth

century that leadership appeared in the dictionary. It was defined then as “one who leads, conducts, directs; a director, chief or commander. One who is first or most prominent in any relations; one who takes precedence by virtue of superior qualifications or influence; a recognized principal or superior; one who has charge of a class” (Rost 1993, 40).

According to Rost, *Century Dictionary* defined leadership as “the office of a leader, guidance, control” (Rost 1993, 40). During this period leadership was considered a position or it implied guidance or control. Standardization continued to occur as new dictionaries were published. Leaders began to be considered by a number of traits around the mid nineteenth hundreds and defining leadership as “the ability to lead.”

The ways in which the different disciplines defined leadership from the 1800’s through the 1980’s are:

1930s – psychologists – trait-and-group theory

1940s – shift to a group approach

1950s – group theorists continued their influence, however the behaviorist began to emerge and made considerable inroads into the group dominance of the field (shared goals)

1960s – maintained the definition of the leader around the idea of the behavior that influences people toward shared goals. The concept of organizational definitions did attempt to shift the focus of the role of leadership to manager emphasis.

1970s – period of time in which leadership and management became interchangeable;

1980s – new consensus among the leadership scholars, that leadership is fundamentally different from management and that the two words should not be used synonymously. (Rost 1993).

2000–leadership is still being viewed as fundamentally different from management; an emerging concept that has evolved from management is project leadership (Kloppenborg, Shriberg, and Venkatraman 2003, 1)

Leadership Theories

Leadership, according to Rost, “is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose” (Rost 1993, 102).

The direction is multidirectional and noncoercive. Leaders are active, and there must be

more than one follower and typically more than one leader in the relationship. The relationship is inherently unequal because the influence patterns are unequal. Leaders and followers purposely desire certain changes and the changes the leaders and followers intend must be substantive and transforming. Leaders and followers do not have to produce changes in order for leadership to occur. They intend changes in the present; the changes take place in the future if they take place at all. Leaders and followers forge in the noncoercive influence relationship. The changes reflect, not realize, their purposes resulting in mutual purpose (Rost, 1991, 102-03).

Leadership is not management. Management is “an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate those activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services” (Rost 1993, 145). An often quoted phrase is, “Managers do things right, while leaders do the right things” (Bennis and Nanus 1997, 21).

Change is inevitable and is no longer a choice. It embraces such terms as reengineering, restructuring, organization development, downsizing, mergers, acquisitions, strategic redirection, quality efforts, and new approaches. To cause an effective and successful change, leaders must have more than good diagnostic skills. “Once they have analyzed the demand of their environment, they can adapt their leadership style to these demands and develop the means to change some or all of the other situational variables” (Hershey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 377). The situational leadership theory says that the high task and low relationship (S1), high task and high relationship (S2), high relationship and low task (S3) and low relationship and low task (S4) are styles of leadership that are all needed at different times (Hershey, Blanchard,

and Johnson 1982, 172). No one style is effective in all situations. Each style is appropriate and effective depending on the situation.

Table 3. View of differences between leadership and management (Rost 1993, 149)

Leaders (guide, direct, influence)	Managers (Operates and maintains)
futuristic	present
secure resources	usually prefers predictable environment
noncoercive	coercive
multidirectional	unidirectional and top-down
intending real change	producing and selling goods
mutual purpose	coordination of activities

Bennis and Nanus list the following as exemplary traits of leaders:

1. Risk taker
2. Inspire and motivate others toward a common purpose
3. Visionary—has a sense of direction and purpose beyond the moment
4. Foster collaborative effort and build effective teams—leaders produce leaders who provide the atmosphere or climate
5. Model behavior—create standard of excellence, then set examples for others to follow
6. Encourage the heart—recognizing contributions and celebrating accomplishments
7. Develop future leaders (Bennis and Nanus 1985)

Change may result in conflict. Leaders who are innovative and creative, thus eliciting many changes, need to become equipped for addressing conflict that arises during change. Organizational development is a management strategy that assumes most organizations need to change. It emphasizes the process of human interaction and views

the organization as a social system (Bandura 1982, 18). The organizational development theorist feels that “organizations must become adaptable, flexible and innovative to survive (Bandbury 1983, 25). Organizational development theory assumes that people want to be supported, trusted, and cooperative. Donald R. Morgan, in his book, *Management Urban America*, lists the following steps of an Organizational Development effort: problem recognition, data gathering, diagnosis, feedback to management, intervention, assessment of progress, and continuation of the program (Duncan 1971, 211). Outside consultants are often brought into the organization to apply the tenets of organizational development.

Nanus and Dobbs present the leader who makes a difference in a nonprofit organization as: visionary–dreaming the dream; strategist–finding the dream; coach–building the team; politician–advocate, troubleshooter and spokesperson; and campaigner–maintaining the financial lifeline (Nanus and Dobbs 1999). The world is far more complex than the straight linear thinking that dominates so much of what passes from leadership education: The nature of the problem itself is often in question, the information (and its reliability) is problematical, there are multiple and conflicting interpretations and different value orientations, and the goals are unclear and conflicting. Many human elements are either avoided or short-changed in most curricula. The four basic competencies espoused by Bennis and Nanus address this issue. The four strategies, themes, areas of competency, human handling skills include:

Strategy 1: Attention through vision–creating the focus

Strategy 2: Meaning through communication–form of presentation; shared meaning and defined roles and authority

- Strategy 3: Trust through positioning –integrity (positive self-regard and positive other regard)
- Strategy 4: The deployment of self through positive self-regard and the Wallenda factor (the ability to embrace positive goals, to put one’s energies into the task, not looking behind and dredging up excuses for past events). (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 26-86)

Kouzes and Posner Leadership Theory

Kouzes’ and Posner’s research discovered that “leadership is not the private reserve of a few charismatic men and women. It’s a process ordinary people use when they’re bringing forth the best from themselves and others” (Kouzes and Posner 1997, xx). The way ordinary people get things done is to use the five practices: “challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart” (Kouzes and Posner 1997, 9). For the five practices to occur leadership must be a reciprocal process between those who choose to lead and those who choose to follow. Embedded in the five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership are behaviors that can serve as the basis for learning to lead. The ten commitments serve as the guide for how leaders get extraordinary things done.

Summation of Leadership Theories

Table 4 summarizes the practices (also referred to as strategies or stages) present in the leadership theories. As noted in the table there is an overlapping of the practices. The one leadership practice recognized by all theorists listed in the table was futuristic. The other four prevalent practices are empowering, mutual purpose, intending real change, and encouraging the heart. Sense of urgency was recognized by only one theorist, Kotter, as a practice present in the leadership theories.

Conclusion for Definition of Leadership

Leadership is an influence relationship which is reciprocal. It is not management. Leadership is noncoercive and intends real change which reflects a mutual purpose. This research included the following leadership practices: (1) envisioning—ability to look forward and see the big picture, how to articulate the vision, how to develop strategies for achieving the vision, how to invigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents, how to use increased credibility to change timelines, structures, systems, and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision; (2) sense of urgency—the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy, the ability to examine the job market and competitive organizations, and the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities; (3) influencing (motivating others)—how to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional and the ability to understand that influence behavior is noncoercive; (4) communicating—how to develop goal setting strategies, how to build trust, the ability to listen actively, how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns, how to maintain contact, and how to ensure leadership development; (5) team building—how to ensure leadership succession, how to describe the mission and values of the organization, how to celebrate wins, the ability to get people to work together, and how to value all peoples and groups; (6) risk taking—encouragement to take calculated risks, how to deal with uncertainty, and how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achievement; and (7) anchoring (renewing and adapting the organizations to a changed world)—how to articulate the behaviors of the mentees and organizational success and how to ensure leadership development.

Table 4. Comparison of Leadership Theory Practices

Practices	Rost	Bennis & Nanus (Strategies)	Kotter (Stages)	Kouzes & Posner (Practices)	Nanus & Dobbs
Influence	X				
Multidirectional	X				
Empowering		X	X	X	X
Mutual Purpose	X	X		X	
Futuristic	X	X	X	X	X
Secure Resources	X				X
Noncoercive	X				
Risk taker				X	
Encourage the heart			X	X	X
Intending real change	X		X		X
Sense of urgency			X		

Andragogy

A definition of learning is prerequisite to understanding how learning occurs. “Learning is a modification of behavior through experience” (Lovin and Casstevens 1971, 21). Nadler defines learning as the acquisition of new skills, attitudes, and knowledge. The psychologist refers to these as domains (Nadler 1982, 1).

The term *andragogy* was originally formulated by a German teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833 (Nottingham Andragogy Group 1983, v; Smith 2002, 1). He used it to describe elements of Plato’s education theory. Andragogy could be contrasted with pedagogy. Kapp’s use of andragogy fell into disuse. It reappeared in 1921 in a

report by Rosenstock in which he argued that “adult education required special teachers, methods and philosophy, and he used the term andragogy to refer collectively to these special requirements”(Nottingham Andragogy Group 1983, v; Smith 2002, 1).

In order to understand adult learning and to deal with it, it is essential to recognize all the obstacles to learning. These obstacles include the half-truths. We often assume that concepts that are stated concisely and have lasted a long period of time must be true. The adage “Experience is the best teacher,” “You can’t teach an old dog new tricks” and “Practice makes perfect” are half-truths. All these half-truths are worse than lies. If they were out and out lies, at least they could be evident and could be addressed without qualification. Since they contain an element of truth, they are accepted and, therefore, obstruct the efforts of coaches, trainers, teachers and volunteer mentors. These enemies of adult learning are effective primarily because many adults fear learning. Although many people find learning an enjoyable and satisfying experience, many others find the experience intimidating. If the volunteer mentor has adopted a Theory Y approach in the mentoring relationship, he or she will take the initiative to help the mentee overcome the fear of learning by dispelling the half-truths.

One solution to this problem of fear is to plan the learning experience for adults in small steps which is one basic approach for adult learning (Lovins and Casstevens , 28). If some defenses against change have been built up, the first steps must be easily attainable, attractive, and nonthreatening.

In mentor training and leadership training, the emphasis is on being learner-centered and non-directive, if we assume that the individuals being trained are adults. Andragogy and adult learning, are defined by Brookfield:

1. not beginners but are in a continual state of growth
2. bring with them a package of experiences and values, each one unique
3. come to education with intentions
4. bring expectations about the learning process
5. have competing interests, the realities of their lives
6. already have their own set patterns of learning. (Brookfield 1990)

In the minds of many around the adult education field, andragogy and the name of Malcolm Knowles have become linked. For Knowles, andragogy is premised on at least four crucial assumptions about the characteristic of adult learners that are different from the assumptions about child learners on which traditional pedagogy is premised. A fifth was added later.

1. Self-concept: As a person matures his self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directed human being.
2. Experience: As a person matures he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
3. Readiness to learn. As a person matures his readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the development tasks of his social roles.
4. Orientation to learning: As a person matures his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from that of subjective-centered to that of problem centered.
5. Motivation to learn: As a person matures, the motivation to learn is internal. (Knowles 1984, 12)

Stephen Brookfield, another authority in the field of andragogy, list as his six principles of facilitation as:

1. voluntary participation
2. respect for participants' self-worth

3. collaboration
4. praxis
5. critical reflection
6. nurture of self directed, empowered adults. (Brookfield 1990)

The significance of understanding andragogy is knowing that adult learners have different criteria for learning and also have a reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning. Brookfield states, “Helping adults to understand their personal styles and patterns of learning is one of the most important, though less tangible, ways in which people can be helped to become critical thinkers” (Brookfield 1987, 82). A number of sophisticated assessment tools and measurement scales exist for the use of educators who wish to investigate learning styles. “ Examples of these are Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and Myers, 1980), the Kolb (1980), Adaptive Style Inventory and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino 1977)” (Brookfield 1987, 84). The trainers can utilize learning styles, the different theories of learning and the assumptions made by those in the field of andragogy to train volunteer mentors. The trainer must be know enough about learning theories to make decisions as to which learning theory is most appropriate for a specific learning experience.

In this research study, adults are being trained to prepare for their role as volunteer mentors. As the volunteer mentors were prepared to help at-risk mentees, they were provided with training which equipped them to better serve their mentees. The volunteer mentors are in continual growth (participation in volunteer mentor training) and want to share with others (mentees) the lessons learned from their life experiences. An effective mentor training is to be learner-centered and non-directive and embrace the

other principles of adult learning which allows for the volunteer mentors' life experiences to help them in learning the leadership practice necessary to accomplish their mission.

Non-Profit Organizations

Included among the community organizations are the nonprofit organizations. The nonprofit sector is the collective name used to describe institutions and organizations in American society that are neither government nor business. Other names often used include the not-for-profit sector, the third sector, the independent sector, the philanthropic sector, the voluntary sector, or the social sector. Outside the United States, nonprofit organizations are often called non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or civil society organizations. These other names emphasize the characteristics that distinguish nonprofit organizations— voluntary sectors to acknowledge the importance of volunteers and voluntary action, independent sectors to distinguish nonprofit organizations from business and government, and social sectors to underscore how the activities of nonprofit organizations enhance the social fabric of our country. The sector may be called nonprofit, but that doesn't mean that the organizations within it cannot or should not charge fees or generate revenue that exceeds expenses (in other words, make a profit). Instead, it means that nonprofit organizations, unlike businesses, do not exist to make money for owners or investors. Instead, these groups are dedicated to a specific mission, such as nonprofit Christian organizations who have volunteer mentors who serve at-risk mentees . The nonprofit sector in the United States is vast and diverse and touches all our lives. It includes more than a million organizations that spend more than \$500 billion each year — more than the gross domestic product of Brazil, Russia, or Australia. About

6% of all organizations in the United States are nonprofit organizations.

Such terms as not-for-profit, tax-exempt, and charitable are all terms use to describe nonprofit organizations. Most individuals think of nonprofit organizations as charitable which is only partially true. The charitable organization is merely one of the many types of exempt organizations. To generalize, many of the charitable organizations mean an organization that works to aid the poor and other distresses. While some organizations certainly do that, it is by no means the only way to be charitable, at least as that term is defined for federal tax purposes.

The federal tax law refer to charitable in two ways. “First, a charitable organization means all organizations that are eligible to received deductible contributions. Second, the term charitable organization is used to describe organizations that are defined as that type of entity under the law” (Hopkins 1989, 31).

The federal law tax of a charitable organization contains at least fifteen different ways for a nonprofit organization to be charitable. These definitions are found in the income tax regulations, IRS rulings, and federal and state court opinions and include: relieving the poor and distressed or the underprivileged; advancing religion, education, or science; lessening the burden of government; beautifying and maintaining a community; preserving natural beauty; promoting health, social welfare, environmental conservancy, art, or patriotism, caring for orphans or animals; promoting, advancing, and sponsoring amateur sports, and maintaining public confidence in the legal system.

Nonprofit organizations comprise the newest and fastest growing category of organizations in America: The concept of charitable tax-exempt organizations as a unified and coherent sector dates back a little more than twenty years. More than 90% of

nonprofit organizations currently in existence were established since the second World War.

Because nonprofit organizations growth has been so rapid and because their impact has been so far reaching—touching on every aspect of ones life, and every institutional level—nonprofit organizations have been the focus of intense controversy as legislators, the courts, and the public, struggle to come to terms with this organizational revolution. While the nonprofit universe was in a process of emergence, those within it have had to struggle. The interpretation of the law of separation of church and state makes it difficult, especially for nonprofit Christian organizations to obtain government funding for their operational expense.

Outside the parameter of the federal tax law, defining what nonprofit organizations are and what they do is an extraordinarily difficult task. Nonprofit organizations vary enormously in scope and scale. They range from community and neighborhood organizations with no assets and no employees to multibillion dollar foundations, universities, and health care complexes with thousands of employees.

Nonprofit organizations are defined by Hummel as “a group of people getting together around a mutual interest to perform a community service” (Hummel 1980, 3). The organizations develop from a seed—a common concern, a critical issue, a central purpose. This focus becomes the organization’s mission. Individuals and groups who find a common concern and want to do something about it, begin talking, meeting, and planning. A group soon discovers it needs more than an issue, a goal, or mission to make something happen. It needs a well-thought-out program, a sound financial base, effective staff, and a board of directors with good community relations. After this discovery the

difficult, but rewarding task begins of forming the nonprofit organization.

Salamon defines nonprofit organizations as, “organizations that are private in structure yet nonprofit seeking” (Salamon 1984, 262). More than 11% of the American workforce, or 16 million persons, work in the nonprofit sector (Hodgkinson et al. 1990, 28-29).

Jon Van Til chooses to refer to nonprofit organizations as institutions and defines them as “the pulling together by people in a way that makes collective meaning out of actions that are important to them” (Herman and Associates 1994, 45). Susan Ostrander and Paul Schervish ask the question, “How do we spend our time and money?” This illustration is given about nonprofit organizations concerning fishing:

If some of our time is spent in advancing the work of the nonprofit organizations, and some of our money is spent in making sure those organizations can survive, then we may have chosen to do less fishing than we might have otherwise done, and bought a less fancy pole (or traveled to a less remote river) than we might have otherwise afforded. But it all depends, doesn't it? If the volunteers spend their time showing a group of youngsters how to fish, they might be doing all the fishing they want. And if these donors' money is spent to support a nonprofit organization that allows youth to fish, then the donors' money may still have gone for the purchase of poles or the transport to fish-laden waters. Such is the transformational power of the individual act of giving; it allows us to do things we would have done only for ourselves, and make the same action into something that benefits others as well (Hummel and Associates 1994, 45).

The distinctive characteristic of a nonprofit organization is its primary purpose to improve people's lives or to address society's larger issues. Unlike work in the public and private sectors, much of the work is conducted by people who are unpaid activists giving of themselves to achieve social purposes. Often these volunteers are busy people with full-time jobs and family commitments that may have little to do with the purpose of the nonprofit. Many volunteers are not looking for another job, but they are looking for a

way to express the best that is in them in service to their community.

Profile of the Current Study

In light of the fact that leadership theories, when properly implemented, bring about the desired outcome (change) and in the light of the fact that the desired outcome for at-risk mentees is changed behavior, the purpose of this study was to analyze the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees. The design of this study was impacted by the need for the volunteer mentors to become more competent, efficient and/or successful in helping the mentees to achieve their goals. Thus, new training or restructuring of the volunteer mentoring training design was investigated.

In Phase 1 the researcher used the qualitative approach to interview volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations who serve at-risk mentees. The data was analyzed from the interviews and precedent literature. A Likert scale questionnaire was developed. Phase 2, used the quantitative approach which consisted of volunteer mentors completing the Likert scale questionnaire. Data analysis was conducted and conclusions were drawn. The researcher's purpose was to determine the leadership practices and the degree to which these practices were incorporated into volunteer mentor training.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

In examining the research concern for analyzing the leadership training practice in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees, five questions were investigated.

Research Questions Synopsis

1. What management training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
2. What leadership training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
3. To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with management training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
4. To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
5. What do volunteer mentors perceive to be effective leadership training practices in equipping volunteer mentors?

Design Overview

Some researchers believe that qualitative research is used to discover themes and relationships at the case level, while quantitative research is best used to validate those themes and relationships in samples and populations (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 29). The researcher used the two-phase methodology, both qualitative and quantitative. The use of the two-phase methodology was made on the assumption that any bias

inherent in particular data sources and methods would be neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources and methods. In the qualitative method, Phase 1, the ethnographic design was used to analyze leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees. The intent of ethnographic research is to obtain a holistic picture of the subject with emphasis on portraying the experiences of volunteer mentors' training. It is used to gain insight into the training culture for the mentor.

In Phase 1, the researcher developed interview questions, and field tested the questions to scrutinize and ascertain their validity for measuring the volunteer mentor training practice. Four volunteer mentors field-tested the interview questions. These interview questions were administered to experienced volunteer mentors. A Likert scale questionnaire was then developed to be used in Phase 2.

Phase 2 consisted of a quantitative study. From the information collected from the Likert scale questionnaire, a statistical analysis was drawn. The initial plan was to use the respondents (volunteer mentors) in the nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees located in the data bases of the Virginia Department of Social Services, 2003 Volunteer Center Membership Directory and Community Link. After further investigation, it was discovered that there was an overlapping of the organizations in the data bases of the Volunteer Center Membership Directory, the Virginia Department of Social Services and Community Link. The researcher, then, enlisted the Christian Women's Job Corps (a ministry of the Women's Missionary Union) and local nonprofit Christian organizations who have volunteer mentors that serve at-risk mentees to participate in the study to analyze the leadership practices in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees.

Population

The target population in the present study consisted of all volunteer mentors. The accessible population, that is, “all the individuals who realistically could be included in the sample” (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 220) were volunteer mentors in North American nonprofit Christian organizations who serve at-risk mentees.

Data was obtained in varied settings, which assisted in the understanding of the volunteer training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations that serve at-risk mentees. Data was obtained from the following sources.

Sample Population

For the study, the researcher attempted to locate Christian, grassroots and/or community nonprofit Christian organizations in Virginia who had volunteer mentors serving at-risk mentees. Although the result of a random sample may be generalized to the accessible population, and is thus the preferred technique for representing that population, a purely random sample of the accessible population in this case was virtually impossible to obtain and certainly unrealistic. In the state of Virginia, three conditions made it unfeasible for every member of this population to have an opportunity to be selected for a sample.

1. Many nonprofit Christian organizations who have volunteer mentors that serve at-risk populations, did not register with the Virginia Department of Social Services, thus making it difficult, if not impossible, to identify them.
2. A list from the state source did not acknowledge religious preferences and thus made it difficult for the researcher to detect accurately, the members of the population.
3. Many nonprofit Christian organizations did not have a website or were not listed in any registry and therefore were only known in their local areas where they provide voluntary mentoring services, but the researcher did not have the necessary access.

An exact number, therefore, of nonprofit Christian organizations who had volunteer mentors that serve at-risk mentees in Virginia was unavailable; thus, equal access and opportunity to be a part of a sample were denied many members of the population under consideration.

The researcher's initial plan for the selection of a sample population was to select nonprofit Christian organizations that had volunteer mentors from the Virginia Department of Social Services' six data bases. The Virginia Department of Social Services contained 4 data bases with organizational listings for faith-based, mentoring, grantees and Information and Referral Services. The other two data bases contained a list of volunteer organizations. The researcher also planned to use the data bases of the 2003 Volunteer Center Members Directory and the Community Link which included listings of nonprofit organizations. As stated previously these two data bases duplicated many of the nonprofit Christian organizations listed in the Virginia Department of Social Service's six data bases, which limited the accessible population. After this discovery, the researcher enlisted the Christian Women's Job Corps (a ministry of Women's Missionary Union) and local nonprofit Christian organizations.

In Phase 1, the researcher analyzed the management and leadership practices of volunteer mentors using a qualitative approach. Eight respondents from a nonprofit Christian organization listed in the Virginia Department of Social Services data bases agreed to participate in the study. These respondents were interviewed using the field-tested interview questions developed by the researcher.

The interviews constituted a *purposeful sample*, an "information-rich" set, from which the researcher attempted to "learn the most" about the leadership training

practice the volunteer mentors received (Merriam and Simpson 1995, 100). Since the interviews provided the foundation for the present research design, the observation of Salant and Dillman was informative to the researcher. “Nonprobability or purposive sampling is appropriate in certain circumstances, especially for exploratory research intended to generate news idea that will be systematically tested later”(Salant and Dillman 1994, 64). This was, indeed, the motivation for the selection of this sample.

Assuming the validity of a comparison of this study with that of an ethnography, Creswell’s observations were equally pertinent: “Ethnographers rely on their judgment to select members of the subculture or unit based on their research questions. They take advantage of opportunities (‘opportunistic’ sampling [Miles and Huberman 1994]) or establish criteria for studying select individuals’ criterion sampling” (Creswell 1998, 120).

In Phase 2, the quantitative phase, the researcher selected respondents from 6 data bases. This allowed for a larger population both rural and urban to respond to the researcher’s concern. The first data base consisted of 199 volunteer programs in all areas (for profit, nonprofit, faith-based, grassroots, formal, informal and community-based) that registered as a volunteer organization with the Virginia Department of Social Services. Seventy-two out of 199 were nonprofit faith-based organizations that provided mentoring services. Thirty-nine out of 72 were thought to be nonprofit faith-based organizations. The demographics did not indicate if these organizations provided services to at-risk mentees nor did they give the number of volunteer mentors. The correspondence was mailed to the 39 nonprofit organizations that the researcher assumed to be nonprofit Christian organizations (Appendix 2). Six out of 39 nonprofit Christian organizations

agreed to participate in the study. Eighteen out of 39 nonprofit Christian organizations did not agree to participate. Two out of 39 organizations responded that they would not participate because they were not Christian. Thirteen out of 39 did not respond to the researcher's request to participate in the research study.

The second data base selected consisted of 10 organizations that received a mentoring grant from the Virginia Department of Social Services Office of Volunteerism. The information provided in the data base for this group did not show if the organizations were Christian-based. The 10 organizations were sent the correspondence. One out of 10 responded to say they would participate. Nine out of 10 did not respond to the researcher's request to participate in the study.

The third group selected consisted of 72 organizations listed in the Virginia Department of Social Service as faith-based organizations. Many of these organizations were also included in the 199 in the Excel file who had participated in a network of mentoring. The correspondence was mailed to 32 out of 72 nonprofit organizations from this data base. Four out of 32 agreed to participate in the study. Twenty-eight out of 32 of the nonprofit organizations did not respond to the request to participate. The fourth data base provided by the Virginia Department of Social Services, was the Information and Referral Service of Virginia, with a listing of 113 mentoring organizations statewide who provided services to diverse groups. The data did not show religious preference or the clientele for the organizations. There were many duplications; however, the researcher was able to extract 15 out of 113 nonprofit organizations to whom the correspondence was sent to request participation in the study. One out of 15 of the nonprofit organizations declined to participate in the study. Two out of 15 nonprofit

organizations agreed to participate in the study. Twelve out of the 15 did not respond to the request to participate in the study.

The fifth data base was the Christian Women's Job Corps which replaced the Volunteer Center Membership Directory and Community Link. There are 5 Christian Women's Job Corps sites in the Virginia. Four out of 7 Christian Women's Job Corps sites are operational and agreed to participate in the study. One out of 7 of the Christian Women's Job Corps sites is being developed and had not recruited nor trained volunteer mentors. Two out of 7 of the Christian Women Job Corps sites elected not to participate in the research study.

The initial plan was to access the organizations from the 2003 Volunteer Membership Directory which consisted of 12 organizations in Virginia, of which 4 out of 12 of the organizations provided mentoring services. Due to the duplication, the researcher contacted local nonprofit Christian organizations who provided mentoring to at-risk mentees. Four out of 4 of the local nonprofit Christian organizations agreed to participate. In all 107 nonprofit organizations were contacted to participate in the research study.

The sample population for Phase 1 consisted of 8 respondents from a rural nonprofit Christian organization located in the Virginia Department of Social Services' data bases. Phase 2 consisted of 21 nonprofit organizations who agreed to participate. Thirteen out of the 21 of the organizations participated in the study. From 13 organizations, 110 respondents participated in the research study. Six respondents who completed the Likert scale questionnaire did not reside in Virginia; and two respondents' Likert scale questionnaires were invalid because the respondents did not follow the

directions. The sample population, therefore, consisted of 102 respondents.

Delimitations

There are many organizations in which volunteers provide services at no cost, including churches, hospitals, schools, the business sector, Department of Social Services, boys' and girls' camps and clubs, libraries and so on. There are also organizations that provide mentoring services in which individuals are paid. This study, however, focused on the organizations which provided mentoring at no cost. This study was delimited to volunteers who are mentors because of the convenience of a volunteer network resource. Cnaan's and others' definitions of the five elements of volunteering were used which allowed for significant differences in interpretation within clearly delineated boundaries. The five elements of delineation were used in setting the parameters for a volunteer who was a mentor. The first element was reward. The volunteer who was a "mentor" should not be undertaking the activity primarily for financial gain. Any financial reimbursements should be less than the value of the work provided. The second element was that of free will. The framework accepted that it may be difficult to uphold the pure idea (altruism) of free will in any volunteering interaction. People's motivation to volunteer may perhaps include mixed reasons, but it must draw the boundary against any overt attempt to force people to participate. The third element was the nature of benefit. The conceptual framework allowed an identifiable beneficiary or group of beneficiaries that may include the environment or society other than (or besides) the volunteer's immediate family or friends. This conceptual framework allowed for self-help and mutual aid to be included but would rule out caring for dependent relatives. The issue of organizational setting was fourth. The broad framework allowed for both formal

(organized) and informal (one-to-one) involvement which, may be carried out in corporate or public sectors. The final element was commitment. The sporadic and constant level of high commitment were both embraced in the broad framework of the definition of volunteering. There should be some degree of sustained commitment whether sporadic or a high level of dedication (Cnaan et al. 1998).

Although there are many protégés, copartners, clients, or clientele with specific special needs which may be served by volunteer mentors, this research focused on volunteer mentors who serve at-risk clients because of the availability of the participants through networking resources.

There are many organizations that provide volunteers as mentors. These organizations include for-profit and nonprofit organizations and secular and religious organizations. Due to the researcher's experience in the faith world of Protestant Christianity, the study was centered on nonprofit Christian organizations.

The study was also delimited to volunteer mentors who had formal training in preparation for their role as a mentor. Due to the researcher's regional location and the convenience and availability of networking resources within the state, this study was delimited to volunteers who serve as volunteer mentors in the state of Virginia, USA.

To summarize, the study is delimited to volunteers (persons who provide services without financial reimbursement or financial reimbursement which is less than the value of the work); volunteers who are mentors (persons who help others meet challenges, and accomplish goals); volunteer mentors who reside in the Virginia, USA; and volunteer mentors who reside in Virginia, USA who had been formally trained.

Limitations of Generalization

The data from the samples did not generalize necessarily to mentor training in “for profit” organizations; and the samples did not necessarily generalize to the training of mentors who were paid for their services. The data also did not necessarily generalize to volunteer mentors who had no formal volunteer mentor training. The data, further, did not necessarily generalize to the training of volunteer mentors who did not serve at-risk mentees.

Instrumentation

The researcher designed the interview protocol. It centered on the research questions and the literature from the corporate, religious, and educational settings as related to the research questions’ mentioned previously. The intent of the researcher was to list all significant factors. The interview questions were field-tested by four experienced volunteer mentors. The four volunteer mentors have a total of seventy-five years in the volunteer sector, of which forty-five of the total years were in structured volunteer mentoring programs. One volunteer mentor has a Philosophiae Doctor, in Project Management. Another volunteer mentor has a Master of Arts. The third volunteer mentor has a Bachelor of Arts and the fourth has a Master of Education in Guidance. They reviewed the survey instrument to determine its validity. Revision recommendations included clarification of interview questions, by rewording of statements, alignment of the interview and research questions and minor grammatical corrections. This field testing was important to establish the trustworthiness of the interview questions.

Based upon the ethnographic research design, the data collecting instrument of

interviews was used by the researcher to develop a Likert scale questionnaire from the interviews which were field tested by three volunteer mentors to determine its trustworthiness. The Likert scale questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was administered to the respondents in nonprofit Christian organizations from the Virginia Department of Social Services' data bases, the Christian Women's Job Corps and the local mentoring programs. The instrument measured the training practice of volunteer mentors. The respondents were instructed to choose the letters for their responses on the Likert scale questionnaire that most closely reflected their experience in the volunteer mentor training, based on their current or previous volunteer mentor training. The initial plan was to tabulate the Likert scale questionnaire responses using the optical scan marker. The responses from the volunteer mentors, however, were tabulated manually.

Procedures

Two groups were solicited for participation in the study to analyze the volunteer mentor training practices.

Phase 1–Ethnographic Approach

Qualitative research depends upon four primary sources and forms of data collection: Observations, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials (Creswell 1998, 121). In Phase 1, qualitative approach, the researcher analyzed the leadership practice of volunteer mentors using a qualitative approach. An ethnographic design was used to gain insight into the nonprofit Christian volunteer mentor culture.

The procedures necessary to implement the interview questions that framed the parameters for this study commenced with the researcher formulating the interview

questions from precedent literature. They were constructed to provide information concerning the leadership training practices received by the volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations. The interview questions were field tested by four volunteer mentors who provided recommendations for revision and/or clarification of the questions.

The researcher contacted local, state, and national agencies, acquaintances and data base listings of nonprofit Christian organizations that had volunteer mentors who served at-risk clients in Virginia. The researcher then contacted 4 volunteer mentors from a local mentoring program to solicit their participation in the field testing of the interview questions that analyzed the volunteer mentor training practices. Revisions were made to the interview questions.

Phase 1 included soliciting 12 respondents from local nonprofit Christian organization listed in the Virginia Department of Social Services' data base. Using the revised interview questions that analyzed the volunteer mentor training practice, eight of the 12 respondents agreed to participate and were interviewed. The researcher gained entry into a mentoring program by contacting the directors of the programs. The data collection occurred by interviewing. The researcher contacted the directors of the programs by telephone to request an appointment to discuss the mentoring program and to request the participation of the organizations in the research. Once permission was received, the directors of the programs made contact with the respondents by letter to inform them that the mentoring program had been chosen to be part of a study. The letter also stated that the researcher would be contacting them by telephone to arrange an interview with them as part of this study. The researcher contacted the respondents and

scheduled a time for the interviews. The interview questions were administered to 8 out of 12 respondents from the local nonprofit mentoring program. The interviews were between the researcher and the volunteer mentor only; there were no group arrangements. In preparation for the interview itself, the researcher arranged for the audio taping of the entire session. Two tape recorders were placed in the room to assure the recording of the sessions. The day before each scheduled interview, the researcher made a telephone call or sent an email to each volunteer mentor to remind him or her of the session. The interviews with the 8 respondents were conducted and the data was transcribed, information coded, analyzed and then categorized according to training practice. On the basis of the responses and precedent literature, a Likert scale questionnaire was developed.

The Likert scale questionnaire was then field-tested, using 3 volunteer mentors of a local nonprofit organization to determine its validity. One volunteer mentor who field-tested the questionnaire was a high school teacher who had worked with the rural coalition providing workshops on parenting. Another volunteer mentor who field tested the questionnaire was a high school dropout who had returned to get his General Educational Development (G.Ed.) and is now pursuing an Associates Degree. The third volunteer mentor who field tested the Likert scale questionnaire was a high school dropout who is now working in food services. The volunteer mentors who field tested the Likert scale questionnaire did not list any modifications to the questionnaire.

Phase 2--The Survey of Volunteer Mentors

Phase 2 of the study was the quantitative phase. The researcher selected all organizations that had volunteer mentors who served at-risk mentees from the Virginia

Department of Social Services' data bases, Christian Women's Job Corps and local nonprofit Christian mentoring programs that had agreed to participate.

The selection of the sample population was noted in the section "sample population." To gain entry into this volunteer mentor culture a correspondence was mailed to 107 contact persons (directors, executive directors, or site coordinators) of nonprofit Christian organizations with a self-addressed stamped envelope. A questionnaire was included requesting the following information: (1) If the organization provided volunteer mentor services to at-risk individuals, (2) If the organization is nonprofit, (3) If the organization is Christian, (4) If they want to participate in this study, and (5) If your answer is yes to question 4, how many volunteer mentors are in your organization? The researcher selected all organizations who met the criteria and obtained permission to administer the instrument not more than two months after the development of the instrument.

Upon its formulation, the Likert scale questionnaire along with an instructional cover letter (see Appendix 2) was mailed to the organizations who responded and met the criteria for this research study. Instructions were given to return the Likert scale questionnaire to the researcher within the one week. At this point in time, the researcher emailed the prospective participants and sent post cards to those who did not have email, asking them to complete and return the questionnaire.

Upon the receipt of the completed Likert scale questionnaires, the researcher analyzed the data in order to ascertain patterns in the responses. The patterns provided the necessary information to identify the common ground of understanding that exists between the management and leadership training practices of nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Data analysis was conducted simultaneously with data collection, data interpretation, and narrative writing. In the qualitative analysis, Phase 1 of the research, the researcher collected information from the field by interviewing 8 volunteer mentors from a local mentoring program, sorted that information into categories, formatted the information forming a Likert scale questionnaire, and wrote the qualitative text.

The process of qualitative analysis was based on data reduction and interpretation (Creswell 1994, 154; Marshall and Rossman 1989, 114). The researcher took the information obtained from the interviews and reduced it into categories of management and leadership practices and then interpreted the data. The final goal was the emergence of a larger, consolidated picture. The results of the Likert scale questionnaire distributed for the second survey were analyzed with the intention of finalizing the impact on the current and future volunteer mentor training practice with the inclusion and/or amelioration of the leadership practice, as part of the volunteer mentor training. The display of the information was completed in tabular format. They show the relationship among the categories of information and display categories by respondents.

Sorting through transcripts was done by hand. Codes were assigned to the leadership and management practice categories. These categories and codes formed the

basis for the emerging story told by the researcher. These processes involved what were called segmenting and generating categories, themes, or patterns.

In Phase 2, quantitative, the researcher tabulated the Likert scale questionnaire using descriptive statistics in analyzing the data. The central tendency (mean) and standard deviations were computed using Microsoft Excel. Tables are displayed to show the findings for each management and leadership training practice.

For the purpose of clarity in presenting the findings, the data findings were generated by five research questions. The researcher used both qualitative (Phase 1) and quantitative (Phase 2) approaches. The study was further subdivided into management and leadership practices for each phase. Repetition within the headings was unavoidable.

Synopsis of Volunteer Mentoring Manuals From Various Organizations

There are a plethora of organizations that provide volunteer mentoring to many sectors of the population. In formal mentor training, there are global practices and situational practices. Global practices are not limited to a specific category or area of mentoring. These practices are across the board and are presented at the training. The practice is called orientation. In formal mentor training, orientation prepares the volunteer mentor to perform for the organization. The volunteer mentors are provided with a manual which included a description of the program/mission and outlines the responsibilities. The goals, support plans, reporting, time commitments, qualifications, policies, procedures, and benefits to the volunteer were, in the manual.

The situational practices are referred to as training. The situational practices provided are dependent on the mission of the organization, job description for the

volunteer mentor, and the clientele or mentee. Training occurred according to the job description of the volunteer mentor (community based, work place, school based, internet, peer, one-to-one, group, family, children, educational mentoring, and at-risk mentoring).

The researcher investigated other mentor training programs to determine the extent to which the leadership practice was incorporated in the volunteer mentor training. Many programs were examined but the researcher discussed five in this research study. The seven leadership practices in which the researcher focused were: sense of urgency, envisioning, influencing, anchoring, team building, communicating, and risk taking. The leadership practice, “sense of urgency,” addressed the practices of challenging opportunities to change, grow, innovate, and improve. “Envisioning” related to future possibilities; realistic, credible, attractive, and providing inspiration for the organization. “Influencing” related to the power to affect people or events; the process of using persuasion to have an impact on other people. “Anchoring” was related to securing the new approaches in the culture. “Team building” (creating and building a coalition) related to putting together a group with enough power to lead the change and getting the group to work together as a team. “Communicating” addressed sending and receiving of information within the organization with staff, other volunteer mentors, and mentees. “Risk taking” addressed a willingness to take a chance or venture without regard to possible loss.

The volunteer mentor programs were designated using the word “program” and upper case letters. Program A was an at-risk family mentoring program that was developed in collaboration with a government office, mentoring organizations, and a state

university. The university wrote the manual, provided training using the manual, determined the expected outcomes, and provided a statistical analysis of the findings. Ten hours of training were provided to prepare the volunteer mentors. Included in the manual was orientation. The manual included three out of the seven leadership practices. The practices were risk taking, building relationships (team building) and communicating (listening skills).

Program B was a church mentoring group which provided a formal mentoring program. The program had a manual which included orientation. Included in its training was one out of seven leadership practices. A major section of the manual was given to the leadership practice of communicating.

Program C was a “women helping women” mentoring program. It is a national program and is well structured. It includes levels of training with the mentoring sites being certified. The training manual viewed included orientation and 5 out of 7 of the leadership practices: communicating, risk taking, team building, anchoring, and envisioning.

Program D is a well renown children’s mentoring program. The training manual included orientation and 2 out of 7 of the leadership practices: risk taking and team building. Major emphasis was placed on the relationship throughout the training.

Program E was a children’s mentoring program at a middle school that was supported by a grant from a major corporation. There was a training manual for this program which included orientation and training. One of the seven leadership practices was present in the volunteer training manual. The training practice was team building.

In the investigation of the 5 mentoring programs, there was no program that

had all seven of the leadership practices. One organization had 4 leadership practices, and the least number of leadership practices for any organization was one, found in another group. There may be some bias because the researcher was aware that training was offered to the volunteer mentors beyond the initial manual training because mentor training is ongoing. The researcher, however, did not have access to that information.

Compilation Protocol

The compilation of data for this study was accomplished through the utilization of the research surveys described in Chapter 3. From the interviews, collected in Phase 1, the researcher coded and examined the data contained within these documents and implemented the procedures for conducting a content analysis as suggested by Gall, Borg, and Gall (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 358). The purpose of this analysis was to discover and describe the management and leadership development practices that comprise the volunteer training practice. The overarching goal for the volunteer mentor training is to better prepare the volunteer mentors to help the at-risk mentees achieve their goals which in turn will help them to become successful productive members of society.

In Phase 2, the final survey was a volunteer mentor training practice assessment (see Appendix 1). This analysis was not cumbersome because the participants responded to specific questions. Statistical measures of central tendency and variability were applied to the data. The researcher extricated the data from the individual assessments and recorded them for exhibition and analysis, utilizing the program Microsoft Excel. Microsoft Excel is a comprehensive integrated computer application software program used for managing, analyzing, and displaying data.

Statistical Analysis

The analysis and generalizations drawn from this study were defined by the results of a descriptive research methodology. Its intention was to describe the management and leadership training practice of volunteer mentors. An analysis was therefore utilized to “paint a picture” of the present status of the management and leadership training offered to volunteer mentors. This picture is—a profile of the movement—reflects the present condition of the volunteer mentor training, not a particular volunteer program offered by an organization. The appropriate choices for the statistical measurements for the Likert scale questionnaire are those of “descriptive statistics,” defined by Gall, Borg, and Gall as “mathematical techniques for organizing and summarizing a set of numerical data” (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 175).

It was the researcher’s determination that the use of statistics of probability was not appropriate for this study since this was not a causal study. Measures of variability were equally inappropriate as dominant measures, since this study did not focus upon the possibilities, options, and various outcomes or individual differences, but upon a portrait that is descriptive of the practices, thus pointing to its central tendencies. To state the reasoning for these decisions in other terms, this research is not asking the question, “How far can you diverge from the norm and still be considered to have included leadership practices in the training? ,” but “What is the norm?” The overall content, What is included in the training?, was the focus of this study. It was not individualized differences, or variations within the volunteer mentor training.

The use of central tendency, the mean, was deemed to be the most appropriate statistic applicable to this research. It provided a generalized portrait of the perception

and assessment of the prominent characteristics of volunteer mentor training.

The researcher also attempted to follow the recommendations suggested by Gall, Borg, and Gall, who identified five criteria that can be used to judge whether a test is of sufficient quality to use in educational research. They are “objectivity, standard conditions of administration and scoring, normative data, validity, and reliability” (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1995, 247). “Validity and reliability” were given special attention in this research design due to the fact that the inventory instruments employed were created specifically for this study.

Validity and Reliability

There are always questions of honesty and accuracy in self-report responses. The researcher, therefore, included an instruction to respondents concerning this very theme (see Appendix 1). There are more objective means to address validity concerns. For example, in very large-scale surveys of health behaviors the issues of reliability and validity are typically addressed from three directions.

“External validity” is the extent to which the findings of an experiment can be applied to individuals and settings beyond those that were studied (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 473). It refers to the concordance of self-report data with presumably more accepted indicators of behavior. This idea is contrary to the nature and design of this study, which is built on the self-determination and self-reported perceptions of the training practice for volunteer mentors. This approach to validation is, therefore, inappropriate and ineffective for this study. “Construct validity” is the extent to which self-report behavior is congruent with other theoretically related measures. As noted

previously in Chapters 2 and 3, the attributes chosen as indicators for the volunteer mentor training practice (management and leadership practices) were selected primarily from the components identified in the biblical and social science precedent literature. In addition, the interview questions and the Likert scale questionnaire were field tested by volunteer mentors who confirmed these components.

The final component, “internal validity,” reflected by measures of psychometric internal consistency—sometimes referred to as reliability—is concerned with the degree to which the items contributing to a scale, cluster together or are measuring some aspect of the same construct.

Reliability asks the question of the extent to which one’s findings will be found again. That is, if the inquiry is replicated, would the findings be the same? In social science, the notion of reliability is problematic because human behavior is never static, nor is what many experience necessarily more reliable than what one person experiences . . . Replication of a qualitative study will not yield the same results but, this does not discredit the results of any particular study; there can be numerous interpretations of the same data. The more important question for qualitative researchers is whether the results are consistent with the data collected. Guba and Lincoln (1981), in fact, prefer to think of reliability as consistency or dependability. (Merriam and Simpson 1995, 102)

Context for Qualitative/Anecdotal

Findings describe what is, not what has been nor might be. They are similar to a photographic snapshot or a frame of a film. They are necessary, however, to help articulate the statistics and set the stage for future transformation of both the theory and practice of, in this instance, the volunteer mentor training practice. The findings generated by this research study, therefore, informed the research questions, purposes, and concerns as delineated and described in Chapters 1 and 3, and the results of the two surveys addressed the additional research concern for description of the volunteer mentor

training practice.

The researcher primarily anticipated the display of the data for Phase 1 to involve the use of tables. This anticipation proved reasonable. For the interview, the transcribed document was analyzed by content and tables were utilized to display the data.

The primary intention of the interview group was to establish the parameters and give direction to the investigation of the volunteer mentor training practice. The researcher interviewed eight volunteer mentors who had been formally trained to prepare them for their role as a volunteer mentor serving at-risk mentees. As a direct result of the responses from the respondents to the inquiries, a Likert scale questionnaire was created and distributed to a larger array of practicing volunteer mentors, serving at-risk mentees. This interview was conducted in a conference room setting on the average of one and a half hours with focus being given to the management and leadership practices in volunteer mentor training.

Respondents' Context

This part of the research exhibits a brief profile of the eight volunteer mentors who were the respondents for Phase I in this research study. Fictitious names were selected to ensure anonymity for each respondent. The interview transcripts and questionnaire revealed the respondents' context in terms of their demographic data and socioeconomic background (see Appendix 1). The respondents' context provided a framework for the proper identification and interpretation of volunteer mentor training practices.

Personal Context

The data of the eight respondents showed an age range from eighteen to seventy-four (one in the age range of eighteen to thirty-five, five in the age range of thirty-six to fifty-four, and two in the age range of fifty-five to seventy-four). The respondents included one male and seven females. Six respondents were married, one was single, and one was separated. The respondent who noted she was separated wrote in “separated” as another category. As for ethnic background, the respondents were Afro-Americans. The eight respondents all stated this was their first time in a structured mentoring program.

The Context for the Organization

An assessment was conducted by a local Department of Social Services which revealed the need for a nurturing program (mentoring and positive role modeling) for its clients. The director of the Department of Social Services contacted a local pastor to develop a partnership to assist with that need of a nurturing program with the result being the establishment of a family mentoring program. The Department of Social Services provided the initial start-up costs and in collaboration with the local church set goals for the mentoring program. The program was developed—a handbook written and volunteer mentors recruited and trained. Nine volunteer mentors, all from the local church, received training to serve as volunteer mentors during the initial stage. The focus for this organization was to help the mentees to become self-sufficient.

In 2001 the mentoring program became a part of a nonprofit organization which was initiated by the church. The family mentoring program now has twelve

volunteer mentors, of which ten are active. Two volunteer mentors were from other churches and one of the two was from another denomination.

The volunteer mentors had a three-part initial training, which was still being used for new recruits. They continued to receive monthly training for the first year. Bimonthly training are now used to continue to equip volunteer mentors to serve the at-risk mentees.

Context for Quantitative

Phase 2 used a quantitative approach. The Likert scale was used to obtain data.

Respondents

The sample population for Phase 2 of the research consisted of 102 volunteer mentors. Thirty-four males and 68 females participated in the research study (see table 5). Out of 102 volunteer mentors 10 were between the ages of 18 and 35, twenty-five were between the ages of 36 and 54, and 67 were between the ages of 55 and 74 (see Table 6). Seven out of 102 of the volunteer mentors were divorced; 17 out of 102 of the volunteer mentors were single; 78 out of 102 of the volunteer mentors were married (see Table 7). Out of 102 volunteer mentors, 55 were Baptist; 20 were Episcopalian, 15 were Methodist; and 12 were nondenominational (see Table 8).

The Likert scale questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was administered to the respondents in nonprofit Christian organizations from the Virginia Department of Social Services' data bases, Christian Women's Job Corps and local mentoring programs. Each volunteer mentor met the delimitations of the study: (1) they were a part of nonprofit Christian organizations, (2) they provided volunteer mentoring to at-risk mentees, (3)

they had formal training, and (4) they resided in the state of Virginia, USA.

Out of the 102 volunteer mentors who responded, five were Hispanic, 40 were Afro-American, and 57 were Caucasian. One respondent wrote in “mixed” and in parentheses wrote “mulatto.”

Table 5. Analysis of Findings–Gender

<i>n</i>	Gender/Male	Gender/Female
102	34	68

Table 6. Analysis of Findings–Age Factor

Age Range (<i>n</i> =102)	# of Respondents
18-35	10
36-54	25
55-74	67

Table 7. Analysis of Findings–Marital Status

Marital Status <i>n</i> =102	# of Respondents
Married	78
Single	17
Divorced	7

Compilation

The essential practices of volunteer mentor training were established from the compilation according to, and reflective of, an analysis and synthesis of the data extracted

from precedent literature and interview questions in phase 1. This list of practices was transformed into a questionnaire (see Appendix 1) and submitted to 20 nonprofit Christian organizations. Thirteen of the 20 responded and 110 volunteer mentors from those organizations participated in the research study. Two questionnaires were unusable because the respondents did not adhere to the directions. They answered each item on the questionnaire using “disagree” and “agree,” rather than the prescribed scale given in the directions (See Appendix 1). Six questionnaires were not used because the respondents did not reside in Virginia, USA. The sample population was 102. The researcher also assumed the analysis of the data and data display would be evidenced in the use of tables.

Table 8. Analysis of Findings–Denomination

Denomination <i>n</i> =102	# of Respondents
Methodist	15
Baptist	55
Episcopalian	20

Statistical Analysis

The Likert scale questionnaire measured the training practice of 102 volunteer mentors who serve at-risk mentees. In analyzing the responses for the practice, the researcher used the frequencies for “strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “neither disagree nor agree,” “agree,” and “strongly agree.” In order to establish an ultimate scale score, each of the items in the Likert scale was recorded to standardize the scale. They ranged from one to five, with strongly disagree receiving one point and, by increasing in one-point

increments, culminating in strongly agree receiving five points. In the discussion of findings emanating from the scale score, this standardized and recorded scale was utilized (see Appendix 1). The respondents were instructed to choose the letter of the response on the Likert scale questionnaire that most closely reflected their experience in the volunteer mentor training, based on their current or previous training.

Table 9. Analysis of Findings–Ethnic Background

Ethnic Background (<i>n</i> =102)	# of Respondents
Hispanic	5
Afro-American	40
Caucasian	56

In working with the quantitative data for all five research questions, the mean scores, percentages, and standard deviation were used as the method for determining the relationships. The higher the mean score, the more strongly the respondents agreed with the items' function and/or activity. According to Gall, Borg, and Gall, “Normal curve equivalent scores have a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of 21.06 (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 176). The mean scores are the arithmetic average of the scores and is the most frequently used measure of central tendency. It is calculated by adding up all the scores and dividing that total by the number of scores. Standard deviation is a measure of variability (the amount of dispersion of scores about the mean score or other measure of central tendency). Standard deviation is a measure of the extent to which scores in a distribution deviated from their mean. The standard deviation is popular as a measure of

variability because it is stable. In other words, repeated samples drawn from the same population are likely to have similar standard deviations. The researcher found this to be true in this research study. According to Gall, Borg, and Gall, the mean and the standard deviation, taken together, usually provide a good description of how members of a sample scored on a particular measure (Gall, Borg, and Gall 1996, 178). These scores can be distributed in the form of a normal curve. This curve shows that the scores of the majority of the individuals measured tend to cluster close to the mean. As we move farther and farther from the mean, fewer cases occur. If the score distribution is normally distributed, approximately 68 percent of a sample will have scores within the range of plus or minus one standard deviation from the mean. Approximately 95 percent of such samples will have scores with the range of plus or minus two standard deviations from the mean.

Analysis of the Research Questions

Five research questions formed the basis for the findings in the research study. Each research question was addressed by examining the interview responses from Phase 1 and the Likert scale questionnaire responses for Phase 2.

Research Question 1

Research question 1 asked, “What management training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1–Qualitative

Management is defined as getting things done through people (Lovin and Casstevens 1971, 61). According to Rost, management is an authority relationship

between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate those activities and sell particular goods and/or services (Rost 1993, 145). Management is a set of processes that can keep a complicated system of people and technology running smoothly (Kotter 1996, 25). Management is utilizing the abilities and capacities of people to get things done (Hill 1984, 61). Management is also defined as the process of working with and through individuals and groups and other resources (such as equipment, capital, and technology) to accomplish organizational goals (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 8). Bouee's definition applied to this study. He defined management as "the process of attaining organizational goals by effectively and efficiently planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization's human, physical, financial, and informational resources" (Bouee 1993, 5). Such terms or phrases as "in charge," "run," and "supervise" have been used to describe management. The management practice for this research study was divided into orientation-cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation-and training.

Interview question 1

The interview questions were open-ended allowing freedom to the respondents to express fully the training received. To answer research question 1, the respondents answered interview questions 1 and 2 (see Appendix 1). The transcript extracts from these questions were selected for the purpose of illustrations. Because of the limited amount of space, it is almost impossible to report all the details of the transcripts from the interviews. The researcher selected the transcript extracts that were most representative of the themes or factors under discussion. In order for the transcript extracts to be as close to the spoken language as possible, some grammar rules were intentionally ignored.

Interview question 1 was divided into two main headings: orientation and training. This interview question was also subdivided further into three subheadings: cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation (see Appendix 1).

Orientation. Orientation in this research study was defined as the process of making volunteers feel comfortable with and understanding the work of the organization. It was designed to provide them with background and practical knowledge of the organization and help them understand how they can contribute to the purpose of the organization.

Cause orientation. The first interview question for cause orientation asked the respondents, “What is the cause or problem which your organization addresses?”

Three out of the eight respondents surveyed, stated that the cause or problem of the organization was addressed in training which the goal was to help the mentees to become self-sufficient. Doris stated “. . . the cause or problem of the organization is to help families to become self-sufficient.” Frances stated, “. . . A family mentoring program addresses the needs of young families to become self-sufficient and positive contributors to their communities.” Sylvia replied by stating, “My understanding of the cause of the mentoring program in which I received training is to help people succeed by encouraging them to get a better education, get out on their own, and get a good paying job.” Three respondents identified the population which their organization served. Holly’s comment was, “Some of the problems our organization addresses are mothers (unwed) with limited education, not even high school education and having limited job skills—young women that have become parents and they are not ready for that role.”

Brenda replied by saying “I gained from the training that the cause or problem of the organization is to help mothers, young mothers, that are basically stuck in a rut—the same jobs. They need a boost. They need someone to give them a kick (jump start) to get them started or moving in the right direction.” Louise stated, “We address young women, who are on welfare, have children, and may not see a brighter future. We are trying to help them see a brighter future. To provide help to those who seem lost.” Other respondents ($n=2$) added that the cause was to see the best come out of people and to help the mentees develop a work ethic. In sorting through the interview data, the researcher discovered the recurring theme of “help.” From the precedent literature and the biblical theological foundations that address the relational concern, the gift of “helps” is seen as the primary influential factor in addressing the cause or the problem of the mentor program. The Scriptural passage, Galatians 6:2 reads, “Help carry one another’s burdens and this way you will obey the law of Christ.”

When the eight respondents were asked to expound further, they expressed that in training they had been given the goals and objectives established by the organization which addressed the cause or problem in which the organization was established. The goals and objectives were developed to communicate this overarching theme of self-sufficiency and to help move the willing mentees to their full God-given potential.

The next question under cause orientation was, “How would you describe the mentees that you will be serving?” Three of the respondents reported that in the training the mentees were described as having low wealth or living in poverty. Two respondents stated that the mentees had been described as capable young adults who could become self-sufficient members of their community and able to contribute positively to their

communities if provided with guidance, support and encouragement.

The training provided a picture of some conditions observed in the mentees' population: Some at-risk mentees have poor house management skills; some of the at-risk mentees are comfortable as they are, complacent; some at-risk mentees have an element of distrust; some at-risk mentees have limited job skills; all at-risk mentees (in this research study) worked in low level entry jobs or did not work; some at-risk mentees have limited nutrition knowledge; and some at-risk mentees have limited parenting skills. The common thread that appears to run through the responses was the absence of life skills. Erikson emphasized developmental change through the human life span. In his theory, eight stages of development unfold as one goes through life. Each stage consists of a crisis that must be faced. According to Erikson, this crisis is not a catastrophe but a turning point of increased vulnerability and enhanced potential. The more the individual resolves the crises successfully, the healthier development will be (Welchman 2000, 52-56). From the responses of the volunteer mentors, they were made aware that the at-risk mentees have not resolved successfully one or more of the developmental stages.

The next question under cause orientation was, "What is the mission and value of your organization?" Joe replied by stating that he interpreted from the training that "the mission and value of the organization is to elevate the population . . . Bring them up to the level to live better so they can enjoy life . . . Jesus did the same thing." Six out of 8 stated that they had been trained that the mission and value of the organization were to help or assist at-risk mentees become self-sufficient.

The next question under cause orientation was, "What is the history of the organization?" All 8 of the participants responded with incomplete descriptions of the

history of their organizations. Frances responded by saying, “. . . is an outreach ministry of” Joe responded by saying, “The director was the main founder of the organization. And that, from what I am gathering the President is saying let’s get them (at-risk mentees) off of the backs of the government and put them on the backs of the churches.” Louise stated, “I don’t really remember the history of mentoring. I know that a lady approached the director about mentoring coming into the area. The program got started from there.” Brenda stated, “It was a brainstorm of the director. She saw some need in the counties that young mothers needed help.” Holly stated, “It is a new organization and I am not aware of it having a history prior to me becoming a part of it.” Sylvia and Jessica responded by saying, “I don’t know the history” Eight respondents agreed that the history was presented orally, but had not been given to them in a written form. Some respondents ($n=3$) replied that they did not have a written copy of the history and assumed that it was because they were present during its inception and had been told orally what was occurring.

The next question under cause orientation asked the respondents to “List the programs and services of the organization.” There were overlapping responses. One out of 8 respondents stated that guidance was a service provided to the at-risk mentee. One out of 8 replied by stating that the service of support was provided to the at-risk mentees. Two respondents out of 8 made the statement that encouragement is given to the at-risk mentees. In sorting through the interview data, the researcher discovered the volunteer mentors were listing themes that were present in the definition of mentoring. Mentoring is a one-to-one relationship of mutual commitment, caring and trust between a more experienced person and a younger person (*Encarta World Dictionary* 2003, North America

2nd ed., s.v. “mentoring”; Finkelmeier 1995, 15; Wilson 1999). A mentor is a trusted and experienced individual freely acting as a friend, advisor, coach, guide, teacher, or role model to someone less experienced and in need of such a relationship (Ferronato n.d., 6; Kelly and Schweitzer 1999, 130-49). Mentoring has been defined also as a process of an integrated approach to advising, coaching, and nurturing, focused on creating a viable relationship to enhance individual career/personal/professional growth and development (Adams 1998; Young 2001; Colwell 1998, 313-15).

One out of 8 of the respondents stated that communication skills were provided which helped in developing a relationship with the at-risk mentee. Three out of 8 respondents replied by saying that they had been trained in budgeting which is a service provided to the at-risk mentee. Nutrition is also a service in which 2 out of 8 respondents stated that they received training to help assist the at-risk mentees. Awareness of data bases for resources (clothes closet, food pantry, child care, and financial assistance) was a service in which 2 out of 8 respondents stated they were provided training to assist the at-risk mentees. Two out of 8 respondents stated that goal setting was a service that also was provided and in which training was received. Socialization was the service in which 4 out of 8 respondents stated that the organization provided services and in which training is ongoing to assist the at-risk mentees. The socialization process included activities and outings provided to the at-risk mentees and their families. One out of 8 respondents stated that training in parenting skills was provided in training. One out of 8 of the respondents stated that active listening skills were provided in training. One out of 8 of respondents stated training had been given on ways to celebrate when the at-risk mentee’s goals were accomplished.

The next question under cause orientation was, “Are there other nonprofit organizations in the same field. If so, what are their distinguishing characteristics of your organization?” Frances stated, “. . . I was thinking about Social Services as an agency involved in mentoring. I wasn’t sure if they had a mentoring program. I know that schools have a mentoring program but I am not sure to what extent it is being carried forward. The major difference is that our mentoring program is Christian.” Joe and Louise replied by saying, “I am not aware of any organizations.” “I don’t know of any in our area who are in the same field” was the reply made by Brenda. “I don’t know of any organizations who are in the same field who provide family mentoring,” said Holly. She continued by saying, “I am aware of an organization in a neighboring county, that provides mentoring and/or nurturing, but I think they are paid volunteer mentors.” Sylvia commented by saying that she also is not aware of any organizations in this area who provide mentoring services. Doris and Jessica said there are mentoring programs in the school system and some churches provide mentoring to the members in their congregations, especially to the youth. The school program, however, is not biblically based and many church mentoring programs are not formal because they do not provide training nor require accountability of their volunteer mentors. According to the responses about other nonprofit organizations in the same field, the respondents ($n=8$) stated they were not given a list of those organizations performing the same type service (at-risk family mentoring). During the training, however, some respondents ($n=3$) stated that a discussion occurred concerning several local nonprofit organizations in the same field but they were not biblically based.

The last question under cause orientation was, “What are the future plans of

your organization?” The respondents ($n=8$) all agreed that the future plans for the organizations was expansion. There was an overlapping of responses in which some respondents were more specific than others. The comments on the future plans of their organization reflected that the respondents ($n=5$) had been told in training that the plans included growth and expansion by recruiting and training more volunteers to become mentors ($n=3$), expanding by developing mentoring programs in other counties ($n=1$), and embracing a new population of mentees such as children ($n=1$). The future plans discussed in training also included the continuation of assisting or helping families ($n=3$).

In summation, the interviews revealed that the 8 respondents were prepared for their role as volunteer mentor in the area of cause orientation. They could articulate with clarity what occurred in training. What occurred in training for cause orientation allowed the new volunteer mentors to gain an understanding of the mentoring process and then the philosophy goals and expectations of the organization. It allowed them to learn and discuss the mentoring elements such as the meaning of mentoring, the function of mentoring, and the benefit of mentoring. The orientation also included a basic understanding of the mentees' socialization. A knowledge of how mentees learned their role in life, adjust to life situations, and internalized family/community values help make the volunteer mentors' work fit the needs of the mentees and the mentoring program. Cause orientation served as a time for volunteer mentors to learn about mentees, in particular the mentee with whom a mentor would be associated. Learning about the mentees helped volunteer mentors begin planning for time, locations, content, and methods.

The responses of the respondent evidenced that planning (managerial function)

occurred in cause orientation. There were three areas in planning used in the training for the respondents. Strategic planning is a set at organizational levels and is usually of long duration. The respondent in an attempt to discuss the history alluded to forming of the mentoring program. Tactical planning, set by middle managers to support corporate goals, is related to individual departments, and is usually middle duration, often less than a year. Operational planning is set by first-line management, to be achieved in the short run by individuals or departments. The mentors acted in a dual roles as the middle managers and first-line management who supported and achieved the mentoring program goals.

System orientation. Five questions were posed to the respondents to assess if they received training in the area of system orientation.

The first question was, “What are the structure and programs, with illustrations of what volunteer mentors contribute to the program?” Brenda responded by saying, “A nonprofit organization operated the program. The director for the program is Carla and the secretary is Thomas. The volunteer mentors and mentees also are a part of the structure.” Jessica gave the most complete answer to the question. She answered the question by stating:

The mentoring program is a part of a nonprofit organization in partnership with the local Department of Social Services which has a board of directors. The staff of the organization consists of the director for the program and a secretary/clerk, which are both paid positions. The structure also includes mentors and mentees. The volunteer mentors interact with the at-risk mentees by providing encouragement, guidance, information, support, and love. An illustration of the support structure was, when my mentee’s car was not operating and I picked her children up from an after school program and took them home. This is not a standard practice of transporting the mentee or her children, but in times of emergencies I try to be there. Another illustration is when my mentee and I wrote short, intermediate, and long term goals for her to achieve. When she achieves the goals, we celebrate her accomplishments.

Other respondents ($n=3$) listed the structure as the director and volunteer mentors; director, mentors, mentees, and Department of Social Services; and director, nonprofit organization, mentees, and mentors. Three out of 8 respondents did not address the question. Their responses addressed service issues rather than the structure.

The second interview question under system orientation asked, “What are the policies and procedures?” All respondents ($n=8$) reported that included in their manual was a section on policies and procedures. Most respondents ($n=6$) listed the following policies: confidentiality and attendance at volunteer mentor meetings/training. The respondents listed the following procedures: initial screening; visitations (traveling in pairs); record keeping; dos and don’ts; contact either face-to-face or telephone; develop positive relationship with mentee; model behavior; submit monthly contact sheets; report problems to director; and submitting to criminal background check.

The third question under system orientation asked “How does the organization operate?” In sorting through the data, the researcher discovered that all respondents ($n=8$) had received training on the operation of the mentoring program. Frances reported that, “the director was the overall administrator of the program. She provided information on community resources, reviewed cases, and assigned volunteer mentors to at-risk mentees. The volunteer mentors made contact with the at-risk mentees on a weekly basis maintaining a log of contact times and activities. The secretary/clerk performed the clerical work to help maintain the program.” Brenda replied by stating that “Mentees were referred by the local Department of Social Services. The mentees are screened by the director and secretary/clerk and were matched with volunteer mentors. The volunteer mentor and the mentee then arrange the schedule for weekly meetings or visitations.” The

findings from sorting the data of the other respondents ($n=6$) revealed that their responses were consistent with the above respondents.

The fourth question under system orientation was, “Where are the facilities and what equipment is available to you?” The interview data revealed that a list of facilities and equipment was made available to the volunteer mentor in their training. The facility list included the building in which the program is housed ($n=8$) and the local church that developed the nonprofit organization with which the volunteer mentoring program is affiliated ($n=8$). The equipment list included the volunteer manual handbook ($n=1$), public facilities (libraries and parks) ($n=1$), and office, audio and video equipment ($n=4$).

The fifth question under the heading system orientation asked the question “Describe the record-keeping requirements, time lines of the organization’s activities and key events.” The respondents ($n=8$) stated they received training in record keeping. Jessica described the record-keeping requirements by stating, “We were given a packet in January with twelve contact sheets for each month. When contact was made with our mentees, we were to log in the dates, the length of time of contacts, and activities. On the last day of the month we were to mail, fax, or bring to the secretary/clerk the contact sheets which showed the face-to-face contacts or telephone calls made with our mentees.”

In sorting through the data, the researcher discovered that the respondents ($n=8$) revealed that they did not have a written copy of a time-line, but they were aware of the time and date for the bimonthly meetings and the annual event which was to occur after the Christmas holiday for the volunteer mentors and the at-risk mentees’ families. Jessica stated, “Since our funding was cut, the major outing which we planned for socialization for our mentees has been reduced to local gatherings.”

In summation, the researcher noted this portion of the orientation (system orientation) provided an organizational context for the volunteers and made them understand how they fit into the processes of the organization. This material was often presented in a factual way, with charts, descriptive handouts, PowerPoint presentations, followed by a question and answer period to clarify issues. This part of the orientation session allowed the volunteer mentors to see how the role they played related to the work of the organization. It showed them the basic requirements of that role and how that role linked to other areas of the organization. If the volunteer mentors better understand, the organization's operation and procedures, they would be able to contribute more productively.

System orientation embraces the second management activity, organizing. The traditional method of organizing is by function or division. In recent years the trend has been to organize work by teams and networks with the aim of minimizing levels of decision-making. The mentor and mentee become a team. This step involved bringing together resources—people, capital, and equipment—in the most effective way to accomplish the goals. As a team (mentor and mentee), the volunteer mentor actively sought resources, with the help of the mentoring program, to help the mentee achieve the goal of self-sufficiency.

Social orientation. Three interview questions in the area of social orientation were asked the 8 respondents from the nonprofit Christian organization. These questions addressed the management function, motivating/directing.

The first question asked, "What is the culture and etiquette of the nonprofit organization (dress, customs, etc.)?" The respondents ($n=3$) describe the culture as

Christian. They further explained this to mean, nonjudgmental, committed, and empathic. One respondent out of 8 replied that the culture is faith-based. The remaining respondents ($n=4$) did not address the culture. Many respondents ($n=7$) said that the dress code was casual. Jessica stated, “The dress code was situational. If attending court with the at-risk mentee the dress would be more professional than when visiting in the home of the mentee.”

The second question under social orientation was, “What approaches were initiated to make you feel welcomed?” In sorting through the data, the researcher discovered the staffs’ managerial style played a major role in the process of making the volunteer mentors feel welcome. The respondents ($n=8$) listed the following as intentional approaches during the training, that made them feel welcomed: openness of the staff, invitation to a baby shower for the two mentees (simultaneously) and the witnessing of the outpouring of love toward the unwed mothers, approachable attitudes of the leaders of the organization, and volunteer mentors’ good interpersonal skills which allowed positive interaction with leadership and other volunteer mentors.

The third question under social orientation was, “How were you introduced to the leadership of your nonprofit organization?” Many of the respondents ($n=6$) stated they were introduced to the leadership because they were members of the same church. One out of 8 respondents stated the director was a childhood acquaintance. One out of 8 respondents also stated that the introduction of the leaders of the mentoring program or formal greeting was made during the initial training.

In summation, the third subject area for orientation, social integration, introduced the volunteer mentors to the social community that they were asked to join and

began to forge the personal bonds that sustained volunteer involvement. The social introduction occurred in a variety of ways. It was interspersed throughout the other stages. Some introductions were made after the formal acceptance of a volunteer mentor, with the personal mentor or companion, who met with them informally to welcome them into the organization, introduced them to its processes, with provisions for support during their early development. It also consisted of introducing the volunteer mentors to their future supervisors to discuss how they would be working together.

Social orientation described the roles and responsibilities. It included training which communicated to the volunteer mentors the web of relationships in which they will be working: (1) This is with whom you will be working and this is your role in the task and (2) This is the role and how it fits into the task (McCurley and Lynch 1996, 66).

Social orientation embraces the managerial function, motivating/directing. Motivating/directing played a large part in determining the level of performance of mentees and volunteer mentors, which in turn, influences how effectively the organizational goals are met and how effectively the at-risk mentees achieve their goals.

Training. The data findings continued with the researcher analyzing three questions under training. The first interview questions for training asked, “Were you provided with information to perform the work successfully? What was provided?” In response to the questions the respondents ($n=8$) talked about the varied information provided during training which included: cultural diversity ($n=1$); parenting skills—developmental stages of children ($n=1$); communication skills—listening skills ($n=2$); personal hygiene ($n=1$); dietary concerns or nutrition ($n=1$); budgeting ($n=2$); and confidentiality policy ($n=1$). The respondents also discussed teaching techniques/methods

used to present the information which included: role playing ($n=2$); video presentations ($n=2$); resource persons ($n=1$); and the training manual ($n=2$).

The second interview question under training was “Did the training provide you with the skills needed to perform the work successfully? If so, what skills were provided? In sorting through the interview data for this question, the researcher discovered some of the same responses were given to this interview question as given to the above question. When referencing information provided in training, Jessica stated, “Information was provided and then the different teaching techniques/strategies presented help me to acquire the active listening skills, budgeting skills, and parenting skills, communication skills, clerical skills (filling out contact reports), and unconditional regard skills—not accepting the inappropriate behavior of the mentee but accepting the person who is made in the ‘image of God.’”

The last interview question asked, “Were you given training in attitudes or approaches necessary to perform the work successfully?” The respondents ($n=8$) all agreed attitude and approaches were presented during training. The approaches included: nonjudgmental ($n=3$); have a positive attitude ($n=2$); don’t be overbearing ($n=2$); don’t be shocked by any situation ($n=1$); be willing to listen ($n=1$); open mindedness ($n=2$); patience ($n=1$); and don’t push religion or self on the mentee ($n=1$).

In summation, these questions addressed the management function, controlling. Controlling involved feedback of results and follow-up to compare accomplishments with plans and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations. The respondents were asked questions in such a manner that they had to evaluate the type of training received in knowledge, skills, and attitude.

The volunteer mentors were provided with formal training. Formal training prepared them for their specific job. Sometimes this training can be lengthy, especially when volunteer mentors were recruited, who lack the specific skills required by the position. Formal training was presented in a variety of ways such as lectures, readings, discussion, field trips, videos, panel discussions, demonstrations, role-playing, case studies, simulations, and more. Some of these methods were listed by the volunteer mentors in their responses to the interview questions. To retain the attention of an audience trainers uses a variety of methods which appeared to be what occurred in the training received by the respondents.

Interview question 2

Phase 1 continues with the anecdotal feedback given by interviewees as they addressed the interview questions. The intent of interview question 2 was to discover the respondents' assumptions concerning the definition of management. The researcher asked the respondents, "Brainstorm a list of words that come to mind when you think of the word manager." Some respondents ($n=8$) were using the word leadership and management synonymously. This question is a prerequisite to answering interview question 7.

In answering interview question 2, thirty-two responses were made by the 8 respondents (see Table 10). Jessica stated, The words that come to mind for manage are, "overseer of people, planning, power/authority, organizing, controlling, and staffing." The word "lead" or a form of the word was stated 4 out of 32 times by 3 out of 8 of the respondents. The word "control" or a form of the word was also used 4 times to describe the word "manage" by 5 out of 8 respondents. In the list of words stated by the

respondents for the word “manage” the word “overseer” was used in the 32 responses by 2 of the 8 respondents. Other descriptors for “manage,” listed by the respondents included a positive attitude, getting the job done, power, director, capable, function, knowledgeable, coping ability, the person in charge, instructs, function, make things work, rules, takes care of business or affairs, supervising, and responsibility.

Table 10. Cumulative data from Interview Question 2

Respondents (Volunteer (Mentors))	Responses
Doris	lead power leader getting a job done positive attitude a go-getter
Frances	director knowledgeable capable coping ability the person in charge
Joe	lead control function overseer of people
Louise	control make things work
Brenda	leader instructs rules control
Holly	takes care of business or affairs
Sylvia	control supervising responsibility
Jessica	controlling planning organizing staffing overseer of people power/authority

Orientation

This section reported the findings for cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation.

Cause orientation/planning. Questions included for cause orientation were: question 3–mission of the organization; question 9–description of client group; question 11–description of mission and values; question 17–description of history; question 20–communication of the vision, question 29–distinguishing characteristics of other organizations; and question 35–description future plans.

The research revealed cause orientation/planning was significantly present in volunteer mentor training and was necessary to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees. The mean score for the cause orientation/planning was 20.4 with a standard deviation of 16.7. The upper mean score was 37.1. The frequencies for “strongly agree” for questions 3 and 9 were above the upper mean score (see Table 11). Questions 3, 9, 11, 17, and 35 were above the upper mean score for “agree.” The findings for the frequencies for “agree” for questions 20 and 29 were also above the mean score. The statistical analysis evidenced the researcher’s assumption that the practices for cause orientation/planning were significantly present in the volunteer mentor training.

System orientation/organizing. Another area of orientation was system orientation. System orientation addressed the management function organizing. For this research study, the questions addressed: question 5–presentation of the timelines of the organization’s activities and key events; question 15–how to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts; question 18–how to describe the structure and programs of the organization with illustrations of what volunteer mentors contribution to those programs; and question 27–how to use the equipment of the organization (see Table 13).

The mean score for system orientation/organizing was 20.4 and the standard

deviation for system orientation/organizing was 16.7. The difference between the mean and the standard deviation was the lower mean score. The lower mean was 4.05 for system orientation/planning. These findings for system/orientation evidenced the respondents perceived that those practices (presentation of time lines; how to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts; how to describe the structure and programs of the organization, with illustrations of what volunteer mentors contribute to those programs; how to use the equipment of the organization) were presented in training.

Table 11. Cause Orientation/Planning

SD= strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
3	Mission of organization	0	0	12	47	43	20.4
9	Describe client group	1	1	13	49	38	20.4
11	Describe mission and values	2	17	5	45	33	20.4
17	Describe history	0	15	18	50	19	20.4
20	Communicate the vision	13	6	13	36	37	20.4
29	Distinguishing characters	3	16	22	34	30	20.4
35	Describe future plans	0	10	34	49	27	20.4

Social orientation. As noted previously, the third part of orientation is social orientation. Social orientation addressed the management function of motivation and/directing. It is important to understand the human element in organizations. For this part of the study the following questions were asked: Question 4–identification of the leadership people in the organization; question 7–the formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization or by leadership of a new

organization; and question 21–how to describe the organization’s culture and etiquette. training occurred significantly in the management practice–cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation–for the one hundred and two respondents.

In summation, the findings revealed training occurred significantly in the management practice–case, system, and social orientation–for the 102 respondents.

Table 12. System Orientation/Organizing
SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	S	SA	<i>m</i>
5	Timelines of activities	9	2	19	43	29	20
15	Record of mentor-mentee contacts	0	4	13	44	41	20
18	Structure & volunteer mentor contributions	0	13	15	45	29	20
27	Use of equipment	0	3	28	38	31	20

Training

The Likert scale questionnaire addressed the four practices for training: question 1–how to develop goal setting strategies, question 31–how to accept different points of view; question 40–how to secure resources; and question 43–how to develop a positive personal relationship. The mean score for training/controlling was 20.4 with a standard deviation of 16.2. The upper mean score was 36.6. The findings from Table 14 showed the frequencies for “strongly agree” for questions 31 and 43 were above the upper mean. Also noted from Table 14, the frequencies for “agree” for questions 1, 31, 40, and

43 were above the mean score of 20.4.

Table 13. Social Orientation/Motivating
SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	<i>SD</i>	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
4	Identification of leadership	0	1	14	50	37	20.4
7	Formal greeting	2	3	16	44	37	20.4
21	Culture & etiquette of the organization	1	3	19	40	39	20.4

Table 14. Training/Controlling
SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	<i>SD</i>	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
1	Goal setting strategies	5	10	13	42	32	20.4
31	Accept different points of view	0	5	18	40	39	20.4
40	Secure resources	10	8	16	32	36	20.4
43	Develop positive personal relationships	0	3	13	34	52	20.4

In summation, these findings evidenced that in the respondents opinion they had been trained in these practices and that the four practices were important in equipping the volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees on how to determine goal setting strategies, how to accept different points of view, how to secure resources, and how to develop positive personal relationships

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asked, “What leadership training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1—Qualitative

The responses from the respondents to interview questions 3, 4, and 5 answered research question 2. The report of the findings continues from the interviews of the respondents with the data analysis of the leadership training practice.

Interview question 3

Interview question 3 asked the respondents ($n=8$), “Identify leadership training practices or skills that you have received or are receiving that have become apparent and are necessary for interacting with your mentee.” It was the intent of the researcher for the respondents to describe the process or relationship rather than personality traits and behaviors. The respondents identified a combination of practices, skills, characteristics, and/or competencies which were specific to their area of mentoring. The respondents also listed global training practices applied to mentoring.

One respondent, Doris, listed the following practices or skills she received in training, “communication skills, goal setting, social interaction, cultural diversity, parenting, and nutrition. The ability to model good parenting skills and talk to my mentee concerning proper nutrition helped to build our relationship.” The researcher was cognizant that the two areas, parenting and nutrition, were specific to the type of mentoring provided by this organization in which Doris was a volunteer mentor. Another respondent, Frances, stated “all training received was necessary for interacting with the

mentee.” She also discussed the training in cultural diversity she had received by stating, “What may be the norm for us (volunteer mentors) may not be the perceived norms for the mentees.” The skills and/or practices necessary for interacting with mentees listed by Joe were, humble, careful, insightful, and futuristic. Influence and mutual purpose are two leadership practices listed by Brenda. A mutual purpose is considered one of the essential elements of leadership (Rost 1993, 103; Bennis and Nanus 1985, 39-40).

Another respondent, Holly, stated that she received the following practices, skills and/or competencies, listening skills, training in attitude (nonjudgmental), and cultural diversity. In replying to interview question 3, Sylvia stated, “The training that helps to enable others to become leaders is a necessary skill for interacting with mentees.” According to Bennis and Nanus, one of the exemplary traits of a leader is to develop future leaders (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 215-29). Jessica stated that, “Training in the following practices, skills and/or competencies is necessary for interacting with mentees, goal setting (futuristic), mutual purpose, encouraging, celebrating wins, securing resources, empowering, developing leaders, not pushy–noncoercive, and immediate change–sense of urgency.” From Jessica’s responses the researcher assumes that she had leadership development training or had read texts on leadership. When asked if she had leadership development training, Jessica responded by saying, “I have attended several leadership seminars.” The researcher observed that Jessica included in her list many of the practices and/or skills for leadership as espoused by authorities in the field of leadership.

In summation, five out of the 7 leadership practices were stated by the respondents that had been identified in precedent literature as leadership practices. They were–envisioning (developing mutual purpose), influencing (noncoercive), anchoring

(ensuring leadership development), and a sense of urgency.

Interview Question 4

Interview question 4 asked the respondents, “Brainstorm a list of words and/or practices that come to mind when you think of the word leadership.” In precedent literature, a comparison was made of the leadership theories/practices (see Table 5). The characteristics of the different theories included influencing, multidirectional, empowering, mutual purpose, futuristic, securing resources, noncoercive, risk taker, encourage the heart, intending real change, and sense of urgency. The table showed the concurrence of the theories by the different proponents.

Doris and Joe stated that management and leadership were the same. Louise stated, “Management and leadership were similar.” She listed the following words and/or practices, “communicator, creative, visionary, draws from others’ ideas, and people skills.” Holly stated that “Leaders take the initiative.”

Six out of 8 of the respondents listed different practices, skills, characteristics, and/or competencies received in training than those used for management. Frances in responding to interview question listed the following as practices, skills, characteristics and/or competencies received in training for leadership, “positive attitude, a good follower, helpful, a good listener, encourager and supporter, and commitment.” “Setting a good example and encouraging others to do better” are the practices, skills, and/or competencies for leadership stated by Sylvia. Jessica listed the following as the practices for leadership, “influence, not pushy, visionary, encouraging, and supportive.”

In summation, the findings showed that respondents included in the list of

practices, communicating and team building. In answering, interview questions 3 and 4, the respondents mentioned the seven leadership practices (sense of urgency, envisioning, influencing, communicating, team building, risk taking and anchoring) the researcher intended to focus on in this research study.

Table 15. Cumulative data for Interview Question 4

Respondents	Responses			
Doris	lead	leader	power	
Frances	positive attitude encourager	good follower supporter	helpful commitment	good listener
Louise	controls	overseer		
Brenda	leader	instructs	rules	
Holly	guide	directing	setting	example
Sylvia	encouraging	setting	example	
Jessica	influence supportive	not pushy	visionary	encouraging
Joe	controls	functions leader	overseer	

Interview question 5

Interview question 5 asked, “Describe how you distinguish the management training practices from the leadership practices.” To be knowledgeable in both disciplines enhances the volunteer mentors’ competencies and thus enables them to be more efficient in their relationship with the at-risk mentees.

In response to the interview question, Doris stated that “There is no difference

in the training.” Frances stated that “Management is learned. Leadership is learned and is also an inborn quality.” Joe replied by stating in interview question 4, “Management and leadership are the same.” In question 5, however, he made a distinction between leadership and management by saying, “Managers only look over the operation, that could be a machine running or group of people doing something. A leader also has insight. He goes to the next step. He can say why they are doing it this way . . . A manager would do the same thing the same way each time.” In making the distinction between management and leadership training practices, Louise stated, “Leaders are visionary and managers carry things out.” Brenda stated, “Managers are a group of people doing the same thing. Managers do the same thing the same way. Leaders manage people but have insight; they can explain why we are doing it a certain way.” Holly stated, “Managers make sure the clerical section runs smoothly. Leaders are in the front acting as the guide.” Jessica distinguished a management training practice from a leadership training practice by stating, “Managers maintain what is in place and leaders envision what is to come. The managers carry out what the leaders envision.”

In summation, the theme that ran through the responses was the practice envisioning (insightful). In precedent literature, Rost discussed the differences between leadership and management (Rost 1993, 149). Leadership guides, directs, and influences; and management operates and maintains. Leadership is futuristic, and management deals with the present. Leadership intends real change and management produces and sells goods. Leadership is noncoercive, and management is coercive. Leadership is multidirectional, and management is unidirectional and top-down. Leadership has a mutual purpose, and management coordinates activities.

Phase 2–Quantitative

Leadership practices were divided into seven areas: sense of urgency, envisioning, influencing, communicating, team building, risk taking, and anchoring. The leadership practice, sense of urgency addressed the pressing importance of challenging opportunities to change, growth, innovation and improvement. The areas for sense of urgency were addressed in question 2–the ability to recognize that conflict is healthy; question 6–the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations; and question 14–the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities. The areas for each practice that are equal to or above the upper mean and the mean scores imply or indicate that the practices were significantly present in the training and beneficial to the respondents in helping to serve at-risk mentees.

The mean score for sense of urgency was 20.4 with a standard deviation of 11.0 resulting in an upper mean score of 31.4. The findings showed that the frequency for the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities was above the upper mean for “strongly agree.” The findings further showed that the frequencies for “agree” for the two practices, the ability to recognize that conflict is healthy and the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities were above the upper mean score; the frequency for “agree” for the question, the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations, was above the mean score (see Table 16).

In summation, the data finding for the leadership practice, sense of urgency, revealed that the 102 respondents perceived that these leadership practices were significantly present in the training.

Another leadership practice was envisioning. Envisioning practices addressed future possibilities; realistic, credible, attractive, and inspiring future for the organization.

The Likert scale questionnaire included the following areas for envisioning: question 12–how to articulate the vision for the organization; question 22–how to develop strategies for achieving the vision; question 25–how to reinvigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents; question 32–how to use increased credibility to change all timelines, structures, systems, and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision; and questions 45–how to maintain contact with those being mentored.

Table 16. Sense of Urgency

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (n=102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
2	Recognize conflict is healthy	13	10	17	41	21	20.4
6	Examine the market/competitive	10	15	33	25	19	20.4
14	ID crises & opportunities	10	8	13	38	33	20.4

The mean score for envisioning was 20.4 and the standard deviation was 13.9. The upper mean score was 34.3. The results showed the frequency for “strongly agree” for question 45 was above the upper mean score. The results further showed that the frequencies for “agree” for questions 12, 22, 32, and 45 were above the mean score. These were indicators that the leadership practice, envisioning, was present in training and that the volunteer mentors perceived these practices better prepared them to serve at-risk mentees. Question 25 was below the mean for “strongly agree” and above the mean for “disagree” which resulted in the researcher concluding that there was no significant presence of this area of envisioning, how to invigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents. This was an indication that the respondents did not significantly perceive that they had received training for this practice (see Table 17).

In summation, the respondents perceived that 4 out of 5 of the envisioning areas were significantly presented in their training. The practice of how to reinvigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents, was not perceived by the 102 respondents as being present in the volunteer mentor training.

Table 17. Envisioning

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
12	Articulate the vision	12	5	10	45	30	20.4
22	Develop strategies	2	17	16	39	28	20.4
25	Reinvigorate the mentoring	2	27	18	35	20	20.4
32	Increase credibility	10	6	19	34	33	20.4
45	Maintain contact with mentees	1	6	14	37	44	20.4

Another leadership practice was influencing. Influencing addressed the power to affect persons or events; the process of using persuasion to have an impact on other people. The practice of influencing was addressed by question 26—how to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional and question 33—the ability to understand that influence behaviors are noncoercive.

The mean score for influencing was 20.4 with a standard deviation of 10.4; thus the upper mean score was 30.9. The frequencies for questions 26 and 33 were below the mean score for “strongly agree.” The frequencies for “agree” for questions 26 and 33 were above the mean score. The frequencies for “neither disagree or agree” for questions 26 and 33 were above the mean score. No conclusive results could be drawn from this findings for the leadership practice, influencing (see Table 18).

Communicating was another leadership practice. This practice was related to communicating within the organizations, staff, other volunteer mentors, and mentees. The questions for communicating included: question 1–how to develop goal setting strategies; question 8–the ability to look forward and see the big picture; question 19–the ability to develop trust which leads to the learning of expectations; question 28–the ability to listen actively; question 34–how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns; question 41 how to maintain contact with the organization; and question 44–how to develop a positive relationship (see Table 19).

Table 18. Influencing

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
26	Influence–multidirectional	6	14	30	36	16	20.4
33	Influence-noncoercive	11	11	27	33	20	20.4

The mean score for communicating was 20.4 with a standard deviation of 14.5. The upper mean score was 34.9. The frequencies for “strongly agree” for questions 19, 28, 41, and 44 were above the upper mean score.

The frequencies for communicating for “strongly agree” for questions 1, 8, 34, and 43 were above the mean score. The frequencies for “strongly disagree” and “disagree” were below the mean score.

In summation, these findings indicated the seven areas in communication were significantly presented during the respondents training and the 102 respondents perceived these practices were used to help better prepare them to serve at-risk mentees in those areas (see Table 19).

Another leadership practice was team building. It was related to putting together a group with enough power to lead the change and getting the group to work together like a team. Team building included the following questions: question 2–the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy; question 10–how to ensure leadership succession; question 11–how to describe the mission and values of the organization; and question 13–planning for, creating, recognizing and rewarding people who make the achievement of goals possible; and question 16–the ability to get people to work together (see Table 20).

Table 19. Communicating

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (n=102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
1	Goal setting strategies	5	10	13	42	32	20.4
8	Ability to see the big picture	10	7	13	42	32	20.4
19	Ability to develop trust	1	8	11	47	35	20.4
28	Ability to actively listen	0	8	19	39	36	20.4
34	Set expectations	10	9	17	44	22	20.4
41	Maintain contact	2	13	16	32	39	20.4
44	Develop positive relationships	10	7	16	36	34	20.4

The mean score for team building was 20.4 and the standard deviation was 15.2. The upper mean score was 35.6. The findings showed the frequencies for “strongly agree” for questions 13, 16, 37 and 38 were above the upper mean score. The frequencies for “strongly agree” for questions 2, and 10 were above the mean score. The findings also showed the frequencies for “strongly disagree” and “disagree” questions were below the mean. The conclusion was drawn that the seven areas for team building were present in

the respondents' training (see Table 20).

Another leadership practice was risk taking. This practice related to a willingness to take a chance or venture without regard to possible loss. The following questions were included in the leadership practice risk taking: Question 23—encouragement to take calculated risks; question 30—how to deal with uncertainty; and question 42—how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achieving of goals for mentees.

Table 20. Team Building

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
2	Goal setting strategies	13	10	17	41	21	20.4
10	How to ensure leader succession	3	17	27	25	30	20.4
13	Rewarding people for achievement	1	11	17	37	36	20.4
16	Working together	1	6	12	43	40	20.4
37	Value all people and groups	0	6	13	38	45	20.4
38	Conduct self in honest way	0	9	15	33	45	20.4

The mean score for risk taking was 20.4 and the standard deviation was 11.7. The upper mean score was 32.1. The results indicated no frequencies above the upper mean score for “strongly agree”. The results further indicated the frequencies for “agree” for questions 23, 30, and 42 were above the mean score. Although, the frequencies for the three practices for “strongly disagree” and “disagree” were below the mean, the frequencies for questions 23 and 42 for “neither disagree nor agree” were above the mean. In summation, there was not enough supporting data to draw the conclusion that risk taking was significantly present in the volunteer mentor training (see Table 21).

Another leadership practice is anchoring. Anchoring is renewing and adapting the organizations to a changed world. The questions related to this practice addressed the new approaches in the culture. Anchoring question included: questions 24–how to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentee and organizational success and question 44–how to ensure leadership development.

Table 21. Risk Taking

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
23	Encouragement to take calculated risks	13	6	33	25	25	20.4
30	How to deal with uncertainty	0	16	22	34	30	20.4
42	How to recognize inherent risks	7	11	15	39	30	20.4

The mean score for anchoring was 20.4; the standard deviation was 11.5. The upper mean was 31.9. The findings showed that the frequencies for “strongly agree” for question 44 were above the upper mean score; the frequency for “strongly agree” for question 24 was above the mean score. The findings further showed the frequency for “agree” for questions 24 was above the upper mean score. Other findings included the frequencies for “strongly disagree” and “disagree” for questions 24 and 44 were below the mean score. The frequency for “neither disagree nor agree” for question 24 was above the mean score.

In summation, the data analysis for the anchoring practice, how to articulate the connections between behaviors of the mentee and organizational success, was not significantly present in the volunteer mentor training. The anchoring practice, how to

ensure leadership, was significantly present in the volunteer mentor training and it was perceived that this practice helped the mentors to be better prepared to serve at-risk mentees (see Table 22).

Research Question 3

The researcher asked the following research question of the respondents, “To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with management training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Table 22. Anchoring
SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; N=neither disagree nor agree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	SD	D	N	A	SA	<i>m</i>
24	Articulate the connection	12	9	23	36	22	20.4
44	Ensure leadership development	10	7	15	36	34	20.4

Phase 1–Qualitative

The data collection method for Phase 1 was interviews. The researcher interviewed 8 respondents from a local nonprofit Christian organization.

Interview Question 6

In response to interview question 6, the respondents were to answer the question, “To what degree did the managerial training provided prepare you for your role as a volunteer mentor, using one of the following statements: “Strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “neither disagree nor agree,” “agree,” or “strongly agree.”

Of the 8 respondents, Doris, Louise, Brenda, and Jessica “strongly agreed” that the management training practices and/or skills prepared them for their role as volunteer

mentor. Doris stated, “Knowing the mission, policies, procedure, and timelines of events for our organizations helped me to better serve my mentee. The record of mentor-mentee contacts also allows me to review information which allowed me to see the progress made by my mentee.” Jessica said, “I probably need to say this somewhere in the interview. We are not only given information in our volunteer mentor manual, but we are taught skills in how to develop policies, procedures, and mission statements. This occurs every year. As a group, we evaluate our handbook to determine if we are still focused or need to make some changes. I feel a part of the organization. Maybe, we can do this because we are small in number. I appreciate having the input. It makes me aware of any policy and procedure changes first hand that may affect my mentee and me.” Louise said, “I strongly agree that the training helped to prepare me. The repeating of the mission statement each time we meet helped to keep me focused on why I am there to help the mentees become self-sufficient. Also, having the Scriptural passage (Gal 6:2, 10) allowed me to know that I am in the will of God when I perform this service (mentoring).” Goal setting strategies also were helpful. My mentees seemed to be accepting more responsibility for her actions since we have set her goals.” Brenda answered the question by saying, “I strongly agree that the management training practices and/or skills prepared me for my role as volunteer mentor.”

Of the remaining respondents, four out of 8 agreed that the training received equipped them for improvement of the relationships and mentee goals (see Table 23). The respondents that agreed were Frances, Joe, Holly, and Sylvia. Sylvia said, “One thing that helped me was learning to accept different points of view because a relationship can never develop if I cannot at least see the other person’s point of view. I think this really helped my relationship with my mentee.”

In summation, the 8 participants perceived that the managerial training prepared them for their role as a volunteer mentor. Some gave illustrations of why they said “strongly agree” or “agree.” In the evaluative process of the training, in which the volunteer mentors rate the training received, it is imperative that they feel as though they have been prepared with the practices, information, skills, and/or competencies necessary to help the at-risk mentees to achieve the mentees’ goals. Without this knowledge the volunteer mentors would be ineffective in achieving the mission of the organization which is to help the at-risk mentees to become self-sufficient.

Phase 2—Quantitative

The findings were based on the two parts of volunteer mentor training: Orientation and training. As noted previously, orientation was divided into three parts: cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation. The data collection method used to obtain this information came from the Likert scale questionnaire.

Orientation

The researcher reported the following findings for cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation.

Cause orientation. Cause orientation addressed the management function planning. The following questions were included in the Likert scale questionnaire for cause orientation/planning: question 3—identification of the mission of the organization; question 9—how to describe the client group; question 11—how to describe the mission and values of the group; question 17—how to describe the history of the group; question 20—the ability to communicate effectively the vision of the organization; question 29—how to describe the distinguishing characteristics of other groups in the same field; and

question 35–how to describe future plans (see Table 24).

Table 23. Data Findings for Interview Question 6

Respondents	Responses
Doris	strongly agree
Frances	agree
Joe	agree
Louise	strongly agree
Brenda	strongly agree
Holly	agree
Sylvia	agree
Jessica	strongly agree

The researcher considered any practice with a combined ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ of 51% and above to be significantly present (the extent) because one-half or more of the respondents agreed that the practice had occurred in training. The analysis of the data for cause orientation revealed that the 88% of the respondents ‘strongly agreed’ and ‘agreed’ that they had been equipped with the management practice, question 3. The extent to which the participants responded was significantly in favor of this practice being present in the training. The sum of ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ for question 9 revealed that 85% of the respondents were trained how to describe the client group which also implies that this is also one used in better preparing the volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees. The extent to which this practice was present in the training was also significant. The findings further showed for question 11, that 76% of the respondents ‘strongly agreed’ and ‘agreed,’ that the management practice was significantly present in preparing them in their role as volunteer mentors. More than 68% of the respondents ‘agreed’ and

“strongly agreed” (in response to questions 11 and 17) that training occurred in these two management practices which better equipped them to serve at-risk mentees. The results further showed 59% of the respondents “strongly agree” and “agree” in response to question 29. There was a 74% response for “strongly agree” and “agree” for question 35. Results of this data offer a clear answer of affirmation to the positive magnitude of the presence of cause orientation in the training of at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations.

In summation, the following management practices were perceived by the 102 respondents as being significantly present in the volunteer mentor training: identification of the mission of the organization (had the highest percentage), how to describe the client group, how to describe the mission and values of the group, how to describe the history of the group, the ability to communicate effectively the vision of the organization, how to describe the distinguishing characteristics of other groups in the same field, and how to describe future plans.

System orientation. System orientation which provided an organizational context for the volunteer mentors and made them understand how they fit into the processes of the organization, addressed the following questions: question 5–presentation of the timelines of the organization’s activities and key events; question 15–how to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts; question 18–how to describe the structure and programs of the organization with illustrations of what mentors contribute to those programs; and question 27 –how to use the equipment of the organization.

System orientation/organizing findings showed that for “strongly agree” and “agree” that each practice was above the 60th percentile. The highest percentile (83%) for

“strongly agree” and “agree” was given for record of mentor-mentee contact. Further study of the data also revealed that 3 out of 5 practices were in the 70th percentile (see Table 25).

In summation, a preponderance of the evidence verified that system orientation/organizing practices occurred in training for the respondents which equipped them to better serve at-risk mentees. Record keeping had the highest percentage which evidenced the practice of maintaining or maintenance which is a characteristic or quality of a manager.

Table 24: Percentages for Cause Orientation/Planning

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
3	Mission of the organization	46	42	88
9	Describe the client group	48	37	85
11	Describe mission and values	44	32	76
17	Describe history	49	19	68
20	Communicate the vision	35	33	68
29	Distinguishing characteristics	33	26	59
35	Describe future plans	48	26	74
Mean		43	31	74

Social orientation. The social orientation included the following questions: question 4–identification of the leadership people in the organization; question 7–the formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization or by leadership if a new organization; question 20–the ability to communicate effectively the vision of the organization; and question 21–how to describe the organization’s culture and

etiquette. The findings for social orientation/motivating revealed that 85% “strongly agreed” and “agreed” that the practice of identification of the leadership occurred in their training. Seventy-nine percent “strongly agreed” and “agreed” that a formal greeting also occurred during training. Results revealed 77% of the respondents “strongly agreed” and “agreed” they received training that included how to describe the culture and etiquette of the organization.

In summation, the social orientation practices—identification of the leadership people in the organization, the formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization, or by leadership of a new organization, and how to describe the organization’s culture and etiquette—were significantly present in the volunteer mentor training and the 102 respondents recognized the essence and benefits of the acquired practices to better prepare them to serve the at-risk mentees (see Table 26).

Training. Training, the other component of volunteer mentor training, included the following questions: how to develop goal setting strategies, how to accept different points of view, how to secure resources and how to develop a positive personal relationship. The results revealed 84% “strongly agreed and agree” that they were presented the practice of how to develop a positive personal relationship. The results continued to show the other three practices at or above 70% in the categories of “strongly agree” and “agreed.” The mean score for the percentages for social orientation “strongly agree” and “agree” was 75.8%. These findings affirmed the researcher’s assumption that the degree to which this practice was present in training would be significantly high, because mentoring is relational.

Table 25. Percentages for System Orientation/Organizing

#	Question (n=102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
5	Timelines of activities & events	42	28	70
15	Record of mentor-mentee contacts	43	40	83
18	Structure & vol. mentor contribution	44	28	72
27	Use of Equipment	37	30	67
Mean		41.5	31.5	73

Table 26. Percentages for Social Orientation

#	Question (n=102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
4	Identification of the leadership	49	36	85
7	Formal greeting by staff & other volunteers	43	36	79
21	Describe the culture & etiquette of org.	39	38	77
Mean		37	38.8	75.8

Research Question 4

The fourth research question that was asked to the respondents (volunteer mentors) addressed the research concern, “To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1—Qualitative

The researcher used an interview as the data collection method for Phase 1 of this research study.

Table 27. Training/Controlling

#	Question (n=102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
1	Goal setting strategies	41	31	72
31	Accepting different points of view	39	38	77
40	Secure resources	35	35	70
43	Develop positive personal relationships	33	51	84
Mean		37	38.8	75.8

Interview Question 7

The question asked, “To what degree did the leadership training provided prepare you for your role as volunteer mentor” (see Appendix 1).

The respondents were given the following criteria to answer from which to choose: “strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “neither disagree nor agree,” “agree,” or “strongly agree.” Five out of 8 respondents, “strongly agreed” that the leadership training provided, prepared them for their role as a volunteer mentor.

Doris “strongly agreed” that the volunteer mentor training prepared her for the mentor role. She stated “. . . necessary skills were required to meet the needs of the mentees in the attainment of their goals.” Frances and Louise both “strongly agreed” and gave specific comments to the type of mentoring being provided. The specific areas of training included: budgeting, parenting skills, nutrition, mentee characteristics, and available resources. According to Frances and Louise, a strong support system was offered by the leadership during and after training. Holly “strongly agreed” that the training equipped her with leadership practices and said, “The training used role playing, a technique, to train us.” Brenda “strongly agreed” that the training prepared her for her

role as volunteer mentor, but made no further comments.

Three out of 8 “agreed” that the leadership training prepared them for their volunteer mentor role. Joe said that “good training was one that helped the volunteer mentors acquire skills that help the at-risk mentees to reach their goals.” Sylvia agreed that the training prepared her and stated, “The leadership training practice showed me what to do and what not to do.” Jessica stated, “When the training is above average, it provides the necessary goal setting, communication skills, encouragement, support, information, and skills and/or competencies necessary to help the mentees to achieve their goals when the mentees put forth the effort.”

In summation, the 8 respondents agreed that they had been equipped with leadership training practice to better prepare them to serve at-risk mentees in non-profit Christian organizations. Two out of 7 leadership practices (of which the researcher focused on in the study) were listed by respondents. They were communication (goal setting) and team building.

Phase 2—Quantitative

Leadership practices were divided into seven areas: sense of urgency, envisioning, influencing, communicating, team building, risk taking, and anchoring.

Given the leadership training percentiles, it was anticipated that they would be lower than the percentage for the management practice. The major assumption for this study was that many leadership theories and/or practices were omitted from volunteer mentor training manuals. If theories/practices were included in the mentoring training, the volunteer mentor could be more effective in developing positive mentor-mentee relationships that help the mentees to achieve desired goals. The percentages showed the

extent to which the respondents feel they are equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations.

The leadership practice, sense of urgency addressed three questions—question 2—the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy; question 6—the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations; and question 14—the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, crises, or major opportunities. The findings showed 70% for “strongly agree” and “agree” for sense of urgency. This is an essential practice because many mentees live in a state of crises and need to know that some conflict is healthy.

The researcher considered any practice with a combined ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ of 51% and above to be significant because one-half or more of the respondents would have agreed that the practice had occurred in their training. Further findings revealed that questions 6 and 14 were addressed in the training but not significantly present because the sum for “strongly agree” and “agree” were not above the 51%.

Table 28. Sense of Urgency Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
2	Recognize conflict is healthy	49	21	70
6	Examine the market/competitive	25	19	44
14	ID crises & opportunities	8	32	40

The leadership practice, envisioning, included five questions. Two of the 5 practices had combined percentage over 70%. They were: how to articulate the vision of

the organization (73%) and how to maintain contact with those who are mentored (79%). The remaining 3 leadership practices: how to develop strategies for achieving the vision (65%); how to reinvigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents (54%); and how to use increased credibility to change all timelines, structures, systems, and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision (65%); had combined percentages above 50% which denotes those 5 practices were significantly present in the volunteer mentor training.

Table 29. Envisioning Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
12	Articulate the vision	44	29	73
22	Develop strategies	38	27	65
25	Reinvigorate the mentoring	34	20	54
32	Increase credibility	33	32	65
45	Maintain contact with mentees	36	43	79

Another leadership practice was influencing. Influencing included two practices: how to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional (52%) and the ability to understand that influence behavior is noncoercive (52%). These findings affirmed the researcher's assumption that the degree or extent to which the leadership practice, influencing, was significantly present in the volunteer mentor training because the percentages were above 50 percent.

The leadership practice of communicating included seven questions: question 1—how to develop goal setting strategies; question 8—the ability to look forward and see

the big picture; question 19—the ability to develop trust which leads to the learning of expectations; question 28—the ability to listen actively; question 34—how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns; question 41—how to maintain contact with the organization; and question 44—how to develop a positive relationship.

Table 30. Influencing Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
26	Influence—multidirectional	35	16	52
33	Influence-noncoercive	32	20	52

Table 31. Communicating Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
1	Goal setting strategies	41	31	72
8	Ability to see the big picture	43	27	70
19	Ability to develop trust	46	34	80
28	Ability to actively listen	38	35	73
34	Set expectations	43	22	65
41	Maintain contact	31	38	69
44	Develop positive relationships	35	33	68

The findings revealed that all practices for communicating scored above 50 percent. Question 19, the ability to develop trust, had a percentage of 80. This practice is a key element of the mentoring process, because without trust the relationship is dysfunctional. Goal setting (72%), the ability to listen actively to different points of view

(73%), and ability to see the big picture (70%) are also essential practices in mentoring.

Table 32. Team Building Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
2	Goal setting strategies	40	21	61
10	How to ensure leader succession	24	29	53
13	Rewarding people for achievement	36	35	71
16	Working together	42	39	81
37	Value all people and groups	37	44	81
38	Conduct self in honest way	32	44	76

Another leadership practice analyzed was team building. Team building included seven questions. The findings showed that 2 practices, the ability to get people to work together and how to value all people had a percentage of 81. Mentoring is relational, so these social practices are necessary if the program is to be effective. The findings further revealed the following practices were received in training: how to describe the mission and values of the organization (76%), how to conduct oneself in an honest and ethical way (76%), planning for, creating, recognizing and rewarding people who make the achievement of goals possible (71%), the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy (61%) and to ensure leadership succession (53%). The degree or extent to which the respondents perceived these practices were present in training was significant.

The practice of risk taking included 3 areas of which 2 had sums above 50 percent. The areas, how to deal with uncertainty (62%) and how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achieving of goals (67%), are essential to risk taking. At-risk mentees fluctuate emotionally rendering many responses to situations or

issues in their lives with uncertainty. The goal setting training could help the volunteer mentor to bring clarity to the many situations in the mentees' lives as well as their own.

Table 33. Risk Taking Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
23	Encouragement to take calculated risks	24	24	48
30	How to deal with uncertainty	33	29	62
42	How to recognize inherent risks	38	29	67

The statistical analysis for the leadership practice, anchoring, revealed the following percent sums in each area: how to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentees and organizational success (57%) and how to ensure leadership development (68%). The respondents were trained how to verbalize the results of changes in the mentees' behavior and the role the organization played in helping the process. When new positive behaviors occur in the mentees' lives the "seed was being planted" for the possibility of the mentee at some time becoming a mentor (ensure leadership).

Table 34. Anchoring Percentages

#	Question (<i>n</i> =102)	Agree %	Strongly Disagree %	Sum %
24	Articulate the connection	35	22	57
44	Ensure leadership development	35	33	68

Research Question 5

The fifth research question was, “What do volunteer mentors perceive to be effective leadership training practices in equipping volunteer mentors?”

Phase 1– Qualitative

The researcher used an interview as the data collection method for Phase 1.

Interview Question 8

The question was asked, “Provide your assessment of a volunteer mentor being equipped with leadership practices in the improvement of mentor-mentee relationships and attainment of mentee goals” (see Appendix 1).

It was implied that the round table discussions and the role playing allowed the training to become practical and allowed the volunteer mentor to learn the social context of the at-risk mentees. Simulations, videos, discussions on goal setting, and celebrating the achieved goals were perceived by the volunteer mentors as effective techniques that helped to equip them to serve at-risk mentees. The interview also revealed that the mentors included active listening and ways of motivating the mentees as techniques used in effective leadership training. Situational training perceived as effective by the volunteer mentors included the acquiring of skills in budgeting, parenting, socialization, and securing resources .

The goal of expansion of the program could allow the mentees to enhance their employable skills (envisioning). Sylvia was able to look forward and see the big picture for the mentees. The ability to recognize this area was an effective leadership training practice. Sylvia said, “As a result of my understanding the mission of the organization, which is to help the mentees to become self-sufficient, my desire is to teach the mentees

how to make crafts in which they can sell and have more income.” Holly said, “She agreed that she had been prepared for her role as a mentor. Learning effective strategies for helping mentees accomplish their visions means that the program has accomplished its mission.”

Phase 2–Quantitative

For this research study the word practice “implied to perform or do repeatedly in order to acquire skill.” Based on the findings from the Likert scale questionnaire, question 46 (see Appendix 1), seventy-three respondents listed their assessment of the best leadership training practices and or methods of acquiring leadership skills for a volunteer mentor. The respondents perceived these practices and or methods to be effective in order to improve the mentor-mentee relationship and help achieve mentees’ goals. Twenty-nine of the respondents did not answer the question. The findings revealed an overlapping of responses with 216 responses given (see Table 27). Many of the responses listed were not practices but teaching methods or other modes used to help the mentors obtain the leadership practice. The response that had the highest frequency (51) was workshops/training. The respondents were aware that formal training helped to equip them to better serve the at-risk mentees. The findings showed further the second highest frequency was modeling behavior (30). How to role model the expected behavior for the mentees is one area for the leadership practice of communication. The findings continued to list other leadership practices and or methods of volunteer mentors being equipped in the improvement of mentor-mentee relationships and attainment of mentee goals: meetings (21), reading books (17), know community–demographics (15), prayer (13), Bible studies (13), and . The responses listed were global (apply to any mentoring

program) and situational to the mission of the organization.

Summation for Leadership

Leadership is an influence relationship. It is noncoercive and intends real change which reflects a mutual purpose. This research included the following leadership practices: (1) envisioning—ability to look forward and see the big picture, how to articulate the vision, how to develop strategies for achieving the vision, how to invigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents, how to use increased credibility to change timelines, structures, systems, and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision; (2) sense of urgency—the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy, the ability to examine the job market and competitive organizations, and the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities; (3) influencing (motivating others)—how to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional and the ability to understand that influence behavior is noncoercive; (4) communicating—how to develop goal setting strategies, how to build trust, the ability to listen actively, how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns, how to maintain contact, and how to ensure leadership development; (5) team building—how to ensure leadership succession, how to describe the mission and values of the organization, how to celebrate wins, the ability to get people to work together, and how to value all peoples and groups; (6) risk taking—encouragement to take calculated risks, how to deal with uncertainty, and how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achievement; and (7) anchoring (renewing and adapting the organizations to a changed world)—how to articulate the behaviors of the mentees and organizational success and how to ensure leadership development.

Table 35. Leadership Training Practices

#	Practices/Skills/Methods	Frequency
1	Workshop Training	51
2	Modeling behavior	30
3	Meeting	21
4	Simulation/Role playing	20
5	Reading books	17
6	Know community (Demographics)	15
7	Bible Study	13
8	Prayer	13
9	Accountability	5
10	Continued education	5
11	Honor your word	5
12	Seeking wise counsel	4
13	Spend time with mentee	3
14	Stay close to Jesus	3
15	Evaluate the program	2
16	Relaxed atmosphere	2
17	Evaluating the program	2
18	Address needs of mentees	1
19	Communication	1
20	Group feedback from other mentees	1
21	Mentor being mentored	1
22	Volunteer mentor as trainer	1

These practices helped to prepare the volunteer mentors to better serve the at-risk mentees. The responses listed were global (apply to any mentoring program) and

specific to the mission of the organization. The global practice occurs in most formal mentoring programs.

In Phase 1 the respondents identified 4 out of 7 leadership practices as noted by the researcher as an integral part of the research study. They included: communicating—goal setting, trust building, and dissemination of information; envisioning—helped mentees see their potential and how to set strategies in place to develop the mentees’ potential; anchoring—ensuring leadership development; and sense of urgency—the ability to examine major opportunities (computers). The researcher used the 4 practices identified in Phase 1 and 3 practices (risk taking, influencing, and team building) identified in precedent literature to develop the data collection tool (Likert scale questionnaire) to analyze the leadership training practice to determine what the respondents (volunteer mentors) perceived as effective training.

Evaluation of Research Design

This research and its methodology received nearly thirteen months of reflection and consideration. The researcher anticipated that it would accomplish its intended purpose and produce results that would reasonably describe the training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations. It was the intention of this researcher to acknowledge any limitations honestly found in the design or in her ability to interpret accurately the data.

In Phase 1 the respondents identified 4 out of 7 leadership practices as noted by the researcher as an integral part of the research study. They included communicating—goal setting, trust building, and dissemination of information; envisioning—helped mentees see their potential and how to set strategies in place to

develop the mentees' potential; trust building—how to describe the mission and values of the organization; and sense of urgency—the ability to examine major opportunities. These practices helped to prepare the volunteer mentors to better serve the at-risk mentees.

The research design consisted of two phases of research—a qualitative phase and a quantitative phase. In the qualitative phase the researcher used an interview as the data collection method. For the quantitative phase the researcher used a Likert scale questionnaire as the means of collecting the data. The research purpose was to analyze the volunteer mentor training practice and investigate the leadership practices that help to make the training successful in order to improve the mentor-mentee relationship and equip the volunteer mentor to help the mentee achieve desired goals.

One of the most critical concerns to be addressed in the implementation of any research design is the validity and reliability of the instruments utilized in the study. A generous portion of space was given to these concerns at the beginning of this chapter and it is the researcher's desire that these concerns have been addressed.

One of the intentions of this study was to respond to the challenge by asking volunteer mentors what type of training they received in management and leadership to allow them to assess if they thought the training helped them in the mentor-mentee relationship and in the attainment of the mentees' goals. In this study, the researcher was satisfied that an appropriate forum was provided for that voice to be heard. The findings that comprise the content of this chapter, while limited and incomplete, are nonetheless the echoes of that voice.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The central premise of this research study was to analyze the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees. Five research questions guided the study. Phase 1 looked within a specific organization using qualitative/interview methods to better understand the management and leadership training practices of volunteer mentors. Phase 2 was a quantitative study based upon research responses that looked at leadership training practices among various volunteer organizations.

Research Purpose

In light of the fact that leadership theories, when properly implemented, bring about the desired outcomes (change) and in light of the fact that the desired outcome for at-risk mentees is changed behavior, the purpose of this study was to analyze the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations serving at-risk mentees.

The five research questions that guided this study were:

1. What management training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
2. What leadership training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?

3. To what degree are volunteer mentors equipped with management training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
4. To what degree are volunteer mentors equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?
5. What do volunteer mentors perceive to be effective leadership training practices in equipping volunteer mentors?

Research Implications

People have always planned, organized, implemented, and evaluated programs and projects of many sizes and varieties. Until the industrial revolution, this was conducted in a very informal manner. By the late nineteenth century, an ever-increasing amount of work was being mechanized and the study of mass production management was born. Many of the planning, organizing, leading, and controlling concepts and techniques that were developed at this time are still in use and also formed a foundation for other developments.

Beginning at the middle of the twentieth century two new trends in how to accomplish work, started to coalesce. Many leaders recognized that the “science of management” was not enough, and many approaches to leadership developed. While leaders from different disciplines continued to publish books on their secrets of success, students of leadership had been developing the discipline by looking for commonalities in the various schools. These students started to realize that planning, organizing, leading, and controlling one-time work efforts (projects) was not the same as ongoing operations. The researcher, in viewing some volunteer management manuals or handbooks, realized that some handbooks were developed using the project (one-time work effort) approach. Volunteer mentoring training needs to be an ongoing process which better prepares the volunteer mentors to help the mentees to achieve their goals.

The research had two phases, Phase 2 building upon the findings of Phase 1. The conclusion considered the overall importance and significance of the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors in nonprofit Christian organizations. The study identified management and leadership practices in which volunteer mentors determined that should they received training which equipped them to help the at-risk mentees to achieve their goals. The study further identified practices in which the volunteer mentors determined, were missing or not adequately presented in training, leaving a void in their information and skills necessary to help the at-risk mentees.

Research Question 1

The research study was conducted using two phases. Phase 1 used a qualitative design. The researcher used the data collection method of interviewing. Research question 1 asked, “What management training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1–Qualitative

Interview question 1 was divided into two main headings: Orientation and training. The interview question was also subdivided further into three subheadings: cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation (see Appendix 1). These headings addressed the management functions of planning, organizing, motivating/directing, and controlling.

In sorting through the interview data on research question one, the researcher inferred from the data analysis from the volunteer mentors’ responses that they received training in cause orientation (planning), system orientation (organizing), social orientation

(directing/motivating), and training (controlling). The researcher further concluded that the respondents were able to verbalize their training experiences, demonstrating that actualization and retention of the information and practices, skills, and/or competencies did occur.

In the data findings for cause orientation (planning) which entailed setting the goals and objectives of the organization, the 8 respondents verbalized the cause or problem of the organization, described the mentees, stated the mission of the organization, listed the programs and/or services offered by the organization, and stated the future plans for the organization. The data finding for cause orientation (planning) also revealed to the researcher that the respondents' replies were insufficient when discussing the history of the organization. The respondents stated that they did not have a written copy of the history. They assumed that the reason for the omission of the history of the organization was due to their being a part of the organization at its inception and being told orally of the events leading to the program's development. The other area in planning in which the respondents' replies led the researcher to draw the conclusion that sufficient training had not occurred in the information concerning other nonprofit organizations in the same field and their distinguishing characteristics. According to the responses concerning other nonprofit organizations in the same field, the respondents indicated they were not given any written information concerning other nonprofits in the area performing the same type service (at-risk family mentoring). It was noted, however, that during the training, some respondents stated that a discussion occurred concerning several local nonprofit organizations in the same field (mentoring) who were not biblically based. The researcher suggested the management practices, listed above, could

have occurred in the training, but due to the absence of a written copy of the information, volunteer mentors' retention of the information was lacking to adequately discuss the management practice.

The responses to interview questions for system orientation (organizing) illustrated the organizing phase of management in which the respondents received training. Organizing is "the function that determines how the organization's human, financial, physical, informational, and technical resources are arranged and coordinated to perform tasks to achieve desired goals; the deployment of resources to achieve strategic goals" (Kloppenborg, Shriberg, and Venkatraman 2003, 119). The respondents stated that they were given information concerning the structure, policies and procedures, operation, facilities and equipment and record-keeping requirements for their organizations. The respondents did respond to the structure of the organization, but with some difficulty. This may have resulted from the omission of an organizational flow chart in the volunteer mentors' manuals. According to the respondents, the other practices, skills, and/or competencies for the interview questions of organizing (system orientation) were in the respondents' manuals. The respondent's manuals did not include the history of the organization, the organizational structure and nonprofit organizations in the same field. The respondents gave incomplete replies in those areas. In summation, the respondents need to be given information in print/writing when in training.

The researcher concluded from the data analysis of social orientation that the respondents perceived that they had received training in this function. Cultural diversity and rules governing expectant behavior for interacting with the staff, volunteer mentors and mentees were presented. It is also concluded that many volunteer mentors were

introduced to leadership so they would recognize from whom they would receive guidance, support, and encouragement and to whom they must report.

Some respondents assumed that leadership is good management which is the industrial paradigm. The respondents' list of words that come to mind when they think of the word "management," also included the words power and/or authority. According to Rost, many of the management relationships are coercive. These coercive behaviors are acceptable to both managers and subordinates (Rost 1991, 146).

It is suggested that the managerial training practices—cause orientation (planning), system orientation(organizing), social orientation (directing/motivating), and training (controlling)—were presented in the volunteer mentor training. These practices afforded the respondents the necessary skills and/or competencies to better prepare themselves for their role as volunteer mentors. They ensured that the mentors are successful in their role as mentors. The managerial practices for cause, system, and social orientation are global. These practices are not limited to a specific setting (community based, school based, workplace, or internet) or group (one-to-one, group, or family) and are in most training sessions. The practices are tailored to accommodate the language of the specific setting or group.

Orientation and training occur in all formal mentor training. The extent of the training and the context changed, but the practices—cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation—are the same. As the researcher analyzed the manuals for the different programs, what was evidenced was that orientation and training occurred in the programs. Some organizations had as many as 4 practices (practices in which the researcher focused) in their training manuals and some had only one leadership practice.

Phase 2–Quantitative

Phase 2 consisted of a quantitative study. From the information collected from the Likert scale questionnaire, a statistical analysis was drawn.

The researcher concluded that cause orientation (planning) was significantly high in the volunteer mentor training and it equipped the volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees. The respondents acknowledged that they had received training in the following areas for cause orientation (planning)—mission of the organization, description of a client group, description of mission and values, description of history, communication of the vision, distinguishing characteristics of other organizations, and a description for future plans.

System orientation included presentation of the timelines of the organization's activities and key events, how to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts, how to describe the structure and programs of the organization with illustrations of what volunteer mentors contribute to those programs, and how to use the equipment of the organization. The findings evidenced that the respondents perceived that those practices were present in the training which was to better equip them better to serve the at-risk mentees.

The evidence drawn from social orientation was that it was significantly represented in the volunteer mentor training. The practices included formal greeting to staff, introduction of leadership, and culture and etiquette.

The practice of greeting can be seen in other structured settings. In some churches the ushers are the greeters and in larger churches a ministry was formed of volunteer greeters. In the some churches, the practice of “passing the peace” occurs. A

segment of the worship is set apart to greet others who are worshipping in the fellowship. At a wedding reception, a receiving line is formed and the wedding party greet those who were invited to share in the happiness of the couple. When dignitaries visit the White House in Washington, D. C., a receiving line is used to greet the arriving guests. When new mentors join the mentoring program, they observe the art of a formal greeting which can be used in other contexts.

Research Question 2

Research question 3 asked “What leadership training practices are used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1–Qualitative

The researcher concluded those leadership practices and/or characteristics listed by the respondents were global (can be used by any mentoring program) and specific (used only for a particular population). Global characteristics and/or practices listed by the respondents that equipped them to serve at-risk mentees included: goal setting, communication skills, social interaction, cultural diversity, futuristic, careful, humble, influencing, mutual purpose, listening skills, attitude, celebrating wins, encouraging, securing resources, empowering, not pushing, and immediate change. The specific practices that helped the respondents better to prepare to serve at-risk mentees were parenting, socialization, budgeting, and nutrition.

Phase 2–Quantitative

Phase 2 consisted of a quantitative study. From the information collected from the Likert scale questionnaire, a statistical analysis was drawn. The results from the

Likert scale questionnaire revealed that the three areas in the sense of urgency were significantly present in the training. The areas in the practice, sense of urgency, included the ability to recognize that conflict is healthy; the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations; and the ability to identify and discuss potential crises or major opportunities. These practices showed a significant presence and were perceived by the respondents to be beneficial to the those who served the at-risk mentee. The mentors acquired these practices in training, which allowed the volunteer mentors to obtain skills to help the mentees in crises, to provide services to the mentees that are comparable to other organizations, and to gain skills to recognize crises and opportunities.

Another area in leadership training was envisioning. The leadership practice of envisioning prepared the respondent to articulate the vision for the organization; to use increased credibility to change timelines, structures, systems, and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision; to develop goal setting strategies for achieving the vision; and to maintain contact with those being mentored. The data analysis revealed 4 out of 5 of the envisioning leadership practices were perceived to be present in volunteer mentor training. This finding suggests the practices empowered the respondents with skills that allowed them to help the mentees envision a credible, attractive, and inspiring future. The volunteer mentors who received training in the leadership practice, envisioning, were equipped to help develop strategies to help the mentee to achieve the vision.

The results from the research study showed that the leadership practice of influencing was significantly present in training. The inclusion of the practice, influencing, indicated that the volunteer mentor was trained in the “art of persuasion.”

Influence is defined, in this research, as “the process of using persuasion to have an impact on other people in a relationship (Rost 1991, 105). A multidirectional and noncoercive mentor-mentee relationship could exist as a result of the mentor being trained in the practice of influencing.

The relationship involved interactions that were vertical, horizontal, and circular. This means that (1) anyone can be a leader and/or follower; (2) followers persuade leaders and other followers; (3) leaders and followers may change places; and (4) there are many different relationships that make an overall relationship that is leadership (Rost 1991, 105).

Another leadership practice is communicating. Communicating consisted of seven areas: how to develop goal setting strategies; the ability to look forward and see the big picture; the ability to develop trust which leads to the learning of expectations; the ability to listen actively; how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns; how to maintain contact with the organization; and how to develop a positive relationship. The data analysis revealed the 6 out of 7 communication practices were present in the respondents training. The communication practice in which there was significant evidence of its presence, thus ensuring leadership development. This practice was not perceptible and resulted in the volunteer mentors possibly lacking skills necessary to help develop leadership skills in the mentees. Leadership development training prepares the volunteer mentor with skills that could be used in other disciplines as well as on their jobs.

Another leadership practice was team building. Team building entailed the following areas: the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy, how to ensure leadership succession, how to describe the mission and values of the organization, planning for, creating, recognizing and rewarding people who make the achievement of

goals possible, and the ability to get people to work together. Implication for team building, in all practices, was that it is present in the training and perceived as essential by the trainers and volunteer mentors. These practices are necessary to form a cooperative unit to help the mentees achieve their goals. Kotter refers to this practice as creating the guiding coalition (Kotter 1996, 21). Acquiring training in the practice of trust building allowed the volunteer mentor to acquire skills that are transferrable to other aspects of their lives and also better prepare them to help the at-risk mentee.

Risk taking included 3 practices which were: how to deal with uncertainty and how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achieving of goals, for mentees. In the data analysis these 2 practices did not reveal a significant presence. At-risk mentees fluctuate emotionally rendering many inappropriate responses to situations or issues in their lives caused by uncertainty. The exclusion of the 2 practices could result in the mentor being unprepared in addressing situations that may arise in the mentees lives. The goal setting training could help the volunteer mentor to bring clarity to the many situations in the mentees' lives and help the mentors address situations that might arise.

According to Kouzes and Posner, "Whenever leaders experiment with innovative ways to doing things, they put themselves and others at-risk. Yet if we want to lead efforts to improve the way things are, we must be willing to take risks; we must, to paraphrase Eleanor Roosevelt, do the things we think we cannot" (Kouzes and Posner 1995, 66). The inclusion of the practice, risk taking, could better prepare volunteer mentors to take the necessary steps to elicit changed behavior in the mentees.

Another leadership practice is anchoring. Anchoring was related to securing

the new approaches in the culture. The leadership practice, anchoring included—how to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentee and organizational success and how to ensure leadership development. The analysis of the data evidenced that the respondents received training in how to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentee and organizational success and perceived that this practice would help to better prepare the volunteer mentors. No significant evidence was observed for how to ensure leadership development; therefore the conclusion was drawn that little or no training occurred in this area.

Research Question3

Research question 3 asked, “To what extent are volunteer mentors equipped with management training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations?”

Phase 1—Qualitative

The training significantly equipped respondents with the essential management training practices to serve at-risk mentees. The respondents were asked, “To what degree did the managerial training prepare you for your role as volunteer mentor?” The respondents were to answer using “strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “neither disagree nor agree,” “agree,” and “strongly agree.” Fifty percent of the respondents “strongly agreed” and the other 50 percent “agreed” that the management training prepared them with management training practices to serve at-risk mentee. Their responses were reflected of the degree or extent in which the training provided assisted them in helping the at-risk mentees to achieve their goals. This evidence concurred with previous statements made

by the respondents in answering interview questions 1 and 2. The responses indicated that the respondents received management training to a significant degree which contributed to helping them better prepare for their role as volunteer mentors.

Phase 2—Quantitative

From data collected from the Likert scale questionnaire, the respondents significantly agreed that most practices provided during training prepared them for their role as volunteer mentors. Results of this data offered a clear answer to the research question concerning the management practices that were used to equip volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations. The areas included: identification of the mission of the organization; how to describe the client group; how to describe the mission and values of the group; how to describe the history of the group; the ability to communicate effectively, the vision of the organization; how to describe the distinguishing characteristics of other groups in the same field; and how to describe future plans.

The preponderance of the evidence verified that system orientation (organizing) occurred significantly in training for the respondents which equipped them to better serve at-risk mentees. The areas in the practice, cause orientation, included: presentation of the timelines of the organization's activities and key events; how to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts; how to describe the structure and programs of the organization with illustrations of what volunteer mentors contribute to those programs; and how to use the equipment of the organization.

The management practice, social orientation (controlling), included

identification of the leadership people in the organization; the formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization; and how to describe the organization's culture and etiquette. The social orientation (controlling) areas were shown to a high degree of significance in the volunteer mentor training. The conclusion was drawn that these areas in social orientation—identification of the leadership people in the organization; the formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization; and how to describe the organization's culture and etiquette—were presented in the volunteer mentor training and the respondents recognized the importance of the acquired practices to better help the at-risk mentees.

Training, another component of volunteer mentor training, included the following questions: how to develop goal setting strategies, how to accept different points of view, how to secure resources and how to develop a positive personal relationship. The findings revealed that the respondents were not trained in the area, how to develop a positive personal relationship. The results continued to show the other three areas in training were significantly present in the training. These findings affirmed the researcher's assumption that the majority of these practices would be significantly present because mentoring is relational.

Research Question 4

Research question 4, "To what degree are volunteer mentors equipped with leadership training practices to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations." The researcher used both the qualitative (Phase 1) and the quantitative (Phase 2) methodologies. Phase 1 used interviews for data collection and in Phase 2, a

Likert scale questionnaire was used to collect the data.

Phase 1–Quantitative

The researcher discovered that the eight participants “strongly agreed” and “agreed” that the leadership training practices equipped them to serve at risk mentees. The answers given by the respondents to interview question 3 were evidence that they had received training that prepared them for interacting with the at-risk mentees. In other words, there were no responses in the areas of “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, or “neither disagree nor agree”, which indicates that respondents were confident that leadership training practices were addressed significantly in training, and that the training prepared them for their role as volunteer mentors. The researcher concluded that the volunteer mentors had training that helped them to serve at-risk mentees in nonprofit Christian organizations. The areas included goal setting strategies, accepting different points of view, securing resources and developing positive relations.

Phase 2–Qualitative

The leadership practice, sense of urgency, addressed three areas—the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy, the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations, and the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, crises, or major opportunities. These are essential practices because many mentees live in a state of crises and need to know that some conflict is healthy.

The two areas addressed in risk taking were the ability to identify and discuss potential crises, or major opportunities and the ability to examine the market and competitive organizations. Both areas were not significantly addressed in leadership

training as noted by the 102 respondents.

The researcher concluded that 2 areas in the leadership practice, envisioning were significantly present in the training. They were how to articulate the vision of the organization and how to maintain contact with those who are mentored. The training area, how to maintain a focus, allowed volunteer mentors to understand the vision and helped them to remain focused.

Another leadership practice was influencing. Influencing included 2 areas of focus how to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional and the ability to understand that influence behavior is noncoercive. The data findings were inconclusive for the both areas in the leadership practice, influencing. A multidirectional relationship is relationship of give-and-take behaviors. The researcher suggests that training in sharing responsibility and leadership roles (multidirectional relationship) should be a part of training. According to Rost,

Along with rational discourse, influence as persuasion involves reputation, prestige, personality, purpose, stature, content of the message, interpersonal and group skills, authority or lack of it, symbolic interaction, perception, motivation, gender, race, religion, and choice, among countless other things.

The at-risk mentees need to feel they have some control of the relationship and have power over some of the interactions in the mentor-mentee relationship.

The practice of noncoercive relationship is not based on authority, power, or dictatorial actions but is based on persuasive behaviors, thus allowing anyone in the relationship to freely agree or disagree and ultimately to drop into or out of the relationship. The mentor-mentee relationship should be noncoercive and the mentor should receive training in developing that type of relationship with the mentee.

The volunteer mentor should be aware of Theory Y, which is supporting and facilitating. The mentor-mentee relationship should develop as a cohesive work team. This implies that the volunteer mentor use a situational leadership style when interacting with the mentees.

Situational Leadership is based on an interplay among (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives; (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides; and (3) the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function, or objective. (Hershey, Blanchard, and Johnson 2001, 152-56).

The leadership practice of communicating included seven areas—how to develop goal setting strategies; the ability to look forward and see the big picture; the ability to develop trust which leads to the learning of expectations; the ability to listen actively; how to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns; how to maintain contact with the organization; and how to develop a positive relationship. The findings showed that all areas for communication were significantly present in preparing volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees. They were perceived by the respondents to be essential in leadership training.

Another leadership practice analyzed was team building. Team building included seven areas. The findings showed that two areas, the ability to get people to work together and how to value all people were important in equipping the volunteer mentors to serve at-risk mentees. Mentoring is relational, so these social practices are necessary if the program is to be effective. The findings further revealed the following areas were received in training, how to conduct oneself in an honest and ethical way; planning for, creating, recognizing and rewarding people who make the achievement of goals possible; and the ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy; and to ensure

leadership succession. These practices also significantly prepared the volunteer mentor with leadership skills and competencies necessary to serve at-risk mentees.

Risk taking included three areas: how to deal with uncertainty; how to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting; and achieving of goals for the mentee. These areas were not evidenced as having a high significance. At-risk mentees fluctuate emotionally rendering many responses to situations or issues in their lives with uncertainty. The goal setting training would help the volunteer mentor to bring clarity to the many situations in the mentees' lives. Goal setting is a valuable tool that could be used in lives of the volunteer mentors to achieve their goals or help a family member or friend in accomplish their visions.

Another leadership practice is anchoring. Anchoring was related to securing the new approaches in the culture. The areas for anchoring were, how to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentees and organizational success and how to ensure leadership development. The analysis of the data showed that the respondents were trained how to verbalize the results of changes in the mentees' behavior and the role the organization played in helping the risk process. Being trained in the anchoring practice not only enables the volunteer mentor to help the at-risk mentee, but offers them the skills necessary to develop leadership in other structures in which they are involved including their families.

Research Question 5

Research question 5, "What do volunteer mentors perceive to be effective leadership training to equipping volunteer mentors?"

Phase 1–Qualitative

In analyzing the data, the researcher discovered that the respondents perceived that training significantly enhanced their ability to address the needs of the at-risk mentees. The training empowered them, giving them confidence to act in their role. Some experiences which the volunteer mentors bring to the program, as one respondent mentioned were crafts and another discussed a computer software program as a means to help the mentees who had not completed high school. The volunteer mentors received leadership and management practices that could be used in other areas of their lives.

Phase 2–Quantitative

The respondents' replies included practices and different teaching methods that helped to equip them to prepare to better serve the at-risk mentees. They perceived that workshops/training was an effective means for equipping volunteer mentors. Training in modeling behavior was one practice perceived by the respondents to equip volunteer mentors. This list also included simulation or role playing at the top of the list. Some other practices/skills/methods included prayer, meetings, reading books, Bible study, and knowing the community (demographic data of the community) to list a few (see in Table 32).

Overall Implications

The implications from this research study revealed that the following practices showed little significance in the volunteer mentor training: risk taking—encouragement to take calculated risks; how to deal with uncertainty, and how to recognize inherent risks; envisioning—reinvigorating the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change

agents; anchoring—ensuring leadership development; influencing—multidirectional and noncoercive relationship. The exclusion of these practices in volunteer mentor training suggests that some: (1) volunteer mentors may be unable to develop positive relationships (multidirectional and noncoercive); (2) volunteer mentors and the mentees would withdraw from the mentoring program because the volunteer mentor lacks the skills to reinvigorate the mentoring process; (3) volunteer’s inability to recognize inherent risks could lead to the mentee’s goals not being achieved; (4) volunteer mentors could be unprepared to deal with uncertainty in the at-risk mentees lives; and (5) volunteer mentors lack the ability to challenge the at-risk mentee to take calculated risks to achieve mutually accepted goals. In summation, some volunteer mentors could be unprepared to meet the needs of the at-risk mentee in areas listed above.

Other implications were that the skills learned by the volunteer mentors are transferrable. From the training received in specific areas the volunteer mentors could enhance their skills in the areas of budgeting, nutrition, and parenting. The volunteer mentor also would acquire goal setting skills which could help the mentor, the mentor’s family, friends, and acquaintances.

The researcher was surprised to learn the extent to which many leadership practices occurred in volunteer mentor training. Many of the practices were specific or geared to the type of mentoring service provided.

Research Applications

The applications of this research are several and significant. To achieve the desired outcome (to help the mentees to become self-sufficient, productive contributing

members of society), volunteer mentor training should include those leadership practices that were evidenced being omitted from the training. The areas included in risk taking, anchoring, and envisioning.

Systematically targeting objectives and budgeting for them, creating plans to achieve those objectives, organizing for implementation, and then controlling the process to keep it on track—this is the essence of management. Transformation, change in behavior of the mentee, should involve leadership development of the volunteer mentor. Both management and leadership practices are essential to an effective and efficient volunteer mentor training. A balance of the two is required. The goal of the researcher is to develop a volunteer mentor manual that includes management and leadership practices that occurred as a result of this research study. Based on the findings, many leadership practices are being implemented, and are specific to the type of mentoring provided in all settings—community based, school based, workplace and internet mentoring.

Further Research

One of the ongoing concerns of volunteer mentors is to be equipped with skills that will help the mentees reach their desired outcomes. As the dissemination of this data unfolded, a number of possibilities for future research manifest themselves. The researcher believes the following possibilities are valid candidates for further investigation:

1. Replicate the study again using a similar methodological design to investigate mentors who are paid for service to mentees. The researcher believes that the same lack of clarity and intentionality exists within that mentor culture as well.
2. Another area in which more investigation may occur is to survey at-risk mentees in order to allow them to have input into the training practice. The rich data in which

they would provide would be invaluable to the training program, because the at-risk mentees' awareness of their needs could help in the development of training, and be tailored to meet their needs.

3. This research may be replicated in a different geographical context.
4. Survey the volunteer mentor trainers to access what practices they deem necessary to help volunteer mentors meet the needs of the at-risk mentees.
5. The research may view the different models used in developing training for volunteer mentors, such as critical events model (CEM), program evaluation review technique (PERT), and critical path model (CPM).

APPENDIX 1

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

The *Interview Questions* included in this appendix were distributed by the researcher to a local nonprofit Christian organization who serve at-risk mentees. The *Volunteer Mentor Assessment* was given to nonprofit organizations from the Virginia Department of Social Services, Christian Women’s Job Corp., and local nonprofit Christian organizations, all who serve at-risk mentees.

This appendix includes:

1. Interview Questions
2. *Volunteer Mentor Training Practice Assessment*

AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PRACTICE OF
VOLUNTEER MENTORS IN NONPROFIT
CHRISTIAN ORGANIZATIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

The interview questions contain questions about leadership/management training practices for volunteer mentors. There are no right or wrong answers.

- I. Volunteer mentor training has two parts: Orientation and training. Explain the training processes you received or are receiving to prepare you for your role as volunteer mentor in the following area:
 - A. Orientation
 1. Cause Orientation–Why should I be working here?
 - a. What is the cause or problem in which your organization addresses?
 - b. How would you describe the mentees that you will be serving?
 - c. What is the mission and value of your organization?
 - d. What is the history of the organization?
 - e. List the programs and services of the organization.
 - f. Are there other nonprofit organizations in the same field. If so, what are their distinguishing characteristics from your organization?
 - g. What are the future plans of your organization?
 2. System Orientation–How will I be working here?
 - a. What are the structure and programs, with illustrations of what the volunteer mentors contribute to those programs?
 - b. What are the policies and procedures?
 - c. How does the organization operate?
 - d. Where are the facilities and what equipment is available to you?
 - e. Describe the record-keeping requirements, time lines of organization’s activities and key events.
 3. Social Orientation–How do I fit in with everybody else?
 - a. What is the culture and etiquette of the nonprofit organization (dress, customs, etc.)?
 - b. What approaches were initiated to make you feel welcomed?
 - c. How were you introduced to the leadership of your nonprofit organization?
 - B. Training
 1. Were you provided with information to perform the work successfully? What was provided?
 2. Did the training provide you with the skills needed to perform the

work successfully? If so, what skills were provided?

3. Were you given training in attitudes or approaches necessary to perform the work successfully?

- II. Brainstorm a list of words/practices that come to mind when you think of the word “manager.”
- III. Identify leadership training practices or skills that you have received or are receiving that have become apparent and are necessary for interacting with your mentee.
- IV. Brainstorm of list of words/practices that come to mind when you think of the word “leadership.”
- V. Describe how you distinguish the management training practices from the leadership practices.
- VI. To what degree did the managerial training provided prepare you for your role as volunteer mentor?
- VII. To what degree did the leadership training provided prepare you for your role as volunteer mentor?
- VIII. Provide your assessment of a volunteer mentor being equipped with leadership training practices in improvement of mentor-mentee relationships and attainment of mentee goals.

Volunteer Mentor Training Practice Assessment**Demographics**

1. Participant number: _____ (Create your own four digit number)
2. Age:
 - 18 - 35
 - 36 - 54
 - 55 - 74
 - 75 -
3. Gender: Male _____ Female: _____
4. Martial Status: Married: _____ Single _____ Divorced _____
5. Occupation: _____
6. Ethnic background: _____
7. Denomination: _____

Volunteer Mentor Training Practice Assessment

This instrument contains statements about the volunteer mentor training practice. Determine if each statement was addressed during your training. There are no right or wrong answers. On the enclosed answer sheet, mark only one answer for each question. Rate each item on a five-point scale:

A = strongly disagree B= disagree C=neither agree nor disagree D=agree E=strongly agree.

1. How to develop goal setting strategies.
2. The ability to recognize that conflict can be healthy.
3. Identification of the mission of the organization.
4. Identification of the leadership of the organization.
5. Presentation of the timelines of organization's activities and key events.
6. The ability to examine the market and competitive organizations.
7. The formal greeting by the staff and current volunteer mentors of an existing organization or by leadership if a new organization.
8. The ability to look forward, see the big picture.
9. How to describe the client group (mentee group).
10. How to ensure leadership succession.
11. How to describe the mission and values of the organization.
12. How to articulate the vision for the organization.
13. Planning for, creating, recognizing and rewarding people who make the achievement of goals possible.
14. The ability to identify and discuss potential crises, crises, or major opportunities.
15. How to keep records of mentor-mentee contacts.
16. The ability to get the people to work together.
17. How to describe the history of the organization.
18. How to describe the structure and programs of the organization, with illustrations

of what volunteer mentors contribute to those programs.

19. The ability to develop trust which leads to the learning of expectations.
20. The ability to effectively communicate the vision of the organization.
21. How to describe the culture and etiquette of the organization (matters such as dress, customs, etc.)
22. How to develop strategies for achieving the vision.
23. Encouragement to take calculated risks.
24. How to articulate the connections between new behaviors of the mentees and organizational success.
25. How to reinvigorate the mentoring process with new projects, themes, and change agents.
26. How to recognize that the influence relationship is multidirectional.
27. How to use equipment of the organization.
28. The ability to actively listen to different points of view.
29. How to describe the distinguishing characteristics of other groups in the same field.
30. How to deal with uncertainty.
31. How to accept different points of view.
32. How to use increased credibility to change all timelines, structures, systems and policies that do not produce positive results in the vision.
33. The ability to understand that influence behaviors are noncoercive.
34. How to set expectations by disseminating information thus minimizing concerns.
35. How to describe future plans.
36. How to role model the expected behavior for the mentees.
37. How to value all peoples and groups.

38. How to conduct oneself in an honest and ethical way.
39. How to prepare to take calculated risks.
40. How to secure resources.
41. How to maintain contact with the organization.
42. How to recognize inherent risks and problems in goal setting and achieving of goals for mentees.
43. How to develop a positive personal relationship.
44. How to ensure leadership development.
45. How to maintain contact with those being mentored.

Short Answer: Please answer the following question in sentence form using as many lines as needed to complete your answer.

46. Provide your assessment of the best way for a volunteer mentor to receive leadership training in order to improve the mentor-mentee relationship and the mentee goals achieved.

Scoring

Leadership

The scoring for the questionnaire is divided into two areas, management and leadership.

This grouping of questions relates to the practice of influencing relationships to achieve a shared goal leading to intended change.

Score questions 6 and 14 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 12, 22, 25, 32, and 45 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 26 and 33 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 8, 10, 19, 28, 34, 36 and 41 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 2,13, 16, 37, and 38 and on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 23, 30, 39 and 42 on the scale below.

Score questions 24, 44 and 46 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Add the individual scores for these questions and divide the total score for this group by 29.

Management

Score questions 3, 9,17, 20, 29, and 35 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 5, 15, 18, and 27, on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 4, 7, 20 and 21 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Score questions 1, 31, 40 and 43 on the scale below:

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

Add the individual scores for these questions and divide the total score for this group by 18.

Interpretation

The following are average scores for the above groupings:

- 0.0-3.0 The characteristics and attributes identified do not indicate that an effective volunteer mentor training practice is being demonstrated and that additional management and leadership development is required.
- 3.1-3.9 The characteristics and attributes identified in the volunteer mentor training has some aspects associated with effective leadership, but there is room for growth and improvement.
- 4.0-5.0 The characteristics and attributes identified in the volunteer mentor training are being effectively demonstrated.

APPENDIX 2

CORRESPONDENCES

This appendix contains a copy of the letter sent to the nonprofit Christian organizations to invite them to participate in my study and the cover letter that accompanied the assessment for Phase 2.

This appendix includes:

1. Letter to Prospective Participants
2. Cover Letter Included with the Assessment

Dear Prospective Participant:

In our collaborative efforts of service to individuals, your organization's name appears on a list as one who provides mentor services to individuals. I am currently attending Southern Baptist Theological Seminary pursuing a doctorate in Leadership and Christian Ministry. My dissertation is *AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING PRACTICE OF VOLUNTEER MENTORS IN NONPROFIT CHRISTIAN ORGANIZATIONS*. Your organization has been selected because it appears to meet the delimitations of my study. Would you allow your organization to participate in this study? The volunteer mentors in your organization will be asked to fill out a Likert Scale in January or February, which will provide quantitative data for my research?

I realize that you value the privacy of your volunteer mentors. All communications will be transmitted through your volunteer manager or the person in whom you designate to administer the Likert Scale.

Please R.S.V.P. using the self-addressed stamp envelope or email me, barbaracottrell@hotmail.com with the responses to the questions below, ASAP. If you have any further questions, please feel free to call the above number or contact me by email.

I thank you in advanced for your prompt response to this communication.

Yours truly,

The Reverend Barbara C. Cottrell

1. Does your organization provide volunteer mentoring services YES NO
2. Is your organization nonprofit? YES NO
3. Is your organization Faith-based? YES NO
4. Are you willing to allow your organization to participate in this study? YES NO
5. If your answer to question four is yes, how many volunteer mentors are in your organization? _____

Dear Site Coordinator:

Your organization was invited to participate in my research to obtain a doctorate from The Southern Baptist Theological Seminary in Louisville, Kentucky. I am conducting a study on the leadership training practice of volunteer mentors. This research involves the use of two surveys. The first, which was conducted September through November, consisted of interviewing volunteer mentors to ascertain the training they received in preparing them for the role of volunteer mentors. These responses provided me with the data to create a final assessment, an inventory that determines the areas that are to be included in the volunteer mentor training practice.

Your organization was included in the sample because it meets the criteria established for this survey. It is a nonprofit Christian organization, which has trained volunteer mentors who serve at-risk individuals in Virginia. Thank you for your cooperation and willingness to participate in my study. Please return all materials promptly.

“For Your information” . . .

1. The responses of the volunteer mentor in your organization will be used to create a summary assessment of the leadership training practice.
2. This will be the only use for your organization’s responses. No information, biographical or otherwise, will be provided to any other organization or individual.
3. The responses of the volunteer mentors in your organization will be kept in strict confidence. Also, no attempt will be made to evaluate any individual organization’s training practices; the statistics used in this research will be used to paint a picture of the leadership training practice as a whole. Therefore, please respond honestly.
4. Follow the directions at the top of the assessment and please make every effort to finish the assessment, and return it, within one week.

Enclosed you will find the Optical Marker Scan Sheet, the Volunteer Mentor Assessment for each mentor, #2 pencils, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. After completion of the assessment by the ***volunteer mentor***, please return all materials except the pencils in the self-addressed envelope.

Feel free to contact me if you have any questions, suggestions, or comments before, during, or after the assessment. If you desire a copy of the results, you may reach me at the postal or email address given above.

Thank you so much for your time and attention. Your contribution will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

The Reverend Barbara C. Cottrell

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